CO-BRANDING:

A BRAND PARTNERSHIP AND A NEW PRODUCT

Proefschrift

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“I’m looking for a partner, someone who gets things fixed
Ask yourself this question: Do you want to be rich?

I’ve got the brains, you’ve got the looks
Let’s make lots of money”

-Pet Shop Boys-

Neil Tennant and Chris Lowe (1986)
“Opportunities (Let’s Make Lots Of Money)” [Recorded by Pet Shop Boys]
On Please [LP]
London: Parlophone / EMI

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Enschede, February 2010

Figure A.1: Chopin at 'work' (photo by Rinske van Eck)

1 INTRODUCING CO-BRANDING

Every company dreams of developing a new product that becomes so successful that almost every household owns the product. This is what happened in 2001 in The Netherlands with the introduction of a new product by Philips and Douwe Egberts (a subsidiary of Sara Lee). These two brands introduced a new coffee machine, the Senseo, which created a new product category: Fast single-serve cups of coffee that taste like Italian espresso without the hassle of an expensive and complicated espresso machine (see Figure 1.1). Four years later they had sold over ten million units (Kotler & Armstrong, 2005) and the two brands also introduced their product on the American and Australian markets. Another example of a new product that Philips developed in cooperation with a partner brand (beer brewer Inbev) is a draught beer system for home use, the PerfectDraft (see Figure 1.2). This new product makes it possible for beer-lovers to taste their favorite drafted beer at home. It creates a new beer drinking experience just as the Senseo did for drinking coffee. It is no coincidence that Philips developed both products with a partner brand as alliances are a fundamental part of Philips' strategy (Philips, 2006). The company collaborates with more than thirty leading global brands to introduce new products to the market. For instance, Philips launched an electric razor together with Nivea, introduced a range of sound accessories and USB storage devices covered with Swarovski crystals, created a telephone for wireless internet chatting and calling with MSN, and developed a new application for mobile payment transactions together with Visa.

Figure 1.1:
Senseo coffee machine

Figure 1.2:
PerfectDraft
draught beer system

In all these cases Philips has chosen co-branding as its product development and marketing strategy, which can be defined as “a form of co-operation between two or more brands with significant consumer recognition, in which all the participants’ brand names are retained” (Blackett & Russell, 1999) and “a single, unique product is created” (Leuthesser, Kohli, & Suri, 2003). Co-branding is a popular brand strategy employed for new product introductions (Basu Monga & Lau-Gesk, 2007; Keller & Lehmann, 2006) because the strategy draws upon the competences and reputations of two brands to innovate and create new products (Faems, Van Looy, & Debackere, 2005; Kapferer, 2001; Knudsen, 2007; Linnarson, 2005; Park, Jun, & Shocker, 1996; Prince & Davies, 2002). The Senseo and PerfectDraft are examples of such co-branded products, just like an automobile with an ‘outdoor lifestyle’ interior by Ford and Eddie Bauer (see Figure 1.8), an electronic toothbrush by Braun and Oral B (see Figure 1.9), and an upright hand vacuum cleaner developed by Dirt Devil and Swiffer (see Figure 1.10).

However, not all co-branded products become successful. An example of a co-branded product that failed is a portable audio player introduced by Apple and Hewlett Packard in January 2004 (see Figure 1.3). Apple and Hewlett Packard targeted this product to consumers who were familiar with Hewlett Packard but unfamiliar with Apple software. However, these consumers felt that the co-branded product did not offer any differential advantages over a regular iPod because no extra functionalities were present and the visual design of the co-branded iPod was identical to that of a regular iPod (Mahr, November 8, 2004). In addition, consumers did not know which brand to turn to for customer support, creating confusion about which brand was ultimately responsible for the new product. The partnership was ended in July 2005 (Fried, July 29, 2005). Another example of a failed co-branded product is a consumer loyalty program called AOL AAdvantage. America Online (AOL) and American Airlines (AA) introduced AOL AAdvantage to the market in May 2000. Again, consumers felt that the loyalty program did not offer any benefits over the existing AA loyalty program. In addition, most consumers did not understand what AOL’s contribution was to the program. Consequently, they did not see the need for the presence of two brand names on the program (Winship, October 13, 2000). AOL and AA ended the program in March 2002.

The examples discussed above demonstrate some of the opportunities and challenges that brands may encounter when they decide to develop and introduce a new co-branded product. Different literature streams have focused on the opportunities and problems that may arise during development or introduction of a new co-branded product. These literature streams are discussed next.

Figure 1.3:
An iPod by Apple and HP

1.1 THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO CO-BRANDING

The development of a co-branded product involves several entities: two collaborating brands that both have their existing product portfolios, and a new product. New product success depends for an important part on a properly executed brand strategy (Keller, 2008). Therefore, it is relevant to understand the significance of each of these entities for the new product development (NPD) process, and to comprehend how they may influence consumer reactions to the new product to adapt the brand strategy accordingly. The present chapter will discuss the perspectives of the marketing and NPD literatures on co-branding. The first stream of literature focuses on the relevance of the initial partnership during and after product launch, while the second focuses on the development of the new co-branded product. This doctoral thesis provides an integrated view of both perspectives by discussing the relevance of the initial partnership and the new product in conjunction.

1.1.1 Co-Branding from a Marketing Perspective

The marketing literature primarily focuses on the consumers' evaluation of co-branding following a new product's introduction. One of the main themes is the competitive advantage that is offered by a co-branding strategy in comparison with a single brand strategy (see Figure 1.4; Kapferer, 2001; Park, et al., 1996; Rao & Ruekert, 1994; Washburn, Till, & Priluck, 2000). For example, Kapferer (2001) stated that co-branding leads to increased consumer recognition. With two brands, the product differentiates itself from other, single-branded products and therefore may receive more attention from consumers. Another advantage may be the overall increase in the consumers' expectations of a new product's performance. According to several authors (Park, et al., 1996; Rao & Ruekert, 1994; Washburn, et al., 2000), the presence of a second brand leads to higher consumer expectations of a product than the same product with a single brand.

Another theme in the marketing literature is the relevance of the partnership. Several authors discuss the relevance of the partnership by examining the compatibility between the participating brands and how the partnership as a whole is perceived by consumers (see Figure 1.5; Park, et al., 1996; Simonin & Ruth, 1998). In particular, these authors investigate the extent to which both brands need to be perceived as 'sensible' partners by consumers in order for them to accept the new co-branded product. For example, Simonin and Ruth (1998) investigated how the evaluation of a new co-branded product depended on the fit between both brands in the partnership. They showed that the logic behind a brand combination, both at the product category and at the brand image level, positively influenced

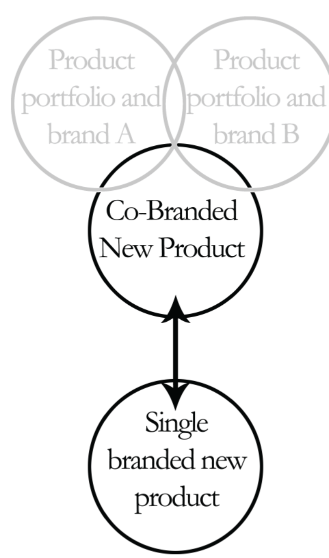

Figure 1.4: Perspective co-branding as competitive advantage (Kapferer, 2001; Park, et al., 1996; Rao and Ruekert, 1994; Washburn, et al., 2000)

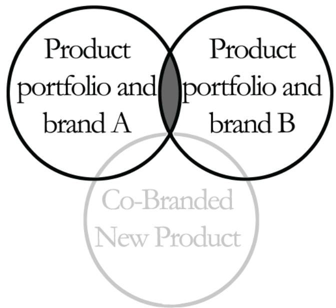

Figure 1.5: Perspective co-branding as a brand partnership (Simonin and Ruth, 1998; Park, et al., 1996)

consumer evaluations of new co-branded products. When consumers perceive the two brands to be compatible on one or both of these levels, they evaluate the new co-branded product more positively.

1.1.2 Co-Branding from a NPD Perspective

A central theme in the NPD literature on co-branding is the question of whether a certain brand is able to make a new product on its own (see Figure 1.6). When a brand cannot develop a new product because of missing marketing intelligence, or technological or operational capabilities, a partner brand may be able to provide these (Gopalakrishnan, 2007). An external partner may also share the high costs of NPD, thereby reducing the risk associated with introducing a new product (Levin, 2002). For these reasons, Prince and Davies (2002) state that co-branding motivates innovation through the support of a partner brand.

Several studies in the NPD domain state that a partnership works best when the participation of each of the partners is equal. A number of problems typically emerge when there is an unbalanced relationship. For instance, Bucklin and Sengupta (1993b) discuss how an unbalanced relationship within an alliance often leads to unsuccessful outcomes as a power imbalance may lead the dominant brand to exploit its superior power at the expense of the non-dominant brand by, for example, gaining market share at the expense of the partner or by stealing intellectual property. Thus, a power imbalance creates potential for conflict. Gundlach and Cadotte (1994) support these authors and state that the performance of an alliance is lower when one brand is dominant during NPD. However, even when there is no dominant brand during NPD, consumers may still perceive brand dominance after the new product's introduction, because co-branded products "typically include one component of the product that is more prominent than the other" (Levin, Davis, & Levin, 1996, p. 297). A possible cause of this perceived brand dominance is a new product's design. Design acts as a communication tool for the strategies and identity of a company (Schroeder & Salzer-Morling, 2006). When two brands introduce a new product to the market together, that co-branded product's design will probably reflect more than one identity. Up to now, it is not clear whether consumers perceive single or multiple brand identities in the design of a new co-branded product. In addition, it is unclear whether one of these identities dominates the other, and how this perceived dominance influences the consumers' new product evaluation. Summarizing, the NPD literature has not yet examined whether decisions taken during NPD influence consumers' perceptions of brand dominance and what the possible consequences of these consumers' perceptions are for the evaluation of a new product.

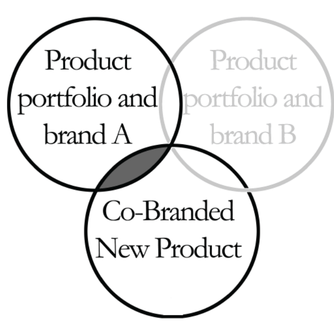

Figure 1.6: Perspective co-branding as innovation resource (Gopalakrishnan, 2007; Levin, 2002; Prince and Davies, 2002)

1.2 AIM OF THE RESEARCH

This doctoral thesis aims to provide an integrated view of both the marketing and NPD literatures by discussing co-branding in relation to both the brand partnership and the new product (see Figure 1.7). This integrated view is necessary because it remains unclear how consumers perceive and evaluate new co-branded products in relation to the partner brands. In order to introduce successful co-branded products, a thorough understanding of these aspects is needed. The integrated view will explain how and why the consumers' reaction is relevant when developing and introducing a new co-branded product.

This doctoral thesis will focus on four important research issues. First, it aims to gain more conceptual clarity about the co-branding strategy. Up to now, numerous definitions for the co-branding strategy have been used and there appears to be no consensus (Simonin & Ruth, 1998). Co-branding is a form of brand alliance, and thus this strategy is often confused with other types of brand alliances. In addition, co-branded products seem to exist in all kind of varieties. To clarify the concept of co-branding, a context and definition for the co-branding strategy is presented by examining the use of co-branding in the past and in the present (studies 1 and 2).

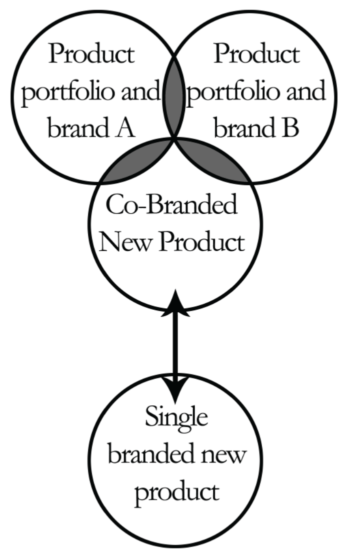

Figure 1.7: Integrated perspective on the relevance of the brand(s) and the new product

Second, this thesis aims to improve our understanding of the consumer evaluation of co-branded products by explicitly taking the role of the new product into account. If co-branding exists to elevate consumer evaluations of a new product (cf., Park, et al., 1996), then it is likely that consumers also consider what the connection is between each individual brand and the new co-branded product. A sensible connection may lead consumers to the conclusion that the product is relevant and this increased relevance may lead to higher product evaluations. For example, if Godiva (i.e., luxury chocolate) and SlimFast (i.e., diet products) would introduce a co-branded diet chocolate cake mix, consumers probably consider the connection between each brand and the new product to make sense because the existing products of both brands show similarities with the new product. In other words, both brands are perceived to fulfill a relevant role in the relationship. However, it is questionable whether consumers consider a mobile phone introduced by the same brands to be equally sensible because a mobile phone shows no similarities with the existing products of the two brands. Thus, neither of the brands is directly relevant to the relationship. Considering this, it is surprising that the relationship of the newly developed product, with the parent brands and their existing product portfolios, has not received more research attention.

Figure 1.8: Automobile with 'outdoor lifestyle' interior by Ford and Eddie Bauer

Third, this thesis aims to examine the antecedents and consequences of perceived brand dominance. Consumers may consider the presence of one brand on the new co-branded product to make more sense than the other brand's presence on the new product. When this happens, the partnership is unbalanced and the first brand may dominate the second brand. Up to now, it is unclear how dominance comes about, and what the consequences of dominance are for the perception and evaluation of the new product and its brands after market introduction. Perceived brand dominance in the co-branding relation may have a moderating effect, in that an asymmetric combination may lead to a bigger influence of the consumer's evaluation of the co-branded product on the post-exposure attitude toward the dominant brand. For instance, if the product fails, dominance in the co-branding relation may lead to the attribution of failure of the product to only one of the two brands in the partnership. This attribution of failure may lead to dilution of that brand's image, and may thus have negative consequences for the dominant brand.

Finally, this thesis examines the relevance of the new product's visual design on new product perception and evaluation (study 6). The use of a visual in combination with two brands provides us with the opportunity to examine how each of these informational cues may influence perceived brand dominance (i.e., whether consumers perceive single or multiple brand identities in the design of a new co-branded product). In addition, by using a visual of the new co-branded product a more realistic consumer and marketing context is created (Garber, Hyatt, & Starr, 2003).

1.3 MANAGERIAL RELEVANCE

A main reason for managers to consider co-branding is that they want to introduce a new product that the company is currently unable to make or introduce on the market by itself. If managers consider co-branding as appropriate, they need to choose a 'sensible' partner. Based on current knowledge, managers have sufficient guidelines to help them choose a partner brand that suits their own brand. However, less knowledge is available on the consequences of partner choice on consumer reactions toward and evaluation of the new product. In addition, when managers start from an existing partnership, they would like to know what product(s) they could develop. Current theory does not offer insights into these questions as it portrays partnership- and product choice as independent rather than concurrent choices (Linnarson, 2005). This doctoral thesis provides insights into these questions by examining how consumers consider the connection between each individual brand and the co-branded product.

Another important objective of this doctoral thesis is to explain how consumers perceive and thus evaluate co-branded products. By examining the consumers' perception of the connection between each individual brand and the new product, managers can better understand why consumers may consider the connection between one brand and the new co-branded product to make more sense. When it becomes clear what elements determine this possible brand dominance and what the consequences are of this dominance with regard to product evaluation, managers may act upon it. For example, perceived brand dominance may have consequences for the chosen introduction strategy. If the brands that decide to introduce a co-branded product are aware that the product better reflects the visual design of one of the brands before introduction, they may try to counterbalance this perceived dominance of that brand through adaptations in the promotion of the new product. In addition, the design of any new product may help to differentiate that product from its competition (Cox & Cox, 2002). However, up to now, managers seem to miss clear guidelines for the design of a new co-branded product. Furthermore, they do not know what consequences a chosen design may have for the new co-branded product's perception and evaluation. For these reasons, it is relevant to know more about how dominance itself comes about and what the consequences of this perceived dominance are for new product evaluation.

1.4 ACADEMIC RELEVANCE

Keller and Lehmann (2006) recently stated that the implications of co-branding on consumer reactions are unknown and need further investigation to be better able to execute the co-branding strategy successfully. By combining both the marketing and NPD literatures, this doctoral thesis aims to explain the how and why of consumer reactions to co-branded products. Part of this explanation is the relevance of each parent brand for the new product. Current research states that co-branding is effective for a brand that cannot develop a new product by itself (Gopalakrishnan, 2007; Levin, 2002). This is believed to be true during NPD because a partner brand may contribute expertise or money, but up to now it is unclear whether consumers experience the same need for the presence of each brand on

Figure 1.9:
An electronic toothbrush by Braun and Oral B

the new product. Perhaps consumers feel that one of the brands could have introduced the new product by itself.

In addition, most studies (and companies) have considered the brands that form a partnership to be equal partners. It is unlikely that consumers also see an equal partnership, and in case they do not, what the influence of this perceived brand dominance is on their reaction toward the new product. When consumers perceive one brand as more important, they may only use this brand as a basis for their evaluation of the new product, neglecting benefits related to the other brand. However, when consumers perceive both brands to be important, they are more likely to recognize the benefits provided by each brand that is part of the new co-branded product.

1.5 THESIS OVERVIEW

This doctoral thesis consists of six studies distributed over four chapters (see Table 1.1). Chapter 2 distinguishes the co-branding strategy from other types of brand alliances through two different studies. Study 1 is a historical content analysis of advertisements in a women's magazine in The Netherlands between 1945 and 2009.

Table 1.1: Overview of the thesis

Chapter		Study type
1	Introducing Co-Branding	-
2	Co-Branding in Practice	
	Study 1: A Historical Analysis of Co-Branding	Qualitative: historical content analysis
	Study 2: A Classification of Co-Branding	Qualitative: database analysis
3	The Consumer Perception and Evaluation of New Co-Branded Products	-
4	Fit Measures and New Co-Branded Product Evaluation	
	Study 3: The Impact of Fit Measures on the Consumer Evaluation of New Co-Branded Products	Quantitative: questionnaire
5	Dominance and New Co-Branded Product Evaluation	
	Study 4: An Exploratory Study of the Potential Causes of Perceived Brand Dominance	Qualitative: survey with open-ended questions
	Study 5: The Impact of Brand Salience and Category Relatedness on Perceived Brand Dominance and New Co-Branded Product Evaluation	Quantitative: experiment
	Study 6: The Impact of Brand Order and Visual Design Similarity on Perceived Brand Dominance and New Co-Branded Product Evaluation	Quantitative: experiment
6	General Discussion and Implications	-

This study demonstrates that over time there have been many advertisements with multiple brands and that, although co-branding is a relatively old brand strategy, it has regained popularity in the 1990s (Bouten, Snelders, & Stoof, 2006). In addition, the study examines the strategic reasons for using co-branding, and how these reasons have changed during the sixty-five year period that is investigated. The findings of study 1 indicate that the co-branding strategy can be divided into several sub-strategies. To differentiate these sub-strategies, in study 2 a database of over 340 recent product introductions with more than one brand is created. The database reveals three sub-strategies of co-branding that are discussed in more detail. This doctoral thesis will focus on those types of co-branding that make relatively more use of NPD because it is interested in the advantages of using a second brand during introduction and NPD. Within this group, ingredient branded products (i.e., a product with an integrated branded component that adds a functional attribute) form the majority (see study 2). Therefore, this doctoral thesis primarily focuses on the consumers' response toward ingredient branded products. In addition, because most co-branded products exist of tangible products and not services, this thesis will focus on tangible products.

After distinguishing the co-branding strategy from other available strategies, Chapter 3 focuses on the theoretical framework for this doctoral thesis. The chapter starts with an overview and synthesis of the co-branding literature, and then discusses the different theoretical perspectives used in this literature. Following the discussion of how consumers process and thus evaluate a new co-branded product, Chapter 3 also discusses different factors derived from the literature that can influence whether the consumer perceives one of the brands that is part of the new co-branded product as dominant.

Chapter 4 focuses on the consumer evaluation of a co-branded product and presents the results of study 3 (Bouten, Snelders, & Hultink, 2010). This study is a replication with extension of a model of the consumer evaluation of co-branded products presented by Simonin and Ruth (1998). The extended model examines whether consumers consider the logic of the connection between each individual brand and the specific new product that has been developed. Study 3 also makes a first attempt at investigating the existence of dominance, and how this dominance may influence the evaluation of the new product.

Chapter 5 discusses studies 4, 5 and 6 that focus on the topic of dominance, and how dominance may influence the evaluation of a co-branded product. Study 4 is a qualitative study that explores whether consumers perceive one brand as being dominant, and if so, what they perceive as the possible causes of dominance. Study 5 examines two main causes of dominance derived from study 4, namely a difference in brand salience (i.e., dominance of the brand within its category) and category relatedness of the new product to the former products of each brand (i.e., similarities between each brand and the new product on a functional level). Study 6 focuses on two other possible causes of dominance,

Figure 1.10:
Upright hand vacuum cleaner by Dirt Devil and Swiffer

in specific the order of the brand names and the influence of similarities between each brand and the new product's visual design. In addition, both study 5 and 6 explore how these causes of perceived brand dominance affect the evaluation of a new co-branded product.

Chapter 6 summarizes the most important findings of this doctoral thesis. In addition, this chapter discusses the limitations of the research, and determines possibilities for future research. Finally, it presents several recommendations for how to initiate a co-branded NPD project and how to design a co-branded product, and it discusses additional implications for managers and academia.

2 CO-BRANDING IN PRACTICE

Chapter 1 showed that co-branding may provide a brand several opportunities and challenges during NPD and introduction. However, it is not evident yet how consumers perceive and respond to co-branded products. Before discussing the theoretical framework that will reflect on these issues in more detail, this thesis will first examine the use of co-branding in the past (study 1) and in the present (study 2) to provide a clear definition of, and a context for, the co-branding strategy.

Providing a clear definition and context is essential because there are many types of cooperations between brands. All these types of cooperations including co-branding are examples of brand alliances, which are short- or long-term combinations of two (or more) brands with significant consumer recognition (Simonin & Ruth, 1998). Short-term alliances are used by marketers to "create relevance, differentiation, and energy quickly in an effort that is not expected to have a long life" (Aaker, 2004, p. 180). Joint promotion is an example of a frequently used short-term brand alliance in which two (or more) brands are exposed together in a single promotion (Dahlen & Lange, 2005). For example, Renault cars and Elf oil recommend simultaneous use of their products. Through this mutual endorsement these brands hope to improve their market position (Washburn, et al., 2000). However, because most short-term brand alliances do not result in a new product or service (Aaker, 2004; Simonin & Ruth, 1998), this type of alliance is not the focus of this thesis.

Co-branding is by definition a long-term brand alliance, because it always constitutes a certain level of NPD in which a single, unique product is created (Leuthesser, et al., 2003). Furthermore, after the co-branded product is introduced on the market, it takes time to create associations between the two brands and the new product (Aaker, 2004). Thus, co-branding is only effective as a long-term brand alliance.

This chapter presents two studies. The first study distinguishes the co-branding strategy from joint promotions by performing a historical analysis of post-war advertisements in the leading Dutch women's magazine, Libelle, between 1945 and 2009. This historical analysis will show that co-branding is not a new strategy as is often claimed (Bengtsson, 2002; Levin, 2002). The analysis also helps to identify the extent to which co-branding is used as a long-term brand alliance compared to joint promotions, a short-term brand alliance. Furthermore, the analysis identifies the strategic reasons for using both strategies, and how these reasons have changed over the years.

The second study of this chapter classifies different sub-types of the co-branding strategy itself to provide a clear definition of the co-branding strategy and to help focus this thesis. Therefore, this chapter identifies and defines three different sub-types of the co-branding strategy through the examination of a database of over 330 co-branded products. The classification into the three sub-types is based on the level of NPD involved with the creation of the new co-branded product. Because the level of NPD may influence how consumers perceive and evaluate a new product, this classification is relevant when examining the co-branding strategy. In addition, the database will exhibit what sub-types of the co-branding strategy are used most often and are therefore most relevant to investigate.

2.1 STUDY 1: A HISTORICAL ANALYSIS OF CO-BRANDING[1]

2.1.1 Method Study 1

A historical content analysis was conducted of advertisements portrayed in a magazine called Libelle during the period 1945 till 2009. Content analysis is an objective, systematic, and quantitative research technique for the description of communicative content (Kassarjian, 1977; Levin, 2002). This technique helps to describe trends in communication content (Weber, 1990) and is thus a suitable technique for the purpose of the present study. In addition, the communicative content (e.g., advertising) reflects developments in society, and the associations consumers create with (new) products and their brands are substantiated by the social context in which they are placed (McCracken, 1986).

Units of Measurement

The units of measurement used in this study were advertisements portrayed in a weekly women's magazine called Libelle during the period 1945 till 2009. Libelle was chosen as the unit of measurement, because the magazine exists since 1934 and is one of the oldest still existing magazines in The Netherlands. Furthermore, Libelle is a magazine that has always been a contemporary reflection of society (De Groot & Kunz, 1984). The magazine provides women with information on a diverse range of topics: beauty and fashion, relationships, raising children, health and food, and other aspects of life (De Groot & Kunz, 1984). Because of its age, the magazine offered the opportunity to investigate whether co-branding is a new strategy and it also provided an insight in the extent of use of co-branding in the past. In addition, Libelle is a suitable magazine to examine because the magazine does not have an audience that is too specialized. It is a magazine for women of all ages and women are important decision makers within households.

[1] A brief presentation of this study appeared earlier (in Dutch) as Bouten, L.M., Snelders, D., & Stoof, C. (2006, Febuary). "Twee grote namen zijn Uw dubbele waarborg!" in *Tijdschrift voor Marketing*.

Procedure

From all volumes of Libelle between 1945 and 2009, every fourth issue out of the 52 issues published each year was reviewed (i.e., #1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, 29, 33, 37, 41, 45, and 49). All advertisements in each issue were systematically examined and an advertisement was copied for further analysis when it displayed two or more brand names.

The content and appearance of the magazine and advertisements changed in response to changes in society during the sixty-five year period. Furthermore, the role of brands evolved as well (Fiorini & Titterton, 2009). For these reasons, the analysis of the advertisements will be placed in the context of changes in the development of the Dutch post war society in general (Van Rossem, Jonker, & Kooijmans, 1993) and branding in particular (Holt, 2002; Low & Fullerton, 1994; Moore & Reid, 2008; Schroeder & Salzer-Morling, 2006).[2] In addition, an industry expert working as a senior marketing manager at Unilever from the early 1960s until the late 1990s was interviewed for additional background information about the development of a specific product category that was prominent in advertisements in almost all periods (i.e., washing detergent brands).

As is the convention for historical research, propositions that are representative of the principal findings of this study are stated upfront, followed by the findings that support these propositions (Moore & Reid, 2008). The propositions are:

1) in the first few decades after the Second World War brand alliances aimed at reducing the perception of risk of (new) brands and the functioning of their products;

2) starting at the end of the 1960s, brand alliances aimed to diminish their authoritative role in response to certain social changes;

3) in the 1990s, brand alliances provided opportunities to create more emotional relationships with consumers;

4) in all the periods, joint promotions are used more often than co-branding; and

5) co-branding was abandoned as a strategy during the 1980s following economic decline and a focus on brand authenticity, while the strategy increased in popularity during the first decade of the twenty-first century. This explains why co-branding is often claimed to be a new strategy, which it is not.

The findings of study 1 are presented chronologically, detailing contextual background and supporting data for each of six different periods. These six different periods each cover eleven years apart from the last period. This period covers ten years. The periods are separated by changes in the Dutch society (Van Rossem, et al., 1993)[3] and the use of brands in society in general (Holt, 2002). The next paragraph

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[2] These articles and books focus on branding in the American post war society. Despite this different context, these references are a valid source of information because the Dutch post war society has followed most developments in the American society.

[3] The book by Van Rossem, et al. (1993) portrayed the developments in Dutch society from 1945 until 1993. It discussed all aspects of life (just as Libelle), and thus forms an interesting background for the present analysis.

discusses each period and provides examples of the advertisements found in the magazine during that period.

2.1.2 Results Study 1

The advertisements in the magazine displayed a wide range of products and brands, exemplifying the diverse character of the magazine. The number of pages of the magazine, the total number of advertisements, and the relative size of the advertisements changed during the sixty-five year period. In the 1940s and 1950s, Libelle consisted of about sixty pages with relatively small advertisements (i.e., an eight or a quarter of a page). In the 1960s and 1970s, Libelle was at its largest and covered between 110 and 190 pages with advertisements that had gradually increased in size to a half or full page. The number of pages decreased again in the last three decades of the studied period (to around 100 pages), but the size of the advertisements kept on increasing (i.e., full- or double-page advertisements became the norm). The number of advertisements per page and per issue has thus diminished over time, reducing the absolute likelihood of finding advertisements containing two or more brands. However, the corresponding relative likelihood of finding advertisements with two or more brands became higher (e.g., one advertisement on a total of 100 advertisements per issue in the 1960s vs. one advertisement on a total of 60 advertisements per

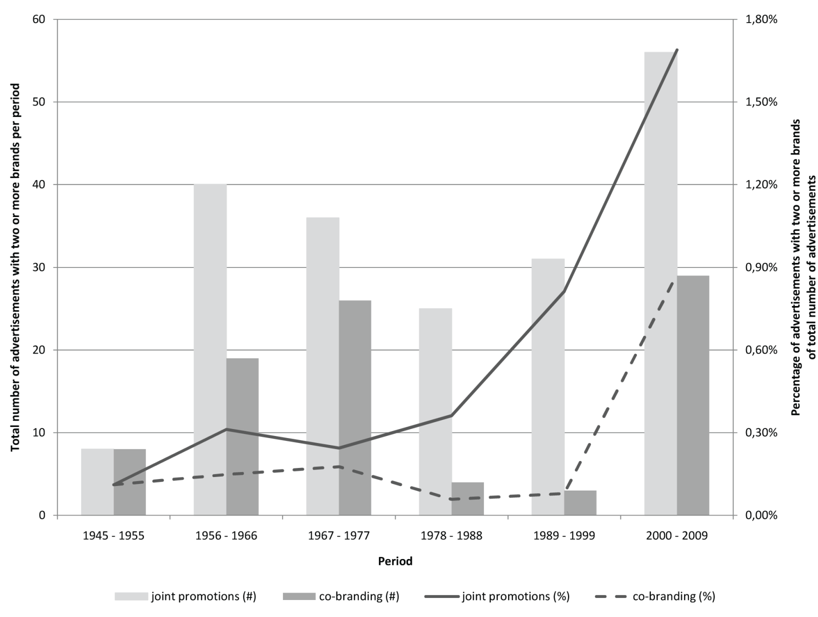


Figure 2.1: Study 1 The absolute number and percentage of advertisements with two or more brands found in Libelle (1945 - 2009)

Note 1: The last period (i.e., 2000 - 2009) covers ten years instead of eleven years. The number of advertisements in this period has not been corrected to mitigate this problem. Thus, the number of advertisements in this period with two or more brands depicted here is lower than in reality.

Note 2: The number of advertisements with two or more brands per period can be up to four times higher than the numbers depicted here because of the used sampling procedure (i.e., every fourth issue of Libelle was examined).

in the 1980s vs. one advertisement on a total of 25 advertisements per issue in the 2000s).

In addition, the historical content analysis demonstrated that most advertisements with two brands did not portray a new product developed through a partnership between two (or more) brands. Figure 2.1 displays the change in the absolute number and the percentage of advertisements portraying joint promotions and co-branded products found in Libelle during the sixty-five year period. The columns show that the number of alliances rose during the 1950s and 1960s, followed by a relatively stable period in the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s for joint promotions. There is a dip during the 1980s and 1990s for co-branding. However, in the first decade of the twenty-first century, both the absolute number of advertisements displaying joint promotions and co-branded products increased dramatically. The lines displaying the percentage of advertisements with two or more brands of the total number of advertisements in Libelle shows a similar development. However, since the total number of advertisements was high from the end of the 1950s to the beginning of the 1980s, the lines are less peaked in the second and third period than the columns. The percentage of advertisements displaying joint promotions and co-branded products increased in the first decade of the twenty-first century just as did the absolute number of advertisements, indicating a growth of the use of these strategies. Appendix A.I provides an overview of the advertisements with two or more brands that appeared in Libelle. Below these developments are discussed in relation to developments in society and brand management.

Rebuilding (1945 – 1955)

In the period just after the Second World War everything was scarce in The Netherlands. The consumption level of the average Dutchman at the beginning of the 1950s was similar to the consumption level of the early 1930s (Van Rossem, et al., 1993). Wages were kept low to stimulate employment and to improve the competitive position of Dutch companies. Gradually unemployment decreased and wealth increased. Consistent with this economic situation, the issues of Libelle examined in this period showed a small number of ads in general and an even smaller number of ads with multiple brands.

After the Second World War consumers preferred branded products because they constituted a fundamental quality and indicated producer responsibility (Low & Fullerton, 1994), something that was often lacking during the war. In the USA, brands started to create an attractive vision of the future with technologically advanced products to show to consumers what they had been fighting for during the war (Meikle, 2005). The role of brands in the USA gradually changed from being a representation of an ongoing business to fulfilling a more authoritative role in which brands dictated consumer decisions (Holt, 2002). However, Dutch consumers took longer to recover from the war as they had to rebuild their country and were only able to buy the bare necessities at first (Van Rossem, et al., 1993). Thus, Dutch consumers continued to use the brand as a representation of an ongoing business and a sign of fundamental quality somewhat longer than their American counterparts.

Most joint promotions during this period showed a familiar and trusted brand, of which the fundamental quality was evident, recommending an unfamiliar brand. To illustrate, several washing machine brands advertised together with established soap

Figure 2.2: Study 1
An advertisement for a refrigerator created by Frigidaire and General Motors (in Dutch; Libelle 1952, no. 13, p. 16).

The pay-off states: *"Two big names are your double guarantee… Frigidaire built exclusively by General Motors."*

brands after the washing machine was introduced in The Netherlands in the early 1950s. Because washing machines were new to the Dutch consumer, washing machine manufacturers used the authority of existing soap brands to help consumers accept this new product and overcome feelings of insecurity related to new product and brand adoption (personal communication, October 28, 2005).

This period also revealed the first examples of co-branding found in Libelle. A series of advertisements displayed a refrigerator created by Frigidaire and General Motors (Libelle #13, 1952; #21, 1953; #37, 1954; #21, 1955; #21, 1957; #21, 1959). The accompanying text explicitly mentioned that General Motors was partly responsible for producing the new Frigidaire refrigerator, and thus both brands were involved during the NPD of the refrigerator (see Figure 2.2 for an example). At that time, refrigerators as a product category and Frigidaire as a brand were relatively new to the Dutch market, while consumers were familiar with the American brand General Motors. By adding this latter brand name to the advertisement and by explicitly mentioning the role of General Motors as the producer of the new product, the legitimacy of the product and the Frigidaire brand was improved. These advertisements are different from the advertisements that showed brand recommendations because the former explicitly stated that General Motors was involved in the NPD process of the Frigidaire refrigerator. General Motors and Frigidaire developed this refrigerator together and retained both brand names on the new product. Thus, these advertisements exemplify the first instance of a co-branded product found in this study.

Modern Consumer Society (1956 – 1966)

In 1956 the consumption level rose after the Dutch government had increased all wages with six percent and continued to increase the wages in the following years. Under several social democratic governments a social-welfare system was established in The Netherlands. These changes formed the start of a new consumer culture and the start of the second period; The Netherlands entered the "Modern Consumer Society" (Van Rossem, et al., 1993). The modern consumer society thus evolved several decades later in The Netherlands than in the USA.

Due to the increase of the consumption level and improvements in social welfare, consumers renewed their faith in technological advancements and in the social advancement of Dutch society. In addition, consumers obtained the purchasing power to buy a range of new products that became available (e.g., washing machines, refrigerators). These new products were a consequence of both the development of new technologies and the insight of brands that different consumer needs required different products (Low & Fullerton, 1994). The new products and their accompanying brands tried to represent an ideal and modern life by creating advertisements that portrayed psychological and social properties next to functional product benefits (Holt, 2002; McCracken, 1986), although these latter benefits remained important.

A representative example of a joint promotion that portrayed a modern life and technological advancement from this period is that of the introduction of a new soap powder brand called OMO (Libelle, #5, 1958; #37, 1958, see Figure 2.3). This new soap powder was especially developed for washing machines and produced less foam. Because the amount of foam was traditionally an indicator for the strength of the product (personal communication, October 28, 2005), the ad had to clarify that the new product worked properly despite the smaller amount of foam. The

Figure 2.3: Study 1 An advertisement of a Siwa washing machine in cooperation with OMO soap (in Dutch; Libelle 1958, no. 37, p. 16)

The pay-off states: *"SIWA and OMO are good friends. SIWA prefers to provide you the best results. Therefore, use a modern washing detergent: OMO. OMO is as safe as SIWA and washes white clothes whiter."*

washing machine brands and their engineers acted as experts that emphasized in the ads that the new soap was to be trusted as it was a new synthetic powder, made with modern industrial processes and tested in laboratories. Thus, the new soap brand OMO was made legitimate and washing machine brands like Dru, Siwa, Scharpf, and Edy retained their innovative outlook.

Most of the examples of co-branding from this period combine a clothing or textile brand with a synthetic fiber brand. These synthetic fibers were invented in the late 1950s and revolutionized the clothing industry ("Lycra," 2009). Advertisements for these new products showed both the new fiber brand (e.g., Dralon, Enkalon, Helenca, Lycra, Orlon) and the fashion brand (e.g., Robson, Virtex, Leithen) to make consumers familiar with the new fibers and their attributes and to make the textile brands appear more innovative. Examples are Robson clothing with Dralon (Libelle, #13, #17, 1961), Virtex underwear with Enkalon (Libelle, #41, 1961) or Helanca (Libelle, #41, 1962; #21, 1963), and Leithen yarn with Orlon (Libelle, #40, 1965; see Figure 2.4).

Early Post-Modern Consumer Society (1967 – 1977)

The late 1960s and early 1970s were a time of great social and cultural change. Until that time, the Dutch society was segregated into three major groups: Protestants, Catholics, and Social Democrats. These groups had their own social institutions (e.g., newspapers, political parties, schools, universities, sport clubs, brands), and people belonging to such a group had little personal contact with people from another group. However, during the 1960s and 1970s, existing divisions along class and religious lines gradually disappeared. Youths started to reject traditional principles and pushed for change in matters like women's rights, sexuality, disarmament and environmental issues (De Groot & Kunz, 1984).

These changes were also reflected in branding. The authoritative role that the brand had in the 1950s had changed. Brands could no longer dictate what consumers should buy, following a critique on how corporations threatened the consumers' freedom to choose (Holt, 2002). Consumers started to use consumption as a means to develop and express themselves. Social ideals that could be obtained with the recommended products became more important for consumers than technological advancement and the overcoming of feelings of insecurity by buying specific brands (Holt, 2002). Consumers became more sovereign. They were less concerned with the past merits or success of a given brand than with the ability of its products to satisfy social desires (Richman, 2005). The 1970s also formed the start of "branding as a major topic of study in the marketing discipline" (Moore & Reid, 2008). As a result of changed consumer preferences and the advancement of branding as a strategy, markets fragmented into smaller segments and a greater number of products and brands was introduced to serve these segments (Simmons, 2008). Consumers were able to buy these products because of the good economic climate (Meikle, 2005). These developments did not only take place in the USA, but also in The Netherlands.

In reaction to these developments, the advertisements in Libelle changed as well. The advertisements started to show fewer products and more people that were portrayed in their daily environment. Brands tried to reduce their authoritative outlook by changing the role of the 'expert' that legitimated the new product. The engineer employed by the brand no longer played this role as this role gradually shifted to the consumer. A good example is the change in joint promotions regarding washing machines and detergents. During the introduction of the washing machine on the Dutch market, advertisements for washing detergents and machines prominently displayed their products in a clean and hygienic setting (1954) to underscore its modern and innovative character. Both brands were needed to reduce perceptions of risk related to this new product and to explain to consumers why they should buy these new products. This gradually changed in the following era as brands wanted to reduce their authoritative outlook. First, Dutch television celebrities were portrayed using the products (1959), followed by the independent consultant (1965) and the local washing

Figure 2.4: Study 1
An advertisement of Leithen yarn with Orlon
(in Dutch; Libelle 1965, no. 40, p. 112)

The pay-off states:
"So soft… is only Leithen yarn with Orlon."

Figure 2.5: Study 1 An advertisement of All washing detergent and AEG washing machines (in Dutch; Libelle 1975, no. 13, p. 79)

The pay-off states: *"'Why do you, Mrs. Looij, think AEG recommends biological All?' Response of Mrs. Looij from Schiedam: 'Because All removes all the stains brilliantly. […] To me it is self-evident that AEG recommends All'."*

machine dealer (1970) recommending simultaneous use, and finally the consumer herself (1976) who advised readers to use both brands (see Figure 2.5).

An example of co-branding from this period is lingerie introduced by the fashion brand PeterPan (Libelle, #13, 1969) cooperating with DuPont, a manufacturer of innovative synthetic fibres like Lycra and Orlon. These fibres were applied in a wide range of new products, displayed in Libelle advertisements since 1961 (see previous era). However, the advertisement by PeterPan and DuPont was different. This advertisement did not seek to make PeterPan appear more innovative through the use of a synthetic fiber. Instead, the advertisement portrayed the user and her individuality, and the social ideals that could be reached by using this product (see Figure 2.6).

The Age of Mind-Share Branding (1978 – 1988)

In the 1970s two economic crises hit The Netherlands as a result of the oil embargo by Arab oil exporting countries in 1973 and conflicts in the Middle East in 1979. Because of these crises, unemployment grew and interest rates rose. Simultaneously, rules concerning the social-welfare system became more restrictive and the Dutch government made the system more economical. The Netherlands was not the only country to suffer an economic crisis. All over the world, consumers had less to spend and they became pessimistic about the economy and society as a whole.

At the same time, the brand had established itself as a vital strategic marketing issue (Keller, 1998). It had become more than a quality label that had to reassure the customer. Gradually, brands added more complex brand characteristics related to image building (Moore & Reid, 2008). Brand owners emphasized the need to add abstract associations to brands to establish a clear and distinctive position in the mind of the customer (Aaker, 1991; Thompson, Rindfleisch, & Arsel, 2006). They measured their success by asking consumers whether they were aware of these associations. Brands battled for scarce "mental real estate in consumers' minds", so-called mind-share branding (Holt, 2004, p. 15). Simultaneously, brands wanted to be perceived as more authentic by acting as a cultural resource (Beverland, 2005b; Holt, 2002). Brands claimed this authenticity by accentuating values desired by consumers while trivializing their own commercial motives (Beverland, 2005a). In response to the growing attention for creating and maintaining brand authenticity, brand owners kept NPD in house to "have control over design and the product as an expression of the brand" (Schroeder & Salzer-Morling, 2006, p. 141), diminishing the need for brand alliances. In addition, books by Porter (1985) and Peters and Waterman (1983) advised companies to better exploit their own expertise and return to their core business.

Figure 2.6: Study 1
An advertisement of PeterPan underwear with Lycra
(in Dutch; Libelle 1969, no. 13, p. 156)

The pay-off states:
"Dear Peter Pan, If I would write to you, I would praise you for being different, for your pride and beauty. Because you give me just that little bit of extra luxury and comfort which you know a woman deserves. They say you are exclusive. And it is true. I would recognize your charming personality from thousands others."

As a consequence of both the crisis and the changes in the use of brands, the number of advertisements with more than one brand and especially the number of advertisements of co-branded products dropped during the 1980s. The small number of co-branded products found during this period was similar to the type of co-branded products advertised in earlier eras (i.e., a clothing or textile brand with a synthetic fiber brand). Those advertisements that did portray two brands were mostly joint promotions in which consumers could win trips abroad (Gala coffee and KLM air travel, Libelle #49, 1980) or certain products like video recorders (Bolletje

Figure 2.7: Study 1 An advertisement of De Speelboom and WigWam toystores together with Mars, Snickers, and Milky Way candybars (in Dutch; Libelle 1983, no. 45)

The pay-off states: *"You will now save a lot of money on the toys they dream about. Eat f 2.50 off of each ten guilders worth of toys."*

rusks and Philips electronics, Libelle, #41, 1981). In addition, many joint promotions showed one brand that offered the consumer stamps or coupons when they would buy the brand's products, and then the consumer would get a product from the other brand for free. For example, kids were encouraged to buy Mars and MilkyWay candy bars because they would get a coupon to spend at WigWam toystores (Libelle, #45, 1983; see Figure 2.7). These choices were not surprising as companies often increase the use of coupons as a marketing strategy to cope with an economic crisis (Ang, 2001). This example also illustrates that most brand alliances in this period focused more on 'fun' than on 'function' in a response to the crisis. Interestingly, washing machine and soap brands no longer advertised together; a form of joint promotion that was common in the earlier periods.

The Rise of Social Corporate Responsibility (1989 – 1999)

Economy improved at the end of the 1980s, and the 1990s formed a period of unprecedented prosperity. In response, society started to demand environmentally friendly products produced under good employment conditions (Crane, 2001). Brands had to act in a way that did not harm society (Wood, 1991). Ethics became more important for organizations, not only in response to societal developments, but also as a way to influence consumers (Crane, 2001). Consequently, a concept known as Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) received increasing attention from both academia and practice in the 1980s and 1990s (Kilbourne, Beckmann, & Thelen, 2002; Wood, 1991).

At the same time, internet became available to the mass public, making consumers more knowledgeable about the products they bought. Consumers were

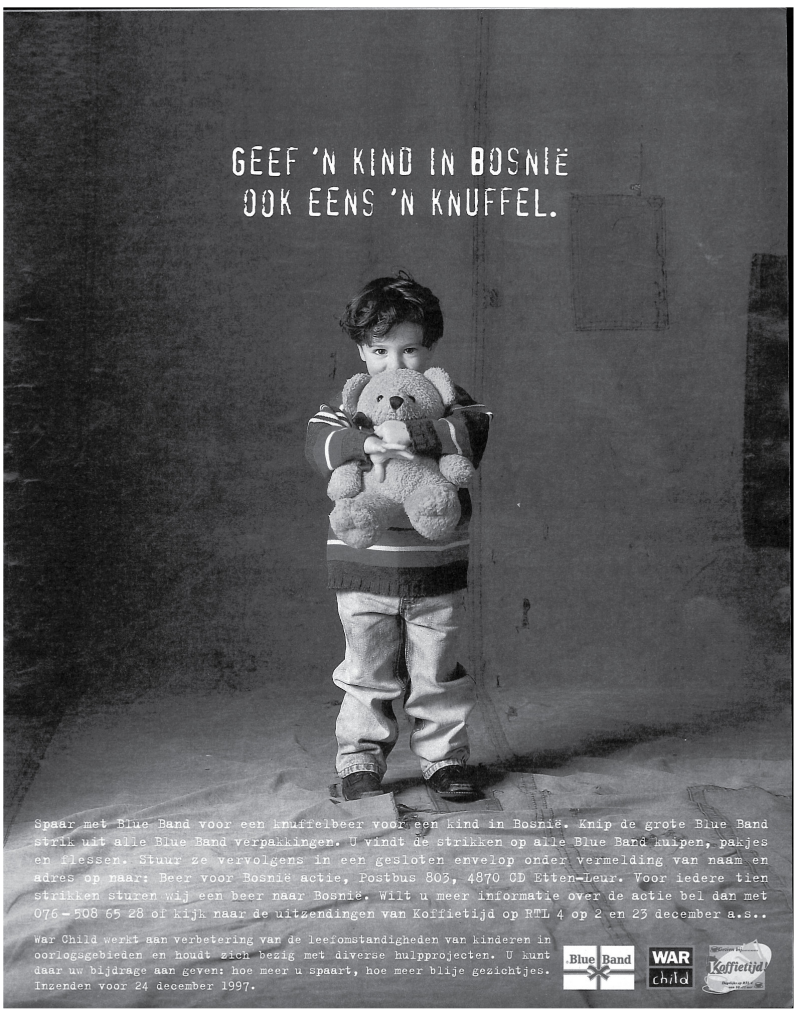


Figure 2.8: Study 1 An advertisement of Blue Band margarine and the non-profit organization War Child (in Dutch, Libelle 1997, no. 49)

The pay-off states: *"Give a child in Bosnia a cuddle too."*

able to develop more critical opinions about the role of brands (and the companies behind these brands) in society (e.g., Bakan, 2005; Klein, 2000; Korten, 2001). For example, consumers became aware that although the basic idea behind CSR was noble, most companies primarily saw CSR as a method to improve their financial performance (Crane, 2001; Gundlach, 2007; Luo & Bhattacharya, 2006). Studies that examined consumer responses to CSR activities showed mixed reactions, not all favorable (Beckmann, 2007). As a result, CSR lost in credibility (Crane, 2001; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). Consumers started to "peel away the brand veneer" and started to comment on brands that showed contradictions between their advocated ideals and real world activities (Holt, 2002, p. 86). Brands became conscious of the fact that their behavior was made increasingly visible, and understood that they were vulnerable to public opinion. These developments obliged brands to review how they presented themselves to the market and simultaneously reduced the impact of the brand's informational value that used to be the consumer's principal source of information (Fiorini & Titterton, 2009; Thompson, et al., 2006).

In reaction to these developments, the number of joint promotions started to rise again. Joint promotions formed a good alternative for existing brand strategies, especially for alliances between a non-profit and a for-profit brand, underlining how brands attempted to translate their advocated ideals to real world activities to regain consumer loyalty. Examples of such joint promotions were advertisements by North Sea Ferries and the non-profit organization British Tourist Agency (Libelle, #1, 1993), and Blue Band margarine and the non-profit organization War Child (Libelle, #49, 1997; see Figure 2.8).

There were hardly any examples of co-branded products or services during this period. Those co-branding examples that were present displayed a similar alliance as with joint promotions: Non-profit mobility association ANWB and for-profit travel agency VrijUit introduced a new co-branded service through which consumers could book their camping holiday (Libelle, #1, 1995; #1, 1996; see Figure 2.9). That the distinction between joint promotions and co-branded products is sometimes hard to make in the case of services is illustrated by the co-branded service by ANWB and VrijUit. This co-branded service could also be perceived as a joint promotion because a tangible product is missing.

Although the number of co-branded products was still small at the time, the literature on co-branding started to emerge at the end of the 1990s (e.g., Park, et al., 1996; Rao, Qu, & Ruekert, 1999; Simonin & Ruth, 1998).

The Age of Emotional Branding (2000 – present)

In the first decade of the twenty-first century, the brand regained its momentum because the use of brands provided efficiency "in the face of growing competition in global markets and rising costs and clutter in mass-media advertising" (Schroeder & Salzer-Morling, 2006). In addition, due to the ever-increasing number of products on the market (Keller, 1998), consumers felt the need to simplify their choice processes and they did this by using the brand as an informational source again.

This decade also exhibited the blossoming of a new branding paradigm known as emotional branding (Gobé, 2001; Thompson, et al., 2006). Emotional branding is "a consumer-centric, relational, and story-driven approach to forging deep and enduring

Figure 2.9: Study 1
An advertisement for a co-branded service created by ANWB and VrijUit
(in Dutch, Libelle 1996, no. 1)

The pay-off states:
"Foresight is the essence of going camping. [...] Camping Centre Europe is an initiative of Vrij Uit and ANWB."

affective bonds between consumers and brands" (Thompson, et al., 2006, p. 50). It also recognized the shortcomings of the conventional benefit-driven approach to branding (Gobé, 2001; Thompson, et al., 2006). Emotional branding wanted to put "the customer in the seat of power" (Gobé, 2001, p. XIII). In response, brands started to create experiences whenever they engaged with consumers to try to connect with them in a more personal and memorable way (Pine II & Gilmore, 1999), and out-of-home experiences increased in popularity (Yeoman, 2005).

At the same time, consumers increasingly used brands that embodied their ideals to express who they wanted to be (Holt, 2004). The brand became a social mediator that could form a relationship with its consumers (Fiorini & Titterton, 2009). This approach reflected the consumers' need for more than functional product benefits or associations; emotional and symbolic associations related to a brand became more important (Schroeder & Salzer-Morling, 2006). Whether a brand was able to make a new product became less relevant than whether the brand formed a cultural legitimization for the new product (Fiorini & Titterton, 2009). However, this also meant that what the brand did was more or less "dictated by the whims of fashionability"(Thompson, et al., 2006). As a result, brands had difficulties to differentiate themselves.

Figure 2.10: Study 1 An advertisement for laundry detergent by Ariel that is recommended by wellness centre Thermae 2000 (in Dutch, Libelle 2000, no. 45)

The pay-off states: *"Feel good in your own body, feel good in your clothes! Thermae 2000 pampers your body. Ariel Essential pampers your clothes."*

A joint promotion by laundry detergent Ariel and a nationally known wellness centre called Thermae 2000 forms a good illustration of a brand seeking out both cultural legitimization and differentiation by offering a 'unique' experience to its consumers (Libelle, #45, 2000; see Figure 2.10). Most laundry detergents are functionally similar to each other. With this joint promotion, Ariel tried to differentiate itself by linking the brand with an unlikely partner, wellness centre Thermae 2000. In addition, by combining their brand with Thermae 2000, Ariel created a new out-of-home experience for their consumers. The wellness centre Thermae 2000 is known for its luxurious premises and pampering treatments. Ariel tried to 'borrow' these associations from Thermae 2000 through this joint promotion. The pay-off "Feel good in your own body, feel good in your clothes!" (in Dutch: "Voel je goed in je vel, voel je goed in je kleding!") and the picture used within the advertisement placed the consumer in the centre of attention, another indication of Ariel trying to become a more 'emotional' brand.

During this period, several examples of co-branded products combined a fast moving consumer brand and an animated character; for example, Dr. Oetker baking products depicting Princess Lillifee (Libelle, #1, 2008), Hansaplast band aid with Disney characters (Libelle, #21, 2008), and Zonnatura health foods with picture book character Kikker (Libelle, #21, 2009). These animated characters did not add functional benefits to the product; they only provided the product with symbolic value. Through these characters, the fast moving consumer brands tried to create a relationship with a specific target group (i.e., children and their parents).

Other examples of co-branding showed a brand using a second brand to support the introduction of a new product that deviated from its existing products (e.g., a website for leisure time activities launched by V&D and VrouwOnline.nl, Libelle, #17, 2001, see Figure 2.11) or a new product that existed of two components that were both necessary for the product to work properly (e.g., an iron with anti-wrinkle fluid by Robijn and Philips, Libelle, #28, 2004; a new draught beer system for home use by Krups and Heineken, Libelle, #29, 2007; a new coffee machine by Douwe Egberts and Philips, Libelle, #49, 2004; #45, 2006; #25, 2007, #45, 2008, see Figure 1.1). Most of these products facilitate (out-of-home) experiences and are thus examples of products that probably resulted from emotional branding strategies. For example, the new coffee machine by Douwe Egberts and Philips made it possible for individuals to grab a cup of coffee on the go. In addition, the website for leisure time activities launched by a website for women, VrouwOnline.nl, and a large national retailer, V&D, promoted several out-of-home activities that required the use of products by V&D. Thus, this website did not form a substitute for a "more direct interactivity and sensorial experience" (Gobé, 2001, p. 25), but facilitated consumers in finding and executing these new experiences.

Several of these products were successfully launched in the market and received a lot of attention in the popular media (Van Lier, 2006; Philips, 2005; Philips hoopt op nieuw 'Senseo-effect' (in Dutch)," 2004; "Philips viert verkoop tien miljoenste Senseo (in Dutch)," 2005), contributing to the general perception that co-branding is a new and often successful strategy.

Figure 2.11: Study 1 An advertisment for a website for leisure time activities launched by VrouwOnline.nl and V&D (in Dutch, Libelle 2001, no. 17)

The pay-off states: *"Everything to enjoy life: holiday trips, shopping, eating, going out, sports, relaxation and much more… tijdvoorjezelf.nl: the leisure website by V&D and VrouwOnline.nl"*

2.1.3 Discussion Study 1

The objective of study 1 was to distinguish the co-branding strategy from joint promotions and to establish the strategic reasons for using each strategy within a historical context. The findings showed that, in general, joint promotions occur more frequently than co-branded products. In addition, developments in society and brand management influenced the use of both types of brand alliances. At first, brand alliances were used to increase trust in new products and brands through the addition of a second, familiar and trusted brand. Then a period followed in which brand alliances helped to build a brand's image using symbolic values related to the second brand. In the 1980s brand alliances were rarely used presumably because of an economic recession and because of a focus on the management of the own brand. Finally, brand alliances and in particular co-branded products regained popularity in response to the need for brands to create relationships with consumers.

The diverse range of co-branded products found in Libelle revealed that there is not one particular type of co-branded product. Most examples of co-branded products from the first period represented a product in which a particular ingredient is branded (e.g., Leithen yarn with Orlon fiber), while examples from the last period represented brands that produce durable products that join a brand that produces fast moving products (e.g., a coffee machine by Philips and Douwe Egberts). Study 2 will investigate these topics further by making a classification of these different types of co-branding.

2.2 STUDY 2: A CLASSIFICATION OF CO-BRANDING

The objective of study 2 is to examine the contemporary use of co-branding and to make a classification of the different types of co-branding based on a database with over 330 examples of co-branded products and services (see Appendix A.II). These examples were collected through regular store visits, and magazine and website browsing from January 2004 until July 2009. Products were selected as co-branded products when more than one brand was present on the product and each of these brands had its own individual product portfolio. Co-branded products from Europe (and in particular The Netherlands) and North America were overrepresented in the sample because they were easier to access during the creation of the total database due to the absence of physical- and language-barriers.

A snowball sampling technique was used to extend the database further. When a co-branded product was found, other products of each of the brands were examined to establish whether the brand had more co-branded products in its portfolio. If so, these products were added to the database. However, when a brand had numerous, similar kinds of co-branded products (e.g., GoreTex has co-branded shoes with, among others, Nike, Adidas, Asics, and Puma), a maximum of five of these products were added to mitigate the possibility of an overrepresentation of these examples within the database.

Analysis of the database led to the identification of a single dimension on which the co-branded products differ. This dimension is the extent of product newness. Co-branding is a strategy that involves two brands joining forces to launch a new product (Basu Monga & Lau-Gesk, 2007). However, the newness of co-branded products differs because the extent of new product development of co-branded products ranges from superficial to very high. Thus, some co-branded products are simple re-designs of existing products (e.g., a notebook by Acer with the Ferrari color and logo), while others are very innovative (e.g., a nutritional supplement for the hair and skin developed by Nestlé and L'Oreal).

Using this dimension, three different types of co-branding were distinguished: 1) symbolic co-branded products (i.e., an existing product with a second brand that adds symbolic value), 2) ingredient branded products (i.e., a product with an integrated branded component that adds a functional attribute), and 3) co-branded hybrids (i.e., a product that combines two previously independent product categories that create a new product category). Symbolic co-branded products are not innovative, ingredient branded products are moderately innovative, while co-branded hybrids are highly innovative.

Most brands that appeared multiple times in the database had introduced either several symbolic co-branded or several ingredient branded products. To illustrate, Ferrari was present in the database with a Ferrari-colored alarm clock by Oregon and a Ferrari-colored notebook by Acer (both symbolic co-branded products) while Breyers was present with special flavored tubs of ice cream with pieces of Snickers candy bars or Oreo cookies (both ingredient branded products). Thus, brands that have chosen to use co-branding repeatedly mostly focus on one particular type of co-branding. However, those brands that appeared most frequently in the database used all three types of co-branded products (e.g., Philips, Adidas, Nestlé).

To test whether the distinction between these three types of co-branded products is appropriate, four judges performed a classification task by sorting a sample of co-branded products derived from the database into discrete groups. The next paragraphs discuss this classification and each sub-strategy in more detail.

2.2.1 Classifying Co-Branded Products

Sample and Procedure

The classification task confronted four Dutch judges with a background in marketing and design with a set of sixty products that were chosen at random from the database. The judges performed the task by sorting the stimuli into one of three pre-determined discrete groups. The judges possessed sufficient expertise regarding the development, design and marketing of new products to be able to identify the strategic reasons behind introducing a particular product, and they were thus able to perform this classification task.

The stimulus set was presented in a randomized order to eliminate order effects. The judges were instructed to sort the stimuli in one of the three groups based on a description of each group. In addition, the judges were told that the groups were not necessarily of equal size. During the classification task, judges were allowed to re-group the stimuli. After the classification, the judges answered some questions with regard to their experiences during the classification task. The classification task lasted between twenty and forty minutes per participant.

Stimuli

The judges categorized a representative set of sixty products chosen at random from the total database of 330 co-branded products and services. Duplicates that represent similar ingredient branded products with the same ingredient brand (e.g., both Adidas and Puma shoes with Gore Tex are part of the database) were not included in the sample.

To accommodate the classification task, a verbal and visual depiction of each product was placed on a small square card. The verbal depiction existed of a short description of the new product, and the two brand names with their current product portfolio. The visual depiction showed a color picture of the new product. The size of the text and pictures were standardized as much as possible (see Appendix A.II).

Results

The four judges showed moderate agreement based on a Fleiss' $\varkappa$[4] of .46 (Munoz & Bangdiwala, 1997). All four judges classified twenty-five of the sixty products in the same group (42%), and three out of four judges classified twenty-three products in the same group (38%). In addition, overall agreement in assignment to the three categories is significantly greater than chance (z-value = $\varkappa$ / SE($\varkappa$) = 10.70, $p < .001$)(Fleiss, 1971).[5] The classification by the judges revealed that ingredient branded products occur most frequently (44%), followed by symbolic co-branded products (38%), and co-branded hybrids (18%). Note that ingredient branded products were underrepresented in the sample because of the exclusion of similar products (e.g., only one co-branded shoe with GoreTex was part of the sample, while multiple other co-branded shoes with GoreTex are available), and this percentage is actually higher.

2.2.2 Symbolic Co-Branded products

A large number of co-branded products are symbolic co-branded products. A symbolic co-branded product is an existing, branded product with a second brand that acts as a visible sign of intangible product attributes. Thus, the second brand adds value to the new product that reflects the immaterial aspects of that brand (McCracken, 1986; Moore, 2003). Symbolic co-branded products help the consumer to communicate his desired self-image by providing him a product with symbolic values. Examples are paints by Flexa paints and VT Wonen interior decoration magazine, and a special edition car by Peugot and tennis tournament Roland Garros.

A possible explanation for the large number of symbolic co-branded products is that in the last two decades brands have focused on engaging consumers through adding symbolic value to their brands (see paragraph 2.1.2)(Pine II & Gilmore, 1999). A brand that lacks symbolic value can gain this value by cooperating with a second brand that has high symbolic value. Symbolic co-branded products are generally positioned within a mature product category. The second brand modifies existing attributes of a product to create new interest and involvement in the product, or as Aaker (2004) puts it, to 'energize the brand'. Thus, the level of NPD involved in creating a symbolic co-branded product is generally low.

Many symbolic co-branded products use the second brand to appeal to a specific target group because the second brand raises awareness for the product within that specific target group (Aaker, 2004). Zwitsal baby wipes with cartoon character Spongebob Squarepants (see Figure 2.12), Oral B toothbrushes with Disney characters on the surface, and Friesche Vlag custard with characters from the theme park Efteling on the package are examples of symbolic co-branded products especially targeted towards children.

[4] Fleiss' kappa ($\varkappa$) is a statistical measure for assessing the reliability of agreement between a fixed number of raters when classifying items (Fleiss, 1971). Fleiss' $\varkappa$ is a generalized version of Cohen's $\varkappa$, which works for only two raters.

[5] Fleiss (1971, p. 380/381) states that "under the hypothesis of no agreement beyond chance, $\varkappa$ / SE($\varkappa$) will, by the central limit theorem, be approximately distributed as a standard normal variate."

Figure 2.12: Study 2
An example of a symbolic co-branded product: Zwitsal baby wipes with cartoon character Spongebob Squarepants

The pay-off states: *"Shall we give you a helping hand? Zwitsal now has moist towels to clean your buttocks yourself […] and with the fun SpongeBob packaging, going to the bathroom becomes a treat!"*

In general, the second brand within a symbolic co-branded product differentiates the product from similar single branded products through the addition of symbolic value. However, it is questionable how durable this differential advantage is. Symbolic co-branded products are often easily copied. For example, the database revealed three different laptops introduced with the logo and coloring of a car brand (Acer and Ferrari, Asus and Lamborghini, Itronix and Hummer, respectively), and eight different phones with the logo and style of a fashion brand (i.e., Motorola and Quiksilver, Motorola and Dolce & Gabanna, LG and Prada, Samsung and Armani, Boost and Roxy, Samsung and Adidas, Samsung and Versaci, Nokia and Versaci).

Symbolic co-branded products are somewhat similar to joint promotions because both strategies create short-term relevance and differentiation. The difference is that symbolic co-branded products create this differentiation in a product-context, even if the product hardly differs from the existing products of one of the brands.

2.2.3 Ingredient Branded Products

An ingredient branded product is a product with a branded component that adds a functional benefit. To be considered an ingredient branded product, the functional benefit of the branded component should be clear, credible, and easily identifiable (Moore, 2003). Furthermore, the branded component should represent a substantial share of the value of the total product (Theile & Burr, 2000). Thus, ingredient branded products differ from symbolic co-branded products because the former adds material value and the latter immaterial value to an existing product. Examples of ingredient branded products are a Tide washing detergent with Downy fabric softener (see Figure 2.13), Adidas shoes with water resistant Gore Tex fibers, and Lays crisps with Heinz tomato ketchup flavoring.

A second brand that adds a particular attribute to a branded product creates a point of differentiation that either makes the product appear superior or augments the product so that it provides additional benefits (Aaker, 2004; Desai & Keller, 2002). Therefore, ingredient branded products differ more from existing products than symbolic co-branded products, and thus the level of NPD is higher.

One of the main advantages of ingredient branding is that this strategy strengthens the credibility of an attribute within a branded product through the presence of a second brand (e.g., Lays crisps may taste better due to the addition of Heinz tomato ketchup)(Bouten, Secomandi, Snelders, & Hultink, 2007; Janiszewski & Van Osselaer, 2000; Theile & Burr, 2000; Uggla, 2004). This advantage is especially useful when a brand of moderate quality seeks out an alliance with a high quality ingredient brand (McCarthy & Norris, 1999; Simonin & Ruth, 1998).

Some brands that develop ingredient branded products seem to have made this their core strategy and develop branded components for various co-branded products (e.g., Gore Tex, Intel, Lycra). These brands differ from the other brands because they are not marketed by their owners as separate end-products (Norris, 1993). Because these brands develop multiple co-branded products, they may lose some of their differentiating effect and the value of the brand may even be diluted (Janiszewski & Van Osselaer, 2000).

Figure 2.13: Study 2 An example of an ingredient branded product: Tide washing detergent with Downy fabric softener

The level of physical integration between brands can differ within ingredient branded products. To illustrate, a brownie mix with chocolate syrup by Betty Crocker and Hershey's is a completely integrated product that is difficult to disentangle, while a new coffee machine introduced by Philips and Douwe

Figure 2.14: Study 2
An example of a co-branded product system: An ultrasonic stain removal system by Black & Decker and Tide

Egberts exists of two disconnected components that are designed to work in unison, but that can be bought separately. Most ingredient branded products belong to the first category (i.e., most co-branded products completely integrate the two brands). The second category contains a special type of ingredient branded products that exist of two components. Each component is attributed to one of the two brands, but the components are not physically integrated. In addition, both components are necessary for the product to work properly. This special type of ingredient branded product is called a "co-branded product system." Other examples of co-branded product systems besides the coffee machine introduced by Philips and Douwe Egberts are a new draught beer system for home use by Krups and Heineken[6] , and an ultrasonic stain removal system by Black & Decker and Tide (see Figure 2.14).

As both components of a co-branded product system are necessary for the system to work properly, this strategy may provide brand owners with the advantage that the consumer is required to purchase both components. The ingredient brand helps to make consumers aware of the complementary products which need to be purchased to allow the product to function (Theile & Burr, 2000). Most product systems exist of a durable and a perishable component. Thus, consumers have to buy the perishable component repeatedly, creating a sustainable advantage for the brands. However, examples from the database show that sometimes the perishable component

[6] The draught beer system for home use combines a serving apparatus by Krups, equipped with a tap, and a four-litre keg of Heineken beer. The keg contains a kind of 'beer bag' that ensures that the liquid does not come into contact with air. A pump inside the serving apparatus creates external pressure on the bag as it is emptied, and a cooling element ensures that the beer remains at the right temperature. The keg has to be replaced when it is empty.

of the product system may be replaced by a similar product of a different brand, or may not be replaced at all.

The new coffee machine Senseo by Douwe Egberts and Philips is a good example of a co-branded product system where one of the components was replaced by products from other brands. The system consists of pads filled with ground coffee and a coffee machine that is compatible with the pads. Shortly after the introduction of the Senseo, despite a patent granted by the European Patent Office (Dijs, 1999), similar pads compatible with the coffee machine were introduced by several store brands (e.g., Albert Heijn, C1000). These events reduced the benefit of introducing a co-branded product system for Douwe Egberts. Examples of co-branded product systems in which consumers sometimes did not replace one of the components at all are a shaving device with moisturizing emulsion introduced by Philips and Nivea, and a steam iron with anti-wrinkle liquid introduced by Philips and Robijn. Many consumers did not replace the component because they discovered that the shaving device and the iron could be used without replacing the perishable component (i.e., a moisturizing emulsion sachet and an anti-wrinkle liquid cartridge, respectively)(Bueters, 2005; Philips, 2009).

2.2.4 Co-Branded Hybrids

Following Rajagopal and Burnkrant (2009), Jain and Ziamou (1995) and Morel (2000), a hybrid is defined as a product that combines two previously independent product categories into a single product. Through this combination, a new product category is created. A co-branded hybrid is a product that combines the previously independent product categories of two brands into one product while both brands are retained. Examples are anti-aging pills by Davitamon and Biodermal (see Figure 2.15), and the Rokr music cell phone introduced by Apple.

According to the extant literature on hybrid products, hybridization provides managers with a potent tool for NPD because they can continuously combine functionalities into new products (Gill, 2008; Gill & Lei, 2009). An advantage of a co-branded hybrid is that two brands join forces to produce a new product. These brands could potentially make something better and more innovative than a single brand (as they both bring in their unique competencies). Considering this, it is not surprising that most co-branded hybrids are new to at least one of the

Figure 2.15: Study 2 An example of a co-branded hybrid: Anti-aging pills by Davitamon and Biodermal

brands and/or to the world. This high level of NPD differentiates co-branded hybrids from symbolic- or ingredient branded products.

Hybrids combine two previously independent product categories into a single new product and therefore exhibit a high level of physical integration of these product categories. In addition, the visual design of a new hybrid product is generally a combination of the visual properties of the two previously independent product categories. Through this combination of properties the visual design of a hybrid is often somewhat unfamiliar to consumers.

Prior research has shown that consumers only tend to notice the properties of one of the combined categories within a single-branded hybrid (Moreau, Markman, & Lehmann, 2001; Rajagopal & Burnkrant, 2009). Thus, consumers base their evaluation of a single-branded hybrid on only one of the two previously independent product categories, and the hybrid may not fulfill its true market potential. It is unclear whether consumers who are confronted with a co-branded hybrid will notice the properties of both combined categories.

2.2.5 Discussion Study 2

Study 2 revealed that there are three kinds of co-branded products. Ingredient branded products form the majority of the co-branded products, followed closely by symbolic co-branded products. Both types of co-branded products are relatively easy to develop because they both constitute a branded product to which a second brand is added. Within symbolic co-branded products, this second brand mainly adds symbolic or immaterial value to energize the product and the brands. This strategy differs from ingredient branded products because within ingredient branded products the second brand adds a tangible attribute that increases the functional value of the total product. Co-branded hybrids formed the smallest group. A possible reason for the infrequent use of this type of co-branding is that co-branded hybrids require high levels of NPD, and the brands involved in developing this type of product have to cooperate intensely to create such a product. The large investments required for the development of this type of product may discourage brand owners from developing this type of co-branded product.

2.3 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS STUDIES 1 AND 2

2.3.1 Summary of the Findings

Study 1 revealed that the rise and fall of the use of brand alliances within advertisements in Libelle corresponds to economic developments and the use of brands in consumer society. At first, brands used alliances to increase trust in the brands and their products. However, gradually products became the material extension of a brand instead of the brand being a symbolic extension of products (Schroeder & Salzer-Morling, 2006). Co-branding has been used extensively in the period following the Second World War, only to be abandoned as a strategy in the 1980s. The lack of co-branded products in this period may lead current marketers to believe that the co-branding strategy is new. However, from the historical analysis it became apparent that co-branding is not a new strategy, but a strategy that has regained popularity.

Study 1 also revealed that there are different types of co-branded products. Study 2 investigated this distinction further and determined that three kinds of co-branded products exist (i.e., symbolic co-branded products, ingredient branded products, and co-branded hybrids). Symbolic co-branded products resemble joint promotions because these products do not involve much NPD; the second brand only adds intangible value to the product. Ingredient branded products do involve NPD but often exist of a re-design of a branded product to which a second brand adds functional value. Symbolic- and ingredient branded products form the majority of the co-branded products. Co-branded hybrids occur infrequently. These products are radically new products that have been developed by two brands and that combine two previously independent product categories into a single product.

The difference in the level of NPD among the three types of co-branded products may influence the consumers' response toward these products because consumers respond differently to products that are more or less similar to existing products (Fiske & Pavelchak, 1986; Mandler, 1982; Pavelchak, 1989). Thus, consumers may react differently to symbolic- or ingredient branded products (i.e., more similar to existing products) than to co-branded hybrids (i.e., less similar to existing products).

2.3.2 Limitations

Study 1 has some limitations. First, only the women's magazine Libelle has been studied. Although this magazine reflects the average Dutch society (De Groot & Kunz, 1984) and has changed accordingly, it focuses on women and is thus limited in its audience. The findings of this study may be extended by conducting a second historical content analysis of advertisements in a more male-oriented magazine (e.g., Elsevier, Panorama). Second, the role of women within society and as consumers has changed as well, leading to a changing outlook of Libelle. Third, the units of measurement used in this study were printed advertisements. Thus, this study does not cover television, cinema, or radio advertisements. Finally, Libelle is a national magazine and the advertisements in the magazine reflect national brands only. Local brands will not advertise in Libelle, and therefore are not part of this study. Despite these shortcomings, this study provided an interesting context for the co-branding strategy.

A limitation of study 2 is that it used a snowball sampling technique during the creation of the total database of over 330 co-branded. Consequently, some brands may have been overrepresented in the sample of sixty products used during the classification task. However, the co-branded products used are believed to provide a representative sample of all introduced co-branded products.

2.3.3 Managerial Implications

Study 1 revealed that joint promotions appeared more often in Libelle than co-branded products. A possible reason for this difference is that joint promotions (just as symbolic co-branded products) are relatively easy to execute because no to little NPD is involved. Joint promotions offer managers a quick 'energizer' for their brand but they are not sustainable in the sense that they add to the credibility of a new product. Consumers are only exposed to the joint promotion in advertisements prior to their purchase and not during purchase of the product. In contrast, co-branding differentiates the product before and during purchase, and therefore, co-branding is especially relevant for the introduction of products that need differentiation during product purchase. Co-branding can support the introduction of a product that deviates from existing products, because the strategy draws upon the competences and reputations of two brands (Faems, et al., 2005; Kapferer, 2001; Knudsen, 2007; Linnarson, 2005; Park, et al., 1996; Prince & Davies, 2002).

Study 1 also revealed that there are different strategic reasons for using the co-branding strategy. The relevance of these strategic reasons changed in accordance to changes in society and brand management. In the past, co-branding was used to reduce perceptions of risk with regard to new products and brands by collaborating with a trusted and established brand. Gradually co-branding became a means to help build a brand's image through the transfer of associations between the partner brands. Finally, co-branding helped to create relevant consumer experiences in which emotional bonds became more important. Each of these strategic reasons has its value, and each leads to a different type of co-branded product. For example, symbolic co-branded products (e.g., a special edition laptop) can create relevant consumer experiences by offering consumers a combination of a functional brand (e.g., Acer) and a more symbolic brand (e.g., Ferrari). Managers should be aware of current developments in society to be able to respond with the appropriate type of co-branded products.

One of the main reasons why managers consider co-branding is that they want to introduce a new product that the company is unable to make or to introduce on the market on its own (Faems, et al., 2005; Kapferer, 2001; Knudsen, 2007; Linnarson, 2005; Park, et al., 1996; Prince & Davies, 2002). This advantage of co-branding is most relevant with regard to co-branded hybrids because they constitute products that are often new to the world. Introducing a co-branded product with a low level of NPD does not fully exploit the advantages of co-branding. When the level of NPD is low and a company is able to make the new product on its own, the company has no need to share the costs of NPD to reduce the risk involved with introducing a new product (Levin, 2002). The added value of the second brand is hence of a different order. For example, the need for a second brand within symbolic co-branded products is not based on the lack of developmental capabilities of the company, but on immaterial issues that are more symbolic in nature. On the other hand, an ingredient branded product gains credibility through the addition of a second brand that is related to a new function of the product. Managers should determine the value that the second brand may add to the new product before NPD to make sure that they choose the right type of co-branding as this choice may have consequences for how consumers perceive and evaluate the new co-branded product.

The next chapter presents an overview and synthesis of the theoretical literature on co-branding. In addition, it discusses several factors derived from the literature that may influence whether the consumer perceives one of the brands to have a more sensible connection with the new co-branded product than the other brand's connection with the new product. Thus, Chapter 3 will start examining consumers' reactions toward co-branded products.

3 THE CONSUMER PERCEPTION AND EVALUATION OF NEW CO-BRANDED PRODUCTS

Chapter 2 revealed that co-branding has regained popularity in the last decade. In addition, it uncovered the existence of three different kinds of co-branded products that differ in their level of NPD. Because of the difference in their level of NPD, consumers may respond differently to each type of co-branded product (Fiske & Pavelchak, 1986; Mandler, 1982; Pavelchak, 1989). The present chapter provides insight into how consumers may respond towards co-branded products. Thus, this chapter returns to the questions posed in the first chapter. In particular, the present chapter will discuss how consumers form their evaluation of a co-branded product and whether their evaluation process is influenced by their perception of the connection between the two brands and the new co-branded product. The latter is relevant, because if consumers perceive one brand to be dominant, this perceived power imbalance may have consequences for the cooperation between the brands, the introduction strategy and the evaluation of the new product.

Before discussing the concept of dominance, this chapter will first explain in what ways consumers can evaluate a new co-branded product. Sometimes the consumers' evaluation of a new product seems straightforward, other times consumers piece together their evaluation of a new product (Pavelchak, 1989). The former type of information processing leads to an evaluation known as categorical processing. With categorical processing the consumer places a new product in an existing category and forms his opinion about the new product based on information related to that category. The latter type of information processing is known as piecemeal processing. Piecemeal processing is based on multiple pieces of information that are integrated to form an evaluation. Each of these two types of processing have inspired separate streams of research on attitude formation and product evaluation. This separation is also noticeable within the co-branding literature. Therefore, this chapter will discuss both types of processing and the findings in relation to co-branded products. In addition, some authors argue that consumers apply both processes depending on how they perceive the new product (Pavelchak, 1989). For this reason, several co-branding studies use a theoretical perspective called conceptual combination that combines both processing types. This chapter will also discuss the conceptual combination perspective.

When consumers are confronted with a co-branded product, they are exposed to several 'entities' (i.e., two brands with their individual brand portfolios, a partnership, and the new product itself) presented in a certain context (e.g., promotional activities, distribution channels). The attention that each of these entities receives from the consumer can influence how the consumer assigns meaning to the new product and by extension how the new product is interpreted. For example, if one brand grabs the consumer's attention more than the other brand, the first brand may be interpreted as the dominant brand. These three steps of exposure, attention and interpretation constitute the perception phase of product evaluation (Solomon, Bamossy, & Askegaard, 2002). According to the literature, perception preceeds and runs in parallel with the processing and evaluation of a new product (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2000; Van Raaij, Antonides, Oppedijk van Veen, & Schoormans, 1999). If one of the brands that forms a co-branded product is perceived as dominant, this may influence how consumers interpret and evaluate the product. Therefore, this chapter also discusses several factors that can influence how the consumer perceives a new co-branded product.

3.1 THE EVALUATION OF CO-BRANDED PRODUCTS BASED ON CATEGORICAL PROCESSING

Categorical processing leads to the identification of a product as a member of a category by considering the similarities with other members and the dissimilarities from non-members (Fiske & Pavelchak, 1986). Consumers try to identify a new product as a member of a category based on their existing knowledge (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2000). This existing knowledge is formed by a set of associations and attributes linked to that category. These associations and the links among these associations form a cognitive structure called a schema (Fiske & Pavelchak, 1986). For example, a consumer may have a schema for cell phones that includes associations like 'a numerical key pad', 'a microphone', 'text messaging', 'Nokia', and 'T-Mobile'.

Consumers can activate a category through a single association that is part of the category's schema (Pavelchak, 1989). Often, this single association is a category label attached to the new product. A category label refers to a feature of the stimulus that a consumer uses to organize the remaining features, and it is generally the feature with the strongest associations with other attributes (Pavelchak, 1989). For example, when a product is labeled with the category label 'chair', associations like 'legs', 'seat', and 'wood' can be activated.

The presence of a category label simplifies the categorization process (Fiske & Pavelchak, 1986). Because a brand frequently acts as a category label (Klink & Smith, 2001), a brand can be a key element in activating a particular category (Boush & Loken, 1991). When a category is activated, consumers pay more attention to the other associations of that specific category's schema (Meyvis & Janiszewski, 2004; Yamauchi & Markman, 2000). For example, a consumer may notice that a new product is labeled by the brand name Nokia and because the brand name 'Nokia' is an association part of the consumer's schema for cell phones, the cell phone category is activated. Through the activation of the cell phone category, the consumer is more likely to think of other associations of the cell phone schema like 'a numerical key pad' and 'a microphone'. These associations may be consistent with those of the new product (e.g., a regular cell phone), creating a match between the new product and the activated category. Following this congruent match, consumers categorize the product in the activated category and will transfer their existing affect toward the activated category to the new product (i.e., the attitude-transfer model)(Fiske & Pavelchak, 1986; Mandler, 1982).

Several co-branding studies state that consumers evaluate a new co-branded product by transferring their affect from existing categories to the new product (James, 2005, 2006; Levin, 2002; Levin, et al., 1996; Levin & Levin, 2000). In addition, some researchers believe that consumers prefer a new co-branded product over the same product introduced by an individual brand, because consumers contemplate multiple sources of affect when two brands are present (James, 2006; Rao, et al., 1999; Rao & Ruekert, 1994). However, a new co-branded product will not be evaluated better if the consumer has a negative affect toward the second brand (Levin, et al., 1996).

These studies use categorical processing as a theoretical perspective to explain how consumers evaluate a new co-branded product. However, they also acknowledge that categorization of a new co-branded product into a single category is often difficult for consumers because of the presence of multiple sources of information (e.g., two brands) that can activate different schemas simultaneously (James, 2005). The mere presence of a second brand on a new product may be sufficient to lead to feelings of incongruency for a consumer. For instance, a co-branded BMW Visa credit card is similar to other Visa credit cards, but the presence of the BMW brand on the credit card differentiates the BMW Visa card from other credit cards within the credit card category. Thus, a completely congruent match between a co-branded product and an existing category is rare.

Consumers solve a slight incongruency (i.e., a few non-represented or unexpected associations) between the new product and the activated schema by assimilation (Levin, 2002; Mandler, 1982). During assimilation, a new product is placed into an existing category and consumers copy associations from the schema of the activated category to the schema for the new product. However, by definition, a new product will differ from the existing activated category. Consumers place those associations that differentiate the new product from the other products in the category in a tag (Sujan & Bettman, 1989). Thus, consumers may categorize the co-branded product (e.g., the BMW Visa credit card) in an existing category (e.g., the credit card category) and place the second brand (e.g., BMW) in a tag that differentiates the co-branded product from the single branded products within that category.

3.2 THE EVALUATION OF CO-BRANDED PRODUCTS BASED ON PIECEMEAL PROCESSING

Simonin and Ruth (1998) indicate that a new co-branded product is not likely to be categorized into a single category due to the presence of a second brand, and that a co-branded product is therefore by definition incongruent from any existing products. Consumers use a different cognitive process when a product is incongruent; piecemeal processing (also known as information integration theory; Anderson, 1981). Within piecemeal processing consumers do not base their attitude toward a new product on one particular category, but on a combination of several sources of information pertaining to the new product (Ajzen, 2008; Anderson, 1981; Fiske, 1982). Consumers combine the information pertaining to the new product into an integration function to produce a response to the new product.

Not all information pertaining to the new product is equally important for the consumer. Only salient and/or relevant information has an influence on the attitude toward the product (Ajzen, 2008; Baker, 2003; Keller & Aaker, 1992). Salience is the accessibility of a piece of information in memory, while relevance represents the importance of that piece of information with regard to the evaluation of the new product (Van Ittersum, Pennings, Wansink, & Van Trijp, 2007). If the information is not salient, consumers will not recognize the relevance of the information and thus are likely to ignore the information. If the information is salient, then personal values and desires of consumers determine the relevance of the information (Van Ittersum, et al., 2007). This relevance is represented by the weight consumers attach to a piece of information within the integration function (Anderson, 1981; Van Ittersum, et al., 2007).

Simonin and Ruth (1998) and Bluemelhuber, Carter, and Lambe (2007) used piecemeal processing to explain how consumers evaluate a co-branded product. Their research focused on which sources of information consumers find most relevant when processing a co-branded product. They found that the better both brands and their existing product categories fitted each other, the better consumers evaluated the new co-branded product. They also found that the prior affect with each brand influenced the evaluation of the new co-branded product.

Studies that use piecemeal- or categorical processing interpret the influence of prior affect on product evaluation differently. Simonin and Ruth (1998) and Bluemelhuber, et al. (2007) consider prior affect to be just another source of information pertaining to the new product that is combined into an integration function to produce a response to the new product. In contrast, the categorical processing literature states that only successful categorization of a new product will lead to a transfer of the consumer's existing affect toward the brand to the new product (see paragraph 3.1)(Fiske & Pavelchak, 1986; Mandler, 1982). The influence of prior affect on new product evaluation found by Simonin and Ruth (1998) and Bluemelhuber, et al. (2007) may suggest that the consumers in their studies successfully categorized the co-branded stimuli and thus did not solely use piecemeal processing.

3.3 CATEGORICAL- AND PIECEMEAL PROCESSING COMPARED

According to Mandler (1982) categorical processing occurs when there is a congruent match between a new instance and an existing category while piecemeal processing occurs when there is incongruity. Some co-branded products (i.e., symbolic co-branded products) are very congruent to existing products, while others (i.e., co-branded hybrids; see also paragraph 2.2.4) are incongruent. Fiske and Pavelchak (1986) state that this dichotomy of possible processes consumers use to evaluate objects is an oversimplification. The same reasoning applies to the processing of co-branded products. Because of the presence of two brands on one product, a co-branded product is no longer completely congruent with existing products. Thus, categorization of a co-branded product may be ambiguous and consumers are less likely to use categorical processing. On the other hand, piecemeal processing requires a lot of cognitive effort from the consumer and from a 'cognitive economy' point of view this high effort makes it unlikely that this type of processing will be preferred by consumers (Pavelchak, 1989, p. 356). Existing studies on co-branding that use piecemeal processing focus on the combination of the two brands, but they have not taken the co-branded product and the category it may represent into account. When a co-branded product clearly represents a certain category there is no longer extreme incongruity and thus piecemeal processing may no longer be the appropriate cognitive process.

Categorical- and piecemeal processing represent two extremes in what is actually a continuum from complete congruity to extreme incongruity (Fiske & Pavelchak, 1986). Because co-branded products differ in their level of congruity with existing products (see study 2), not all co-branded products will be evaluated through the same cognitive process. Therefore, several co-branding studies use a theoretical perspective derived from cognitive psychology that incorporates the continuum from categorical- to piecemeal processing (Desai & Keller, 2002; Kumar, 2005; Park, et al., 1996; Walchli, 2007). This perspective is called conceptual combination theory that will be discussed next.

3.4 THE EVALUATION OF CO-BRANDED PRODUCTS BASED ON CONCEPTUAL COMBINATION THEORY

Conceptual combination theory proposes that consumers access two (or more) existing schemas to form a single new schema, the conceptual combination (Wisniewski, 1996).[1] To form a conceptual combination, consumers (partly) copy associations from the original schemas to the conceptual combination (Hampton, 1987). The conceptual combination often contains relatively more associations of one of the original schemas. The presence of more associations of one of the original schemas in the conceptual combination is called the dominance effect (Hampton, 1987, 1998; Murphy, 1988; Park, et al., 1996; Storms, Deboeck, Vanmechelen, & Geeraerts, 1993; Uggla, 2004; Wisniewski, 1997).

The cognitive psychology literature refers to the dominant schema as the head concept (or header). This head concept forms the base for the interpretation of the conceptual combination (Costello & Keane, 2001; Murphy, 1988). The other, non-dominant schema is called the modifying concept (or modifier). Through the modifying concept, consumers adjust their representation of the head concept by importing associations from the modifying concept to the head concept (Murphy, 1988; Wisniewski, 1997)(see Figure 3.1, above).

The cognitive process for conceptual combinations with a dominance effect is comparable to the categorical process. Consumers evaluate conceptual combinations with a clear head concept by transferring affect from the head concept to the new product. A difference between the cognitive process for conceptual combinations with a dominance effect and the standard categorical process is that the modifying concept in the conceptual combination can make relevant associations of the head concept and the new product more salient (Park, et al., 1996). Because consumers classify a new co-branded product as a member of the category of the head (or dominant) brand

[1] The formation of a conceptual combination is somewhat similar to accommodation, because within both a new mental category schema is created or an existing category schema thoroughly restructured (Mandler, 1982; Sujan & Bettman, 1989). However, conceptual combination is different from accommodation because within conceptual combination two existing schemas are used to create a single new schema instead of one.

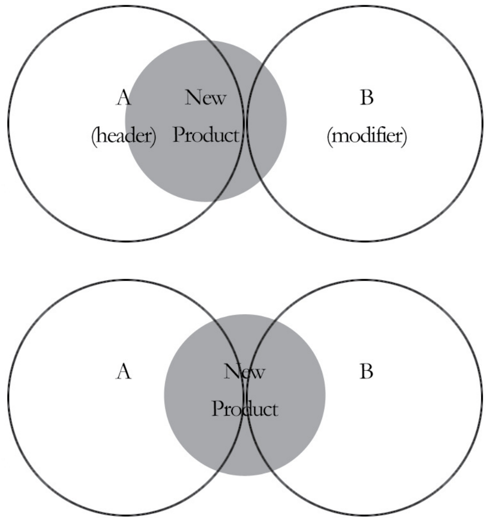


Figure 3.1: Graphical representation of the dominance-effect: dominance (above) vs. no dominance (below)

Note: The gray circle 'NP' portrays the schema for the new product; the two blank circles represent the two schemas that are accessed to form the new schema. In the upper part, the schema 'NP' contains more associations of the schema of 'A' (i.e., dominance). In the lower part, the schema 'NP' contains an equal number of associations of each brand (i.e., no dominance).

(Park, et al., 1996), consumers use the modifying brand to adjust their representation of the head brand and thus their representation of the new product. For example, in April 1962 Betty Crocker and Hershey's introduced a chocolate fudge flavoured cake mix together. When a consumer considers Betty Crocker to be the header brand, then the product's convenient preparation and wholesome character will be its most salient aspects because these are Betty Crocker's most salient associations. However, due to the presence of Hershey's as the modifying brand the "naughty chocolate" association related to Hershey's will become more salient in the chocolate fudge flavoured cake mix (Askegaard & Bengtsson, 2005). Thus, consumers perceive this product differently from regular Betty Crocker baking mixes through the presence of the second brand.

There is little dominance when the new schema represents both original concepts equally (see Figure 3.1, below). In this case, the new schema is a combination or conjunction of its constituents and contains the associations of each constituent (Costello & Keane, 2001; Gill & Dubé, 2007; Goldvarg & Glucksberg, 1998; Wisniewski, 1997). An example may be the Walkman music cell phone by Sony Ericsson; a combination of a portable audio device and cell phone introduced in August 2005. This product is associated with both music and mobile communication and thus represents both original concepts more or less equally. Consumers are found to be reluctant to utilize such a symmetrical interpretation as it requires more effort than asymmetrical interpretation (Wisniewski, 1997). Therefore, symmetrical interpretations are less likely to occur. Nevertheless, when consumers interpret the conceptual combination symmetrically, a piecemeal process will take place, in which consumers combine several sources of information pertaining to the new product to come to an evaluation of that product.

To summarize, when consumers perceive a dominance effect, this may influence how they process and thus evaluate a new co-branded product. Until now, few studies have examined how consumers perceive co-branded products in general, why consumers perceive dominance within a co-branded product in particular, and whether this dominance influences product evaluation. Most studies that investigated co-branded products focus on the outcome only, the consumer evaluation of new co-branded products (e.g., Park, et al., 1996; Rao, et al., 1999; Shocker, 1995; Simonin

& Ruth, 1998). This literature suggests that product perception is an independent variable that influences information processing. However, as Wedel and Pieters (2008) argue, product perception is also a dependent variable that is interesting to investigate in itself. It is relevant to know more about how consumers perceive a new co-branded product and whether they perceive brand dominance. When brands are better aware of what causes perceived brand dominance, they are better able to determine the consumers' response to the new product before introduction and may adjust their introduction strategy accordingly. For example, when consumers are more likely to perceive one brand as dominant based on the chosen positioning of the product, the brands may choose to adapt the advertising so that consumers will also acknowledge the added value of the other brand. For these reasons, it is relevant to know why consumers perceive dominance within a co-branded product. Possible causes of the dominance effect will be discussed next.

3.5 THE PERCEPTION OF DOMINANCE IN CO-BRANDED PRODUCTS

Most co-branding studies that use conceptual combination as their theoretical perspective consider co-branded products to be a combination of two (or more) nouns (Desai & Keller, 2002; Kumar, 2005; Park, et al., 1996). In cognitive psychology, conceptual combinations of nouns have been studied extensively and several causes of dominance have been determined (e.g., Hampton, 1987; Murphy, 1988; Wisniewski, 1997). However, Park, et al. (1996, p. 454) point out that "though determination of header and modifier concepts is reasonably straightforward in the composite concept examples used in the [cognitive psychology] literature, it is not always as clear in the case of a [co-branded product]." The co-branding studies claim that the order of the nouns determines dominance (Desai & Keller, 2002; Kumar, 2005; Park, et al., 1996). However, a co-branded product is more than just a combination of nouns. The characteristics of the new product itself may also influence perceptions of dominance. Furthermore, the context surrounding the new product may cause certain associations to become (more) salient and can thus influence which brand is considered to be the dominant one (Feldman & Lynch, 1988; Glucksberg & Estes, 2000). Thus, dominance within a co-branded product is a reflection of how and under what conditions consumers perceive the new product.

Table 3.1 presents an overview of seven possible causes of dominance that are derived from the branding literature, mostly on brand extensions[2] , and from the literature on the perception and processing of objects without brands. The causes are divided into two groups: memory- and stimulus-based causes of dominance. Memory-based causes of dominance are based on information derived from the consumer's memory (i.e., implicit perception), and originate from brand positions that have evolved

[2] The brand extension strategy is a brand strategy that is related to the co-branding strategy (Hadjicharalambous, 2006; Leuthesser, et al., 2003). A brand extension is the introduction of new product with a brand name that is equal to the brand name of an existing product (Kapferer, 1992) in a different product category than the brand's current product category (Aaker & Keller, 1990). An example is Virgin Group, a record label that has extended its brand successfully many times; from games stores and video stores such a Virgin Megastores to transportation (aeroplanes, trains).

Memory-based causes of dominance	References
Difference in brand salience[a]	Aaker, 1991; Morrin, 1999
Difference in familiarity between the brands[b]	Lowry, et al., 2008; Simonin & Ruth, 1998
Difference in production ability of the brands	Aaker & Keller, 1990; Brown & Dacin, 1997; Dacin & Smith, 1994
Difference in the fit between the associations of each brand and the new product[a]	Bhat & Reddy, 2001; Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994; Lau & Phau, 2007; Park, et al., 1991; Völckner & Sattler, 2006

Table 3.1: Overview of memory- and stimulus-based causes of dominance

Stimulus-based causes of dominance	References
Distribution channel and store display	Buchanan, et al., 1999; Darden & Babin, 1994; Desai & Ratneshwar, 2003; Dodds, et al., 1991; Grewal, et al., 1998; Teas & Agarwal, 2000; Yoo, et al., 2000
Brand order[a, b]	Desai & Keller, 2002; Kumar, 2005; Park, et al., 1996
Product properties[a] (category relatedness and visual similarity)	Aaker & Keller, 1990; Abratt & Motlana, 2002; Berens, et al., 2005; Bottomley & Holden, 2001; Boush & Loken, 1991; Dacin & Smith, 1994; Gill & Dubé, 2007; Henderson & Cote, 1998; Park, et al., 1991; Pieters & Wedel, 2004; Völckner & Sattler, 2006

[a] *These causes of dominance are studied in this thesis.*
[b] *These causes of dominance have previously been studied in relation to co-branding.*

over time based on the brand's positioning and promotion since the introduction of that brand on the market. Stimulus-based causes are based on information available in the physical environment of the consumer (i.e., explicit perception; Lee, 2002; Lynch & Srull, 1982). This distinction is relevant for marketers because they can use different methods to influence the memory-based and stimulus-based causes of dominance. Marketers can adapt the memory-based causes of dominance through changing the communication intensity, whereas they would benefit more from changes in the positioning, the design and promotion of the new product to influence the stimulus-based causes of dominance. For example, improving brand familiarity by increasing the number of advertising exposures should lead to enhanced brand accessibility (Lee, 2002), and thus brand familiarity can act as a memory-based cause of dominance. Similarly, changing the product's visual design can influence how consumers perceive and interpret the new product (Rindova & Petkova, 2007), and thus the new product's visual design can act as a stimulus-based cause of dominance. The next paragraph will detail each of the causes mentioned in Table 3.1.

3.5.1 Memory-Based Causes of Dominance

A first possible cause of memory-based dominance is a difference in brand salience. A brand becomes salient as a consequence of a large market share, many employees, and/or large promotional expenses (Baker, 2003; Reddy, Holak, & Bhat, 1994). When a brand is salient, it is classified faster, recognized sooner, and it is the first brand to be recalled by consumers when the category related to that brand is activated (Herr, Farquhar, & Fazio, 1996). A salient brand is a brand that is more accessible in memory, and higher salience can lead a concept to become dominant (Fiske, 1982). Up to now, the relevance of a difference in salience of brands involved in a co-branded product has not been empirically investigated. However, the relevance of salience has been studied in relation to the evaluation of single-branded products. According to Keller and Aaker (1992) salience of a brand depends on the strength of the brand's associations in memory. Consumers are better able to associate such a salient brand with a certain product category (Aaker, 1991; Morrin, 1999). Thus, a co-branded product with a brand with higher brand salience than the other brand is more likely to be categorized in the category of the former brand, and thus, the former brand will act as the dominant brand.

Salience and familiarity are two concepts that are often confounded (Rothermund & Wentura, 2004) because both a salient brand and a familiar brand facilitate recall of a particular schema. However, salience can be artificially induced by priming the consumer, while familiarity exists of information stored in long-term memory and personal experience with the product. Familiar brands facilitate recall of a particular schema (Simonin & Ruth, 1998; Warlop, Ratneshwar, & van Osselaer, 2005). Besides facilitating recall, a familiar brand also has a more extensive schema than an unfamiliar brand, and therefore, a familiar brand is more informative (Rao, et al., 1999). A more informative brand is likely to be a more influential brand for evaluation. Results by Simonin and Ruth (1998) support this notion for co-branded products as they showed that the prior attitude towards a familiar brand was more influential on the evaluation of a co-branded product than the prior attitude towards the unfamiliar brand. In addition, Lowry, Vance, Moody, Beckman, and Read (2008) found that a combination of an unfamiliar brand with a familiar brand leads to higher trust toward a co-branded website than a combination of the same unfamiliar brand with another unfamiliar second brand. Therefore, a second possible cause of memory-based dominance is a difference in familiarity between the brands.

A third possible cause of memory-based dominance is a difference in each brand's perceived ability to produce the new product. According to Dacin and Smith (1994), consumers have more confidence in a new product that is introduced by a brand that has a large and diverse product portfolio with a low variance in quality than a brand with a small product portfolio and/or high variance in quality. An example of a brand that has a large and diverse product portfolio with a low variance in quality is Sony. Sony makes everything from portable audio to televisions to motion pictures. Most consumers perceive these products to be of high quality. Thus, Sony has proven that they are able to develop and produce a diverse set of products that have high quality, and consequently consumers have more confidence in Sony products. In addition, consumers determine a brand's ability to produce new products and they use this knowledge to evaluate any new product that is introduced by that brand (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Brown & Dacin, 1997). When it is evident for the consumer that one brand involved in a co-branded product is better able to produce the new product than the other brand, the former brand often is considered more relevant for the production of the new product, and thus may become the dominant brand.

A final possible cause of memory-based dominance is a difference in the fit between the associations of each brand and the new product. A brand can differentiate a product from similar products through the brand-specific associations that exist in memory (Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994). An example of a brand-specific association is 'fun' for Swatch. 'Fun' is an association uncommon for other watch brands and thus differentiates Swatch from brands like Seiko or Rolex. Brand extension research found that consumers are able to categorize a new product based on a shared concept formed by brand-specific associations (Bhat & Reddy, 2001; Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994; Lau & Phau, 2007; Park, Milberg, & Lawson, 1991; Völckner & Sattler, 2006). Consumers retrieve certain associations about a brand that are stored in memory and that form the brand image (Keller, 1993; Warlop, et al., 2005). If the associations of the brand fit the new product, consumers see a connection between the brand and the new product at the brand image level. Thus, if Swatch would introduce a product that has no functional or physical similarities to a watch but is 'fun', consumers understand the relation between Swatch and the new product. The same procedure may apply to co-branded products. If the new co-branded product fits the associations related to one of the brands better, consumers are better able to understand the relation between that brand and the new product, and would consider that brand to be dominant. A special brand-specific association is prior affect. Prior affect is normally transferred from the dominant brand to the new product after the dominant brand is determined (see paragraph 3.4). However, prior affect may also influence which brand is perceived as dominant because prior affect can constitute a category in itself (Hoffman in Compeau, Grewal, & Monroe, 1998; Schwarz in Sorrentino & Higgins, 1990). Note that prior affect is not the earliest activated brand-specific association, but prior affect is recalled at some point in time as the consumer responds to the new product, and prior affect then influences subsequent thoughts (Compeau, et al., 1998).

3.5.2 Stimulus-Based Causes of Dominance

Stimulus-based causes of dominance are based on information that is available in the physical environment of the consumer. This physical environment can be divided into aspects related to the context in which the product is placed and the actual co-branded product. The context in which a new co-branded product is embedded and displayed can have significant effects on consumers' judgments (Desai & Ratneshwar, 2003).

A first possible cause of stimulus-based dominance is a contextual aspect, the distribution channel of the new product. The store in which a new product is sold influences the product evaluation process. A store has a certain image and perceived value related to its merchandise that the consumer takes into account when evaluating a new product (Darden & Babin, 1994; Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991; Grewal, Krishnan, Baker, & Borin, 1998; Teas & Agarwal, 2000; Yoo, Donthu, & Lee, 2000). If a co-branded product is sold in a store that has merchandise that has a similar image and perceived value to the products of one of the brands then that brand may become more salient and thus be considered the dominant brand. For example, Nike and Philips introduced a line of wearable portable audio in electronic stores. An electronic store is more similar in image and perceived value to the products of

Philips than to those of Nike.[3] This choice of distribution channel may thus result in consumers perceiving Philips to be the dominant brand.

Related to the choice of the distribution channel is the choice how the product is displayed within the store. A retailer can choose to position the new co-branded product as either comparable to (e.g., in a display with other brands from a particular product category) or distinct from (e.g., in a separate display that is disconnected from all other products) currently available products. Consumers derive meaning from the lay-out of the display of the new product (Buchanan, Simmons, & Bickart, 1999; Desai & Ratneshwar, 2003). In a display with other products, the new product will be compared with these other products, leading to either assimilation (i.e., judgments consistent with the primed category) or contrast (i.e., judgments inversely related to the values of the stimuli that surround it) effects (Fiske & Pavelchak, 1986; Herr, Sherman, & Fazio, 1983). Based on the findings of Desai and Ratneshwar (2003), it can be expected that when a retailer displays a co-branded product with similar single-branded products (e.g., the new coffee machine by Douwe Egberts and Philips amongst regular coffee machines), the atypical attribute (i.e., the second brand) gets perceptually highlighted. Thus, consumers contrast the new co-branded product to the other, single-branded products and consumers can perceive the brand that is unusual within the category (e.g., Douwe Egberts) to be the dominant brand.

A second possible cause of stimulus-based dominance is the order of the brands. Studies in cognitive psychology have found that the order of two nouns influences which noun forms the head concept and which one forms the modifying concept (e.g., Hampton, 1987; Murphy, 1988; Wisniewski, 1997). In the English language the second noun is typically the head concept and denotes the category; the first concept modifies the head concept and specifies how the noun differs from other members in the category (Raffray, Pickering, & Branigan, 2007). Park, et al. (1996), Kumar (2005), and Desai and Keller (2002) consider a co-branded product as a combination of nouns. They examined whether the findings from the cognitive psychology literature were also relevant for the consumer perception of a co-branded product by manipulating the order of the brand names. Their results were similar to those from cognitive psychology: the second brand was considered the dominant concept and the first brand acted as the modifying concept.

A final possible cause of stimulus-based dominance is the extent to which the new product itself exemplifies a certain concept through its product properties. The brand extension literature found that when a single brand extends into a new category, consumers try to relate that new product to the other products of the brand to be able to categorize the product (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Bottomley & Holden, 2001; Boush & Loken, 1991; Dacin & Smith, 1994; Park, et al., 1991; Völckner & Sattler, 2006). To find a relation between the new product and the existing products of a brand, consumers compare both functional (e.g., both the new and the existing products take photos) and visual (e.g., both the new and the existing products have a lens) properties of the new product with those of an existing product category related to

[3] It is interesting to mention that Nike stopped the alliance with Philips, and afterwards introduced a new line of wearable portable audio together with Apple. This line of products is only available in specialized running shops.

the brand (Gregan-Paxton, Hoeffler, & Zhao, 2005; Rosch, Mervis, Gray, Johnson, & Boyesbraem, 1976).

The relation between the new product and the existing products of a brand based on functional properties is called category relatedness (Park, et al., 1991) .Consumers determine category relatedness via a categorization process. In this categorization process they assess the extent to which the new product exemplifies a general concept by comparing properties of the existing products of both brands with those of the new product (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Park, et al., 1991; Tversky, 1977). To illustrate, when a new co-branded product that combines the functional properties of a washing detergent and a fabric softener has more properties related to a washing detergent, consumers are likely to categorize the new co-branded product as a washing detergent with added benefits.

The visual design of a new product can provide cues that may activate different schemas through which the product is processed and interpreted (Rindova & Petkova, 2007). Consequently, the visual design of the new product can also influence how consumers categorize the new product (Creusen & Schoormans, 2005; Rindova & Petkova, 2007). A product's visual design is the first thing about a product consumers perceive, and influences any subsequent judgments (Bloch, Brunel, & Arnold, 2003). The visual design of a new co-branded product is generally a combination of the design properties of two brands (e.g., the ingredient branded Tide washing detergent with Downy fabric softener; see Figure 2.13). According to Rindova and Petkova (2007, p. 224), "providing links to multiple product categories can stimulate knowledge recombination and creative processing and new schema development." Thus, it is to be expected that if a new co-branded product has visual similarities with multiple existing product categories that the consumer will process the new product piecemeal and no brand is dominant. However, if the co-branded product is visually more similar to an existing product in its visual design, the brand related to that product is likely to be the dominant brand and consumers will categorize the product accordingly.

In addition, when a new co-branded product is introduced on the market both the product's visual design (i.e., a visual cue) and its accompanying brands (i.e., a verbal cue) are present. Several studies have found that individuals place more weight on verbal cues than on visual cues (e.g., Medin, Wattenmaker, & Hampson, 1987; Yamauchi & Markman, 2000). However, these studies examined synthetic stimuli (e.g., drawings of bugs with fictitious category labels) and these stimuli contained no extra information to the verbal information. These findings may not be similar for branded products. Gregan-Paxton, Hoeffler, and Zhao (2005) examined how a single visual cue (i.e., showing a picture of a cell-phone or a PDA) and a single verbal cue (i.e., labeling the new product as a cell-phone or a PDA) influenced the consumers' comprehension of an unbranded manufactured composite concept (e.g., a combination of a PDA and a cell-phone). Their results showed that participants associated the new product more with one of the original products based on visual cues rather than verbal cues. This difference in the relevance of verbal and visual cues has to be taken into account when studying the consumers' perception and evaluation of co-branded products.

The results found in the conceptual combination literature with regard to the influence of a product's visual design on dominance may need to be modified for the richer and potentially deeper associations created by brands. A product's visual design facilitates recognition of a particular brand and can help to transfer consumers' beliefs

Figure 3.2:
Example of a product (i.e., a biscuit with yoghurt flavored cream) introduced by two brands (i.e., Liga and Danone) in which the logos are different in size and positioning

and associations related to that brand from an existing product to a new product (Person, Schoormans, Snelders, & Karjalainen, 2008). Furthermore, visual symbols and logos are considered identifiers of a brand (Kapferer, 1992, 2004), and form part of the visual design of most products. By changing the positioning and/or the size of a brand logo on a single branded product or within a single-branded advertisement, the salience of that brand can be influenced (Abratt & Motlana, 2002; Henderson & Cote, 1998; Pieters & Wedel, 2004). Berens, Van Riel and Van Bruggen (2005) found that when a corporate brand was more visible in an advertisement of an endorsed product[4], the associations with that corporate brand also became more salient. It is likely that changing the positioning and/or the size of a brand logo on a new co-branded product may also influence which brand consumers perceive as dominant (see Figure 3.2 for an example).

3.6 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter demonstrated that not all co-branded products are evaluated in the same way. Some products will induce consumers to piece together their evaluation, other products will induce consumers to use a more holistic approach, but most products will be processed as a conceptual combination and evaluated via a mix of both types of processing. Which type of process consumers use to come to an evaluation of a new co-branded product depends on whether they perceive one brand to be dominant. If consumers perceive a brand to be dominant, they will categorize the new product in the category related to the dominant brand and use a more holistic approach to evaluate the new product. However, if consumers do not perceive a brand as dominant, they will piece together their evaluation and create a new schema for the new product.

Perceptions of dominance are the result of causes related to the co-branded product's memory- and/or stimulus-based associations. A marketer or a designer can

[4] Endorsed products are products that are introduced with two brand names: a (new) brand name (i.e., the endorsed brand) and the brand name of the corporation behind the product (i.e., the endorser brand)(Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Riezebos, Kist, & Kootstra, 2003). Examples are Courtyard by Marriot or KitKat by Nestlé.

influence these causes of dominance in different ways. For example, a marketer can influence the effect of memory-based associations on perceived brand dominance by adjusting the accessibility of the associations of one of the brands through increased advertising exposure of that brand. In addition, a marketer can choose a particular distribution channel for the new product to influence perceptions of brand dominance through the stimulus-based associations. A designer can influence the effect of the stimulus-based associations on perceived brand dominance by using visual brand symbols or by stressing certain functions in the design of the co-branded product. When a designer creates a product that looks similar to an existing product, consumers are more likely to perceive the brand that is related to that existing product as the dominant brand.

Both the type of processing and how this processing is possibly influenced by whether consumers perceive brand dominance are topics that merit further research. Therefore, this doctoral thesis will present several empirical studies. These studies investigate three main issues: 1) how consumers process and thus evaluate a co-branded product, 2) whether and why consumers perceive brand dominance, and 3) how this dominance influences their evaluations. As most causes of dominance have not yet been studied in relation to co-branding it is difficult to say which causes of dominance are relevant. For this reason a qualitative study was conducted to determine whether the possible causes of dominance portrayed in Table 3.1 are perceived by consumers when confronted with co-branded products (see Chapter 5 for details).

3.7 OVERVIEW OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES

After studies 1 and 2 (already in Chapter 2), the following chapters of this doctoral thesis present four additional empirical studies that investigate different aspects of co-branded products and their context. Table 3.2 presents an overview of the studies and the variables that are investigated within each study.

These studies investigate how several aspects influence how the product is perceived and evaluated. Chapter 4 (study 3) focuses on the consumer evaluation of a co-branded product and the relevance of several fit factors for this evaluation. A questionnaire based study represents a replication with extension of the model of Simonin and Ruth (1998). They focused on the fit between the brands, but did not take the co-branded product and the category it may represent into account. The category represented by the co-branded product is likely to be a relevant source of information and a possible cause of brand dominance. For this reason, study 3 examines whether consumers consider the logic of the connection between each individual brand and the specific new product that has been developed. Thus, the study also makes a first attempt at investigating the existence of dominance between the brands, and the influence of dominance on the evaluation of the new product.

Chapter 5 discusses three studies. Study 4 is a qualitative study that explores whether consumers perceive the possible causes of dominance derived from the literature. In addition, this study identifies which causes of dominance are most relevant from the perspective of consumers. Studies 5 and 6 are two experiments that each examine two of the most relevant possible causes of dominance. The two experiments reported in Chapter 5 also explore how perceptions of dominance based on the new product's properties influence the evaluation of a co-branded product.

Table 3.2: Overview of the studies

Chapter		Propositions & Hypotheses
1	Introducing Co-Branding	-
2	Co-Branding in Practice:	
	Study 1: A Historical Analysis of Co-Branding	Propositions: 1: Co-branding is not a new strategy as is often claimed; 2: Co-branding is used as a long-term brand alliance less often compared to joint promotions, a short-term brand alliance; 3: Both strategies have different strategic objectives and these objectives have changed over the years
	Study 2: A Classification of Co-Branding	Proposition: Co-branding can be classified into three sub-strategies
3	The Consumer Perception and Evaluation of New Co-Branded Products	-
4	The Impact of Fit Measures on the Consumer Evaluation of New Co-Branded Products	
	Study 3: The Impact of Fit Measures on the Consumer Evaluation of New Co-Branded Products	Hypotheses: H1: Product-product-fit → Evaluation H2: Brand-brand-fit → Evaluation H3: New-product-product-fit → Evaluation H4: New-product-brand-fit → Evaluation H5: Δ New-product-product-fit → Evaluation H6: Δ New-product-brand-fit → Evaluation
5	Dominance and New Co-Branded Product Evaluation:	
	Study 4: An Exploratory Examination into Potential Causes of Perceived Brand Dominance	Propositions: Δ Category relatedness → Dominance Δ Visual design similarity → Dominance Δ Brand salience → Dominance
	Study 5: The Impact of Brand Salience and Category Relatedness on Perceived Brand Dominance and Product Evaluation	Hypotheses: H1: Δ Brand salience → Dominance H2: Δ Category relatedness → Dominance H3: Δ Brand salience x Δ Cat. rel. → Evaluation
	Study 6: The Impact of Brand Order and Visual Design Similarity on Perceived Brand Dominance and Product Evaluation	Hypotheses: H1: Brand order → Dominance H2: ΔVisual design similarity → Dominance H3: Brand order x ΔVisual design sim.→ Evaluation
6	General Discussion and Implications	-

**All relationships are positive*
Δ depicts a difference score

4 FIT MEASURES AND NEW CO-BRANDED PRODUCT EVALUATION

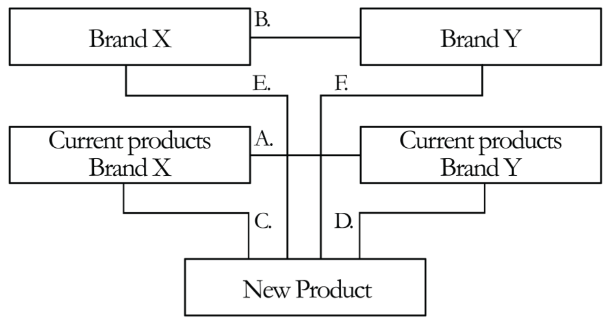
Chapter 3 provided a preview of possible factors that may influence consumers' reactions toward co-branded products. After having provided this theoretical clarity about the co-branding strategy, study 3 in this chapter investigates how consumers evaluate a new product with two brands through a questionnaire-based study.

4.1 STUDY 3: THE IMPACT OF FIT MEASURES ON THE CONSUMER EVALUATION OF NEW CO-BRANDED PRODUCTS[1]

It is often claimed that co-branding exists to persuade consumers of the advantages of a new product (Kapferer, 2001; Park, et al., 1996; Rao & Ruekert, 1994; Washburn, et al., 2000). If this is true, then it is likely that consumers will not only consider the connection between both brands and their existing product categories, but also the role of the new product itself in the brand partnership. Previous research focused on the logic of a brand combination by investigating the impact of the fit between both existing product categories (i.e., product-product-fit) and the fit between both existing brand images (i.e., brand-brand-fit) on the evaluation of a new co-branded product (Park, et al., 1996; Simonin & Ruth, 1998). However, no study has yet focused on the relationships between both brands and their existing product categories, and the specific new product that has been developed. To investigate this matter, this chapter proposes a conceptual model that replicates and extends the model of Simonin and Ruth (1998) by adding two new measures. These two new measures are related to the fit of the newly developed product with the images of the two parent brands (i.e., new-product-brand-fit), and the fit of the new product with the existing product categories of both brands (i.e., new-product-product-fit). The need for this extension is illustrated by Tide Buzz, an ultrasonic stain removal device introduced on the American market by Black and Decker and Tide in 2005 (see Figure 2.14). Amazon customer reviews (2005) showed that consumers who bought this new product were intrigued by a product by Black and Decker and Tide. At the same time, their (often negative) evaluations of Tide Buzz were heavily influenced by the role of the new product in the brand partnership. They were concerned that the new product did not

[1] This chapter is an adapted version of an article that will be forthcoming in the *Journal of Product Innovation Management* (Bouten, L. M., Snelders, D., & Hultink, E.J. The impact of fit measures on the consumer evaluation of new co-branded products.)

Figure 4.1: Study 3 An extended model of fit measures that influence the evaluation of a co-branded product



A	*Product-product-fit*
B	*Brand-brand-fit*
C+ D	*New-product-product-fit*
E + F	*New-product-brand-fit*

offer the same quality level as the existing products of the parent brands (especially of Black and Decker).

Figure 4.1 presents the conceptual model. "Product-product-fit" and "brand-brand-fit" as represented by 'A' and 'B' have previously been studied by Park, Jun and Shocker (1996) and Simonin and Ruth (1998). The two new measures as represented by 'C+D' and 'E+F' are "new-product-product-fit" (i.e., the fit between the existing product categories of each brand and the new product) and "new-product-brand-fit" (i.e., the fit between the brand images of each brand and the new product). Below, this chapter will first develop the hypotheses. Then, an empirical study will be described that investigates the impact of the fit measures on consumer evaluations. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the findings.

4.1.1 Hypotheses Study 3

One of the most relevant aspects of a co-branded product is that the combination between the brands makes sense to the consumer (Park, et al., 1996). Simonin and Ruth (1998) investigated this 'logic of a combination' at two levels: the compatibility between the product categories of each brand, and the compatibility between the images of each brand. Simonin and Ruth (1998) used the Information Integration Theory of Anderson (1981) as the foundation for their study. According to the Information Integration Theory "virtually all thought and behavior is multiply caused, the resultant of numerous co-acting factors" (Anderson, 1981, p. 7). This implies that all information pertaining to a co-branded product is combined into an integration function to produce a response to the new product (i.e., piecemeal processing, for more information see paragraph 3.2). Therefore, the present study investigates the four fit measures presented in Figure 4.1, and their respective impact on the evaluation of a new co-branded product.

The first measure is called "product-product-fit", which is defined as "the extent to which consumers perceive the product categories of both brands to be compatible at the functional product level". The better this fit, the easier it will be for consumers to combine their favorable attitudes regarding the current products of both brands, and transfer these positive attitudes to the new co-branded product. Consistent with this reasoning, Simonin and Ruth (1998) found that a high product-product-fit was positively related to consumer evaluations of new co-branded products. Thus:

H1: Product-product-fit has a positive impact on the evaluation of a new co-branded product.

Besides the potential fit between the product categories of two brands, there may also be complementarities between the brand-unique associations that consumers have with both brands. Brand-unique associations are defined as those associations that differentiate the brand from other brands in the same category (Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994). Park, Milberg and Lawson (1991) illustrate this concept with the brands Seiko and Rolex. Both brands make watches and thus share multiple attributes related to the watch-category (e.g., reliability, accuracy). However, Rolex is associated with luxury and high status while Seiko is not. Thus, brands have brand-unique associations that are partly derived from the product's features (e.g., high price, expensive looking design) and partly from the efforts of the brand owner to provide these features with additional meaning (e.g., "worth a second glance, even when you know the time," slogan used in an advertisement by Rolex).

According to Simonin and Ruth (1998), consumers evaluate co-branded products in the context of such brand meanings. Consumers retrieve certain associations about the brands that are stored in memory and that form the brand image (Keller, 1993). If the associations of both brands complement to some extent, consumers see a connection between the brands at the image level, leading to a higher "brand-brand-fit." Simonin and Ruth (1998) discuss how a high brand-brand-fit helps consumers to combine their brand attitudes and transfer those attitudes more easily to the new co-branded product. In line with this reasoning, they found that brand-brand-fit was positively related to consumer evaluations of a new co-branded product.

H2: Brand-brand-fit has a positive impact on the evaluation of a new co-branded product.

A logical combination of brands may not be enough for a new co-branded product to become successful, because the fit between the new product, and the two brands and their existing product categories, may also have an influence on evaluation (Park, et al., 1996). While the co-branding literature is rather silent on these relationships, the brand extension literature has addressed the relationships between a brand and its current portfolio, and the new product that has been developed (Leuthesser, et al., 2003). The brand extension literature suggests two additional hypotheses that focus on the relationships between each brand and their existing products, and the newly developed product.

Several brand extension studies (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Bottomley & Holden, 2001; Boush & Loken, 1991; Park, et al., 1991) have shown that a new product that fits the current products of a brand will be evaluated more positively. These findings are based on the attitude-transfer model derived from the categorical processing literature (see paragraph 3.1).This model states that a good fit will lead to a transfer of the consumer's attitude toward the brand to the attitude toward the extension product (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Mao & Krishnan, 2006). This fit is determined via a categorization process in which the consumer assesses the extent to which the new product exemplifies a general concept by comparing features of existing products with those of the new product (see paragraph 3.1)(Aaker & Keller, 1990; Park, et al., 1991). A lack of fit between the existing products of a brand and the new product can lead consumers to the conclusion that the extension is meaningless. An example of high fit is Starbucks liquor, which was voted as one of the best brand extensions of 2005 by 449 branding and marketing professionals in the USA. The reason for its success was thought to be that liquor and coffee are frequently consumed in combination after supper (Sprung & Tipping, 2005). This fit between the current product category of a brand and the new product will be called "new-product-product-fit." This study extends the findings of the brand extension literature to co-branding, and hypothesizes that there is a positive relationship between new-product-product-fit and the evaluation of a new co-branded product by consumers. Thus:

H3: New-product-product-fit has a positive impact on the evaluation of a new co-branded product.

Brand extensions that do not fit the current product category of a brand can still become a success when the extended product fits the brand-unique associations of the brand. For example, the extension of Jeep, an automotive company, into a line of baby gear was regarded as a successful brand extension by 208 branding and marketing professionals in the USA (Makula, Sprung, & Tipping, 2004). Baby gear has little in common with automobiles so it is hard to attribute this success to a high new-product-product fit. However, there can still be a brand-logic to this extension. Jeep assured that its line of baby gear communicated its brand image. On Jeep's website, the sturdiness of the baby gear is stressed, and the suggestion is made that "the baby will love tagging along on your adventures."

Broniarczyk and Alba (1994) and Park et al. (1991) discuss how the fit of a new product with an existing brand may also be determined through other processes than comparing features of existing products with those of the new product. Consumers can categorize a new product based on a shared concept formed by brand-unique associations. These associations may be supported by a certain style of communications or by a product design that carries brand relevant meaning. This type of fit between the image of a brand and the new product will be called "new-product-brand-fit". Like before, this chapter extends the findings from the brand extension literature to co-branding, and hypothesizes:

H4: New-product-brand-fit has a positive impact on the evaluation of a new co-branded product.

The assessment of fit between a new co-branded product and the two parent brands creates the possibility to explore if consumers prefer equal partnerships in a co-branding alliance. When consumers evaluate a new product they will first try to categorize the product based on contextual cues (Herr, et al., 1983; Pavelchak, 1989; see paragraph 3.5 for a complete overview). The brand image and existing products of a brand provide such cues. If a new product and a brand are complementary through a high new-product-product-fit and/or a high new-product-brand-fit, then that product is likely to be assimilated into the category of that specific brand. However, categorization ambiguity may arise when conflicting cues are present (Gregan-Paxton, et al., 2005). In the case of a new co-branded product, contextual cues stemming from two brands are present, and both may fit with the new product in varying degrees. When there is a difference in fit between the new product and the two brands, consumers have no trouble categorizing the new product, as it will be associated with the brand with the highest fit. When consumers are able to categorize a new co-branded product into an existing category, Information Integration Theory (or piecemeal processing) may no longer be the appropriate cognitive process. However, categorization may be difficult when consumers feel that both brands fit equally well with the new product, resulting in categorization ambiguity. Previous studies have found that people do not like categorization ambiguity, and that they evaluate an object more critically when it is unclear to which category a product belongs (Fiske, 1982; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989, p. 40). These findings suggest that consumers prefer co-branded products that differ in fit with the two parent brands. Thus:

> **H5:** The difference in new-product-product-fit between two brands has a positive impact on the evaluation of a new co-branded product.
>
> **H6:** The difference in new-product-brand-fit between two brands has a positive impact on the evaluation of a new co-branded product.

4.1.2 Method Study 3

Procedure

The present study used a questionnaire in which respondents were asked to answer questions about a new product that was introduced by two brands. Two new products were conceived for this purpose, and each new product was introduced by two different sets of parent brands (see stimulus development). Using a two by two between subjects design, four different versions of the questionnaire were created with varying degrees of "product-product-fit" and "brand-brand-fit". This procedure was chosen to secure that there is sufficient variance in the two fit measures that have already proven themselves in previous studies to influence the evaluation of a co-branded product (Park, et al., 1996; Simonin & Ruth, 1998).[2] The questionnaire started with an introduction to the study followed by the items measuring the control variables (see below). Next, respondents read a brief description of the new product and its two parent brands followed by the items measuring the four fit variables and the evaluation of the new product. As the questionnaire measures the independent and dependent variables simultaneously, there is a potential risk of common method bias (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). To assess this potential bias, a control questionnaire was used that only measured the dependent variable (and not the independent variables). This procedure allowed us to assess whether the evaluation of the co-branded product in the main questionnaire was affected by the preceding task of rating the fit measures.

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[2] An alternative procedure was considered, namely asking respondents to think of a known case of co-branding. However, since too many respondents would think of two particular recent successes of co-branding on the Dutch market, this was deemed inappropriate because it would limit the amount of variation in the fit measures.

Sample

Respondents were members of a consumer panel in a medium sized Dutch city. From this panel, 360 members were selected in such a way that the sample reflects the distribution of age and gender in the population between 20 and 70. The main questionnaire was sent to 280 people, and the control questionnaire to 80 people. From each of the age and gender strata in the sample, an equal number of respondents were randomly assigned to one of the four different versions of the questionnaire. For their participation, respondents received a small compensation in the form of a set of postal stamps or a contribution to a charity of choice. From the 280 questionnaires sent, 210 completed questionnaires (75%) were returned. From the 80 control questionnaires, 63 (79%) were returned.

Stimulus Development

Three pre-tests helped to identify suitable products and brands with enough variance in the product-product-fit and brand-brand-fit measures. Figure 4.2 provides a summary of the three pre-tests. In the first pre-test, a sample of 29 Dutch non-student consumers were confronted with a set of 40 non-food brands, taken from a list of well-known brands in The Netherlands (Superbrands, 2005). Respondents were asked if they were familiar with the brands, and if so, to state which product(s) they thought that the brand sold. To ensure that consumers would elicit associations with the brands in the main study, this study only focused on highly familiar brands. Consumers have to know the brand in order to be able to form an opinion on the presence of brand-brand-fit and new-product-brand-fit (Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994; Simonin & Ruth, 1998). In addition, following Aaker and Keller (1990) and Park et al. (1991), this study only focused on single product brands (i.e., brands connected to a single product category by consumers) to eliminate the potentially confounding effect of portfolio breadth on fit and the evaluation of new products (Dacin & Smith, 1994). A brand was accepted as a familiar, single product brand when more than 75% of the respondents were familiar with the brand and named the same single product category in connection to the brand. Based on these criteria, 25 highly familiar, single product brands were selected for the second and third pre-test.

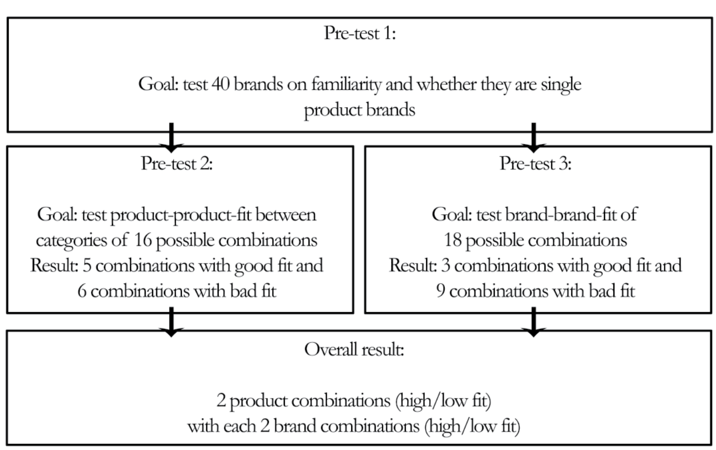

Figure 4.2: Study 3
Overview of pre-tests

In the second pre-test, the current product categories related to the 25 selected brands were brought together to form 16 possible combinations of two product categories. 20 Dutch non-student consumers were then asked to state on a nine-point scale ("absolutely does not fit" – "fits perfectly") whether they thought a connection between the two product categories was plausible (no brand name was mentioned here). This single item served as a proxy for the multi-item scale of product-product-fit used in the main study. The results showed that there was a sufficient amount of variation in the fit between product categories (average fit ranged between 1.4 and 8.9). Five combinations of product categories with a high product-product-fit and six combinations of product categories with a low product-product-fit proved suitable for further use. In the third pre-test, eighteen combinations of single product brand names from the first pre-test were tested for their fit with each other. Another set of 42 Dutch non-student consumers stated whether they thought the combination of the brands fitted each other on a 9-point scale ("absolutely does not fit" – "fits perfectly"). This item served as a proxy for brand-brand-fit as measured in the main study. The results showed that there was also high variation in the fit between brands (average fit ranged between 2.8 and 6.8). Three combinations of brands with a high brand-brand-fit and nine combinations of brands with a low brand-brand-fit proved suitable for further use.

By combining the results from the second and third pre-test, two new co-branded products with variation in the degree of fit between product categories and between brands were created. The two new products were a) a bicycle seat for small children, developed by a producer of bicycles and a producer of child car seats, and b) a battery operated hand vacuum cleaner with a mouthpiece, on which cloths can be placed that are designed to pick up small dirt particles, static dust and hairs, and that is made by a producer of dry cloth brooms and a producer of batteries (see Appendix A.III for both product descriptions). Based on the second pre-test, bicycles and child car seats fitted well together, while dry cloth brooms and batteries did not ($t(19) = 16.6$, $p < .001$). Each product was depicted together with two sets of parent brands. For the bicycle seat for children, these were a) Batavus, an innovative and family-oriented Dutch bicycle brand, with Maxi Cosi, an innovative producer of child car seats, and b) Sparta, a Dutch bicycle brand with a sporty image, again with Maxi Cosi. Based on the third pre-test, the first brand combination had a higher fit between brands than the second combination ($t(40) = 2.38$; $p < .05$). For the hand vacuum cleaner with replaceable cloths the two brand combinations were a) Sorbo, a traditional brand for dry cleaning cloths with an image of a thorough cleaning expert, with Duracell, an established battery brand that portrays its products as never getting tired, and b) Swiffer, a newer brand of dry cloths that portrays cleaning as light work, with again Duracell. Data from the third pre-test showed that Sorbo and Duracell had a higher fit than Swiffer and Duracell ($t(41) = 3.22$; $p < .01$). Table 4.1 presents the four resulting co-branded combinations.

Measures

This study used multi-item scales predominantly drawn from prior (co-)branding studies. All items were measured on nine-point rating scales (1 = "don't agree at all" and 9 = "totally agree") and they were translated from English into Dutch in two rounds of translating and back-translating by persons with a thorough knowledge of both languages.

Table 4.1: Study 3 Stimuli

New product:	Product-product-fit:	Brand-brand-fit:
Bicycle seat for children	High (bicycles and child car seats)	High (Batavus and Maxi Cosi)
		Low (Sparta and Maxi Cosi)
Hand vacuum cleaner with replaceable cloths	Low (dry cloth brooms and batteries)	High (Swiffer and Duracell)
		Low (Sorbo and Duracell)

Main variables: The dependent measure, *evaluation of the new co-branded product*, consisted of six items that were previously used by Grossman and Till (1998), Samu, Krishnan and Smith (1999) and Simonin and Ruth (1998). The measure assessed the degree to which the new product was seen as good, pleasant, interesting, nice, and whether the respondent felt positive or favorable toward the new product. *Product-product-fit* was measured with five items (i.e., "the products are complements, substitutes, consistent, fit each other, and are similar") based on Aaker and Keller (1990), Bhat and Reddy (2001), Park, et al. (1991), Samu, Krishnan and Smith (1999), and Simonin and Ruth (1998). Three items were used to measure *brand-brand-fit* (i.e., "the brands are consistent, are complementary, and fit each other"), derived from Bhat and Reddy (2001), Park, et al. (1991), and Simonin and Ruth (1998). *New-product-product-fit* consisted of five items that were asked separately for the two parent product categories (i.e., "the new product and the product category of the parent brand are complements, substitutes, consistent, fit, and are similar"). These items were based on brand extension studies by Aaker and Keller (1990), Bhat and Reddy (2001), Broniarczyk and Alba (1994), and Park, et al. (1991). New-product-product-fit referred to the original product category of the brand without naming the brand to clearly differentiate this construct from the new-product-brand-fit construct (Bhat & Reddy, 2001). *New-product-brand-fit* consisted of six items based on Bhat and Reddy (2001; "brand fits product"), Bridges, Keller and Sood (2000; "this is a very appropriate product for this brand"), and Simonin and Ruth (1998; "brand and product are complements, brand and product are consistent"). Two new items were added and asked whether respondents thought that the new product added something to the brand and vice versa.

Control variables: Simonin and Ruth (1998) investigated the influence of fit between the brands and between the product categories of each brand on new product evaluation. In addition, they examined the direct influence of prior attitude toward each brand and the moderating influence of familiarity on new product evaluation. They found that if a consumer already has a positive attitude towards the brands, then it is likely that a new co-branded product will share some of the qualities of the two parent brands, and will therefore be evaluated more positively. Thus, the evaluation of a new product with an existing brand will partly arise from the transfer of prior affect to the new product. In addition, familiarity with the brands can moderate the effect of prior attitude toward the product on new product evaluation. As the present study intends to extend the model of Simonin and Ruth (1998), the questionnaire also included these two variables as control variables. *Familiarity with the brand* was measured with three items used by Simonin and Ruth (1998; "I am familiar with this brand, I recognize the brand, I have heard of this brand before"). *Prior affect toward the brand* was measured with six items similar to the ones used to measure the evaluation of the new co-branded product.

Measure Validation

Separate exploratory factor analyses were conducted on the items for each scale. All items loaded on a single dimension, except for the items measuring product-product-fit and for the items measuring new-product-product-fit. The items related to these two constructs dispersed over two dimensions. Two items were retained that are related to the complementarity between products, because they are most in line with the strategic aim of co-branding (Kapferer, 2001; Park, et al., 1996; Prince & Davies, 2002) and these two items are closest to the ones used by Simonin and Ruth (1998). The items that were maintained for product-product-fit were "[the current products of brand A and brand B] complement each other" and "[the current products of brand A and brand B] fit each other". Similar items were maintained for the new-product-product-fit construct, again leaving two items to measure the construct.

Next, a series of confirmatory factor analyses were conducted for each construct separately (LISREL 8.72, maximum likelihood estimation; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2005). After this procedure 16 items were retained and six discarded (see Appendix A.IV). Two items were dropped from the new-product-brand-fit construct and one item from the brand-brand-fit construct. In addition, three items of the prior affect scale were dropped because they had high positive residuals (>2.58) with familiarity, suggesting that these items are related to familiarity as well as to prior affect. Finally, a full confirmatory factor analysis using maximum likelihood estimation was conducted with the remaining items of all constructs. The overall chi-square statistic for the model was significant (χ^2(df = 188) = 454.8, $p < .001$), but this can be attributed to the sensitivity of this statistic to sample size (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The other fit indices (normed fit index [NFI] = .966; non-normed fit index [NNFI] = .973; comparative fit index [CFI] = .978) indicated good fit.

The reliability and validity of the scales were assessed in several ways. First, the Cronbach alpha of each construct was above .70. In addition, the ratio between the true variance and observed variance in the items measuring the latent constructs were all above .77, which means that there was a satisfactory level of composite reliability (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Further, the average variances extracted were all above .50, indicating a sufficient level of internal consistency for the constructs (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Convergent validity was present because all factor loadings were significant at the $p < .05$ level (Bagozzi, Yi, & Philips, 1991) and all standardized item loadings were above the cut off level of .50. Discriminant validity between the constructs was assessed through pair-wise comparisons (cf. Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Between any pair of constructs, a chi-square difference test was performed between a constrained and an unconstrained model. In the constrained model the correlation between the two constructs was set to 1.0; in the unconstrained model this correlation was freed. A significantly lower value of the chi-square of the unconstrained model in comparison to the constrained model indicated that the constructs have less than perfect correlation. With a critical value of 10.83 at the $p < .001$-percent level, all pair-wise comparisons showed discriminant validity. In addition, the confidence interval around the correlation estimates between any two factors was determined. None of these intervals included 1.0, again indicating discriminant validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1998). Finally, the average variance extracted (AVE) estimate for each construct was compared with the squared correlation between that construct and any other. All squared correlations were lower than the respective AVE estimates, thus forming a final indication of discriminant validity between the constructs.

Assessing Common Method Bias

Common method bias was assessed by comparing the ratings on the dependent variable between the control questionnaire without preceding fit measures and the main questionnaire. The evaluation of each product in the control questionnaire did not differ significantly from the main questionnaire where the fit measures preceded the measurement of product evaluation (bicycle seat for children: $t(162) = 0.64$, $p > .50$; hand vacuum cleaner: $t(165) = 0.92$, $p > .30$). This was also the case when subdividing the sample for each brand combination. Thus, asking respondents about fit in the main questionnaire did not influence subsequent evaluations of the new co-branded product. These findings indicate that common method bias may not be a major problem in this study.

Measurement Summary

Table 4.2 provides an overview of the used constructs and summary statistics. The scales were formed by taking the average score of all the items that were part of a construct. Most entries are based on a 9-point scale (1 = "completely disagree" and 9 = "completely agree"). Four entries are based on the summed items, creating a range between '2' and '18'. These are new-product-product-fit, new-product-brand-fit, prior affect towards the brands, and familiarity with the brands. The items were summed to generalize the results over both brands, as this is more relevant to examine than the individual influence of fit between each brand and the new product. Finally, there are two entries that are based on the absolute difference between the scores related to each brand, creating a range between '0' and '8': i.e., difference score in new-product-product-fit and difference score in new-product-brand-fit.

According to Peter, Churchill and Brown (1993) there are some potential dangers in using difference-scores. One such danger (spurious correlation between the two components of the difference score) is seen as particular to "before-after scores", when respondents can be driven by a motive to appear consistent in their answers. This was not the case here because the questions pertained to two different brands measured at different places in the questionnaire. However, three dangers remain for the difference scores that were used in this study: 1) a lower reliability of the difference score than the reliability of its components, 2) restriction in the variance of the difference score variable when one of the components scores is consistently higher than the other, and 3) problems with discriminant validity when the difference score is strongly correlated with the underlying variables. The reliability of the difference score of new-product-brand-fit was acceptable ($r = 0.84$) and there were no problems with a restriction of variance and discriminant validity. However, the difference score

Table 4.2: Study 3 Constructs and descriptives

#[a]	Construct	Mean	S.D.	Dep.	A	B	C	D	ΔNPPF	ΔNPBF	P.AFF	FAM	AVE	CR
Dep.	Evaluation of co-branded product[b]	5.70	2.05	*0.97*									0.87	0.98
A	Product-product-fit[b]	5.39	2.40	**0.72**	*0.87*								0.80	0.89
B	Brand-brand-fit[b]	5.53	1.96	**0.74**	**0.67**	*0.88*							0.79	0.88
C	New-product-product-fit[c]	11.38	3.28	**0.64**	**0.71**	**0.61**	*0.85*						0.75	0.86
D	New-product-brand-fit[c]	12.15	3.13	**0.78**	**0.75**	**0.76**	**0.73**	*0.95*					0.82	0.95
ΔNPPF	Difference score new-product-product-fit[d]	2.06	1.69	**-0.17**	**-0.29**	**-0.32**	**-0.38**	**-0.21**	*0.41*				0.65	0.64
ΔNPBF	Difference score new-product-brand-fit[d]	1.26	1.18	**-0.21**	**-0.27**	**-0.38**	-0.08	**-0.34**	**0.31**	*0.84*			0.72	0.84
P.AFF	Prior affect towards brands[c]	12.14	2.49	**0.43**	**0.29**	**0.39**	**0.32**	**0.41**	-0.09	**-0.17**	*0.90*		0.77	0.91
FAM	Familiarity with brands[c]	15.22	2.33	0.05	0.04	0.05	**0.18**	0.14	0.11	0.11	**0.35**	*0.75*	0.58	0.77

[a] Letters refer to relations in Figure 4.1
[b] Entries are based on a 9-point scale with '1' = completely disagree and '9' = completely agree
[c] Entries are based on the summed items, creating a range between '2' and '18'.
[d] Entries are based on the difference between the scores related to each brand, creating a range between '0' and '8'.
Reliability coefficients are shown in italics on the diagonal. Significant correlations ($p < .05$) are presented in bold.
For the 3-item scales, two of the loadings were specified to be equal to enable testing of the CFA models; this is because a one-factor, three indictor CFA model is just-identified and has zero degrees of freedom.
AVE: Average variance extracted; CR: Composite reliability

of new-product-product-fit was unreliable (r = 0.41) and also had low discriminant validity. For this reason, the difference score for new-product-product-fit was dropped from further analyses. Unfortunately, this means that we will not be able to test H5.[3]

4.1.3 Results Study 3

Regression analysis was used to test the effect of the fit and control measures on the evaluation of a new co-branded product. Three different models were examined. The first model included the original measures of Simonin and Ruth (1998), being product-product-fit (H1), and brand-brand-fit (H2), and the effect of prior affect and familiarity. The second model extended the first model with new-product-product-fit (H3) and new-product-brand-fit (H4). The third model extended the second model with the difference score of new-product-brand-fit (H6).

The first model explained 65% of the variance in the evaluation of a new co-branded product (R^2_{adj}= 0.65; F(4, 199) = 94.68; $p < .001$). Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values were computed, and ranged from 1.16 to 1.98. Since these values are well below the threshold value of 10 (Stevens, 2002) multicollinearity was not a major reason for concern. The regression analysis showed that product-product-fit (ß = 0.39; $p < .001$), brand-brand-fit (ß = 0.41; $p < .001$), and prior affect toward the brands (ß = 0.18; $p < .01$) had a significant positive impact on the evaluation of a co-branded product, supporting H1 and H2. Familiarity was not significantly related to the evaluations of consumers.

The second model explained 69% of the variance in the evaluation of a new co-branded product (R^2_{adj}= 0.69; F(6, 197) = 75.41; $p < .001$), a significant improvement compared to the first model (F_{change}(2, 197) = 13.36, $p < .001$). VIF values were computed again, and ranged from 1.19 to 3.60. The regression analysis showed that product-product-fit (ß = 0.22; $p < .001$) and brand-brand-fit (ß = 0.25; $p < .001$) still had a significant positive impact on the evaluation of a co-branded product. New-product-product-fit was not significantly related to consumer evaluations of new co-branded products, rejecting H3. New-product-brand-fit (ß = 0.35; $p < .001$) was strongly and positively related to consumer evaluations, supporting H4. Finally, prior affect toward the brands (ß = 0.15; $p < .01$) had a significant effect while familiarity had no effect on consumer evaluations.

The third model was used to test the effect of the difference in fit between the brands on the evaluation of a co-branded product (H6). The model explained 70% of the variance in the evaluation of the product (R^2_{adj}= 0.70; F(7, 197)= 70.47; $p < .001$). This was a significant improvement compared to the second model (F_{change}(1, 197) = 8.59, $p < .01$). VIF values were computed, and ranged from 1.22 to 3.84. The regression analysis showed again that product-product-fit (ß = 0.23; $p < .001$), brand-brand-fit (ß = 0.28; $p < .001$), new-product-brand-fit (ß = 0.39; p < .001), and prior affect (ß = 0.16; $p < .01$) had a significant effect on the evaluation of a co-branded product. Familiarity was negatively related to consumer evaluations (ß = -0.10; $p < .05$), but this unexpected result is most likely due to the sole use of

[3] Adding the difference score for new-product-product-fit to the regression analysis did not change the results for the other variables in the regression equation, and the impact of this difference score on consumer evaluations was not significant.

Table 4.3: Study 3 Impact of fit measures on the evaluation of a new co-branded product

		Dependent: Evaluation of co-branded product					
#[a]		Model 1 ß-values		Model 2 ß-values		Model 3 ß-values	
A	Product-product-fit	0.39	***	0.22	***	0.23	***
B	Brand-brand-fit	0.41	***	0.25	***	0.28	***
C	New-product-product-fit	-		0.04		0.03	
D	New-product-brand-fit	-		0.35	***	0.39	***
ΔNPPF	Difference score new-product-product-fit	-		-		-	
ΔNPBF	Difference score new-product-brand-fit	-		-		0.13	**
P.AFF	Prior affect towards brands	0.18	***	0.15	**	0.16	**
FAM	Familiarity with brands	-0.05		-0.08		-0.10	*
	R^2-value	0.66		0.70		0.71	
	Adjusted R^2	0.65		0.69		0.70	
	F-value	94.68		75.41		70.47	
	Change in F-value	-		13.36	***	8.59	**

[a] *Letters refer to relations in Figure 4.1*
* *p-value < .05*
** *p-value < .01*
*** *p-value < .001*

highly familiar brands in this study.[4] Like before, new-product-product-fit was not significantly related to consumer evaluations. The difference score of new-product-brand-fit between both brands was significantly related to the evaluation of the new co-branded product (ß = 0.13; $p < .01$), thereby supporting H6. Table 4.3 presents the results of the regression analyses.

Since this study had stimulated between-subjects variation in the fit measures by using two different co-branded products, regression analyses were also conducted for each co-branded product separately. These analyses produced similar results (see Appendix A.V). A chow-test was conducted to investigate whether the regression equations for both products differed significantly (Hardy, 1994). No significant differences were found between the regression equations of both products.

[4] The few respondents who were less familiar with the brands tended to evaluate the new product more positively. There is no explanation for this effect other than that it may be a statistical artifact, caused by the skewness of familiarity. The intended use of highly familiar brands in this study made the variation in familiarity small and skewed towards high familiarity. If the distribution of familiarity is made normal by applying cubic transformation, then the effect of familiarity on the evaluation of the co-branded product product disappears while the other reported effects remain the same.

4.2 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS STUDY 3

4.2.1 Summary of the Findings

This study replicated the findings of Simonin and Ruth (1998) that the evaluation of a new co-branded product is influenced by the fit between the parent brands and their products. A high fit between the current products of both brands and a high fit between both brand images will lead to a more positive evaluation of a co-branded product. This study simultaneously expands on the study of Simonin and Ruth (1998) by investigating the role of the new product itself in a co-branding alliance. The main finding here is that the new co-branded product is evaluated more positively when it fits with the brand image of the parent brands. Another finding is that consumers evaluate a new co-branded product higher when one parent brand fits the new product better than the other at the brand image level. Thus, consumers prefer an asymmetric contribution of brands in terms of new-product-brand-fit to a more balanced contribution. These effects of the new product were only found at the brand level as new-product-product-fit did not have a significant impact on the evaluation of co-branded products. This finding is in agreement with previous studies on brand extensions, where it was found that the effect of new-product-product-fit on evaluation tends to become smaller (Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994), or disappears (Bhat & Reddy, 2001) when new-product-brand fit is included. Thus, consumers approve of a new co-branded product provided that one or both of the parent brands has some image based connection to the new product. This explanation suggests that new-product-brand-fit mediates the effect of new-product-product-fit on new product evaluation. A mediation analysis confirmed the suggestion that new-product-brand-fit (partially) mediated the effect of new-product-product-fit on new product evaluation (see Appendix A.VI). An explanation might be that any new product that has a fit at the brand image level is appropriate because this fit represents the brand's particular strengths that can be converted into a brand-specific competitive advantage (Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994). One of the main purposes of a brand is to help differentiate a product from other products in its category (Bristow, Schneider, & Schuler, 2002). Thus, fit at the brand image level can compensate for a lack of fit at the product level (Bhat & Reddy, 2001; Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994).

4.2.2 Limitations

The focus on the role of the new product in co-branding led to the selection of single product brands for the study. This procedure reduced unwanted variance in the measurement of new-product-product-fit and new-product-brand-fit because respondents could compare the new product to the product category that each brand was best known for, as well as to the image of the brand in that specific category. At the same time, this may have decreased the generalizability of the findings. Brands vary in their portfolio width, and single product brands may be more an exception than the rule. It is possible that single product brands cannot as easily develop products in new product categories because consumers have a fixed idea of the product that the brand stands for (Dacin & Smith, 1994; DelVecchio, 2000; Meyvis & Janiszewski, 2004). However, this is unlikely as new-product-product-fit did not affect the evaluation of the new product in the present study. Thus, even for single product brands it was not a problem if the new product did not fit with the product categories of the parent brands.

Unfortunately, no conclusions can be drawn about the effect of a difference in new-product-product-fit between the brands on new product evaluation. The reason for this is a lack of reliability in the measurement of this difference score. Therefore, future research may benefit from the inclusion of direct estimates of the difference in fit to the new co-branded product between the two brands (e.g., “do you think the product fits better with brand X or with brand Y?”).

The finding that consumers evaluate a new co-branded product more positively when there is a difference in fit with the parent brands at the brand image level suggests that brand relations in co-branding need not be symmetrical. Contrary to recent suggestions in the strategic marketing literature that equal partnerships in co-branding are more easily organized and sustained (Prince & Davies, 2002; Rao & Ruekert, 1994), from a consumer perspective, a dominant contribution of one of the brand images to the new product is preferred. Dominance issues are likely to play a role when companies choose a co-branding partner. Therefore, it would be interesting to study these dominance issues in terms of how consumers react to asymmetry in the co-branding relationship.

4.2.3 Managerial Implications

The present chapter provided an overview of the aspects related to fit that a consumer takes into account when evaluating a new co-branded product and each of these fit measures may be important for management to consider. How important fit actually is in relation to other aspects of a product launch is shown by Völckner and Sattler (2006) who found that fit was the most important determinant of brand extension success.

Previous literature suggested that brand alliances are best organized and sustained in an equal partnership (Prince & Davies, 2002; Rao & Ruekert, 1994). However, the present model suggests that consumers prefer new co-branded products when one of the brands has a dominant contribution at the brand image level. A solution in this case could be that the partner brands evaluate for each new product which of the brands should dominate the brand image, and which company could best play the role of the ‘helper’ brand. The brand alliance could then be sustained by the principle that ‘scratching each other’s back’ is most effective when both partners take their turn.

Chapter 5 will discuss three studies that focus on this topic. First, a qualitative study (study 4) explores whether consumers perceive one brand being dominant, and if so, what the possible causes of dominance are. Second, study 5 examines the two main causes of dominance derived from study 4, being brand salience and category relatedness of the new product to the former products of each brand. Finally, study 6 focuses on the influence of the order of the brand names and the product’s visual design on perceptions of dominance.

5 DOMINANCE AND NEW CO-BRANDED PRODUCT EVALUATION

Chapter 4 showed that consumers prefer a co-branded product in which the parent brands fit the new product at the brand image level (i.e., consumers prefer a co-branded product when there is high new-product-brand-fit). It also showed that consumers prefer a co-branded product in which one parent brand fits the new product better than the other at the brand image level (i.e., consumers prefer a co-branded product when there is a difference in new-product-brand-fit). The influence of a difference in new-product-brand-fit is an indication of the existence of perceived brand dominance and its effect on new product evaluation. The consumer perception of a new product is an interesting variable to investigate in itself (Wedel and Pieters, 2008), because when brands are better aware of what causes perceived brand dominance, they may act upon it by adjusting their new product's design and/or introduction strategy.

The present chapter will investigate the existence of dominance and its influence on new product evaluation in more detail. First, this chapter will explore whether consumers perceive the same possible causes of dominance as were derived from the literature (see Table 3.1) through a qualitative study (study 4). Furthermore, this qualitative study investigates which causes of dominance are most relevant from the perspective of consumers. Following study 4, studies 5 and 6 manipulate the most relevant causes of perceived dominance and investigate their influence on new product evaluation.

5.1 STUDY 4: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE POTENTIAL CAUSES OF PERCEIVED BRAND DOMINANCE

By observing existing examples of co-branded products on the market (see Chapter 2) and by examining the literature (see Chapter 3) it became apparent that consumers often perceive one brand as dominant in a co-branding alliance. It is relevant to know more about consumer perceptions of dominance within a co-branded product because perceived brand dominance may influence the consumers' new product evaluation. In addition, when brands are more aware of the causes of dominance they may act upon them, for example, by adapting contract agreements or by adjusting the new product's introduction strategy. Most causes of dominance identified in the literature on branding and the perception and processing of unbranded objects have not yet been studied in relation to co-branded products. This makes it difficult to identify which causes of dominance are most relevant for co-branding. Therefore, an exploratory study was conducted to identify the perceived causes of dominance in co-branded products. This study helped to form a better idea about why consumers consider one brand to be more important. The present study is also a first attempt to investigate which causes of dominance are most relevant from the perspective of consumers. The results from this study can thus be used for future empirical research on perceived brand dominance, and co-branded product evaluation.

5.1.1 Method Study 4

Sample and Procedure

The present study confronted forty-eight Dutch participants (M_{age} = 26; 40% female; 58% students) with six different co-branded products through a booklet. The majority of the participants were approached at the Delft University of Technology. All participants cooperated on a voluntary basis. Each page of the booklet displayed a picture and a short description of a co-branded product followed by two questions related to each product. First, the participants were asked to indicate which brand they associated more with the product on a nominal scale with three different values (i.e., "I associate brand A more with the new product"; "I associate brand B more with the new product"; "I associate both brands with the new product")(adapted from Park, et al., 1996). This question was followed by an open-ended question to motivate their choice.

The booklet contained six different products. To avoid potential order-effects, twelve versions of the questionnaire were prepared that differed in terms of product-order. At the end of the booklet, the participants indicated their level of familiarity with each brand on a single item seven-point scale in order to control for the effect of brand familiarity on perceived brand dominance. Finally, the participants provided their age, gender and occupation. The average completion time of the booklet was 15 to 20 minutes. See Table 5.1 for a summary of the sample characteristics.

Table 5.1: Study 4 Summary of sample characteristics

Age		**Gender**		**Occupation**	
Mean	26 years	Male	60%	Student	58%
Range	18 – 62 years	Female	40%	Non-student	42%

Stimulus Development

The database presented in study 2 (see paragraph 2.2 and AppendixA.II) was used as the starting point to select appropriate stimuli. The chosen stimuli differed on several aspects to facilitate the collection of data with sufficient variance. These aspects were type of product (durable vs. fast moving), familiarity with the co-branded product (low vs. highly familiar products), and familiarity with each of the brands involved in the co-branded product (low vs. high difference in familiarity between the two brands). These aspects were chosen deliberately because consumers respond differently to a familiar product or brand than to an unfamiliar product or brand (Rao, et al., 1999; Simonin & Ruth, 1998; Warlop, et al., 2005).

From the database six co-branded products were selected of which four were available on the Dutch market (i.e., a refrigerated coffee with milk by Douwe Egberts and Campina, an ice-cream with chocolate by McDonald's and M&M's, a shaving device with moisturizing emulsion by Philips and Nivea, and a draught beer system for home use by Heineken and Krups), and two were not available on the Dutch market (i.e., a can of low-fat baked beans by Weight Watchers and Heinz, available in the United Kingdom, and an ultrasonic stain remover by Black & Decker and Tide, available in the United States). The products that were currently available on the Dutch market were considered familiar products, while the products that were not available on the Dutch market were considered unfamiliar products. Two brand experts judged initial familiarity of the brands that had introduced the products. The booklet tested the respondents' familiarity with each of the brands to verify the experts' judgments. Appendix A.VII provides an overview of the six products and their brands.

Analysis of the Qualitative Data

Forty-eight participants evaluated the six co-branded products. Twenty-two responses were left blank and thus provided no motivation for perceived dominance. Some participants mentioned several reasons for perceived dominance. The total number of mentioned causes for perceived dominance is 309. In order to analyse the answers to the open-ended questions, all reasons were copied onto small square cards. The centre of each card showed a response to the open-ended question and each corner of the card provided background information for this answer (i.e., evaluated product, perceived dominant brand, questionnaire- and participant identification, and the age and gender of the participant). Organizing the data onto these cards facilitated the analysis of the data because the cards could be grouped according to different criteria (e.g., per product, per perceived cause of dominance, etc.).

5.1.2 Results Study 4

Manipulation Check

As expected, a division could be made between familiar and unfamiliar brands: Tide, Weight Watchers and Krups were unfamiliar to the participants (means between 1.8 – 3.5; one sample t-test with test value of 4; all t's < -2.03, $p < .05$), while all other brands were highly familiar (means between 5.6 – 6.7; one sample t-test with test value of 4; all t's > 7.77, $p < .001$).

Main Results

About 82% of the evaluations indicated one brand to be dominant (i.e., associated either brand A or brand B more with the new product), whereas 18% did not indicate any dominance (i.e., associated both brands with the new product). The number of evaluations that indicated a dominant brand differed significantly from the number of evaluations that did not indicate a dominant brand ($\chi^2 = 113.10$, $p < .001$). These percentages did not differ significantly across the six products (range 72% – 88%). In addition, there was no significant difference between durable (86%) and fast moving products (78%), or between familiar (80%) and unfamiliar (85%) products,

Memory-based causes of dominance	Percentage[d]
Difference in brand salience[a]	12.7%
Difference in familiarity between the brands[b]	8.5%
Difference in production ability of the brands	7.6%
Difference in the fit between the associations of each brand and the new product[a]	3.3%

Table 5.2: Study 4 Overview of memory- and stimulus-based causes of dominance mentioned by the participants

Stimulus-based causes of dominance	Percentage[d]
Distribution channel and store display	6.6%
Brand order[a, b]	0%
Product properties[a]:	
I. category relatedness	22.0%
II. visual similarity	21.8%
Promotion during introduction[c]	5.1%

[a] *These causes of dominance are studied in this thesis.*
[b] *These causes of dominance have previously been studied in relation to co-branding.*
[c] *This cause of dominance is derived from study 4 and not discussed in Chapter 3.*
[d] *The percentages reflect how often the participants of study 4 have mentioned this aspect as a possible cause of perceived brand dominance.*

indicating that the type of product or the familiarity with the product did not influence perceptions of dominance.

Analysis of the provided reasons for perceived dominance revealed seven different reasons that were mentioned more than 16 times (5%). These seven different reasons covered 78% of all the provided answers, and thus reflect the most relevant causes. Table 5.2 provides a summary of the main causes of perceived dominance. The participants of the present study mentioned five out of seven causes for perceived dominance discussed in Chapter 3 and an additional cause for perceived dominance that was not discussed in Chapter 3.

The main reason for perceived dominance mentioned by the participants was the relatedness between the visual design of the new product and the existing products of one of the brands (i.e., whether the new product looked more like the existing products of one of the brands (mentioned 73 times, 22.0%). Several respondents explicitly mentioned the logo size and -position as a cause for perceived brand dominance (mentioned 21 times, 6.3%). An interesting quote by one of the participants underlines the relevance of the visual design of the new product. She stated that both Douwe Egberts and Campina were equally associated with the refrigerated coffee with milk because "the bottom of the package looks like Campina while the top is typically Douwe Egberts" (stated by participant #3-8). Visual design was mentioned as a cause of dominance about as often for those products that were branded with two brands with a low difference in familiarity (17.0%) as for those products that were branded with two brands with a high difference in familiarity (14.5%). The percentages indicate that a difference in visual design similarity and a difference in brand familiarity are two different causes of dominance.

A second reason for perceived dominance mentioned by the participants was the higher category relatedness between the new product and existing products of one of the brands (i.e., whether the new product belonged to a product category associated with one of the brands based on the product's function; mentioned 72 times, 21.8%). This was especially relevant for two of the three durable products (i.e., the shaving device with moisturizing emulsion by Philips and Nivea (28.3%), and the draught beer system for home use by Heineken and Krups (26.8%)) and one FMCG (i.e., the refrigerated coffee with milk by Douwe Egberts and Campina (35.8%)). The following quotes illustrate this cause of perceived dominance: "the beer is more important, I don't think people are interested in the machine itself" (about the draught beer system for home use by Heineken and Krups, stated by participant #5-32), and "it is coffee with some milk and not milk with some coffee" (about the refrigerated coffee with milk by Douwe Egberts and Campina, stated by participant #10-41). Higher category relatedness was mentioned as a cause of dominance equally often for those products that were branded with two brands with a high difference in familiarity (22.9%) as for those products that were branded with two brands with a low difference in familiarity (20.6%), indicating that these possible causes of dominance are unrelated.

A third reason for perceived dominance mentioned by the participants was the higher salience of one of the brands in relation to the new co-branded product (i.e., whether one of the brands was immediately associated with a specific product category related to the new product; mentioned 42 times, 12.7%). Examples are the strong association between Philips and the shaving device category (quote: "when I think of a shaving device, the first brand that comes up is Philips", stated by participant #5-30), and between Heineken and the beer category (quote: "when I see beer I think of Heineken", stated by participant #10-41). Higher salience of one of the brands was mentioned as a cause of dominance more often for those products that were branded with two brands with a high difference in familiarity (14.5%) than for those products that were branded with two brands with a low difference in familiarity (10.9%), indicating that familiarity is related to brand salience.

A fourth reason for perceived dominance mentioned by the participants was a difference in familiarity between the two brands (mentioned 28 times, 8.5%). Not surprisingly participants mentioned this particular reason for dominance more often when a co-branded product was introduced by two brands with a high difference in familiarity (15%) than when a co-branded product was introduced by two brands with a low difference in familiarity (2%; $\chi^2 = 9.94$, $p < .01$).

Other reasons for perceived dominance mentioned by the participants were the production ability of the brands (i.e., whether the participants believed one of the brands to be better capable to produce the new product; mentioned 25 times, 7.6%), the chosen distribution channel for the new product (mentioned 22 times, 6.6%), and the promotion surrounding the introduction of the new product (mentioned 17 times, 5.1%). The chosen distribution channel for the new product only influenced perceptions of dominance for the ice-cream with chocolate by McDonald's and M&M's. The main reason for this finding was that participants perceived McDonalds as a brand that in essence also was the distribution channel. The promotion surrounding the introduction of the new product as a possible cause of dominance is related to which brand received the most attention during the introduction campaign (quote about the draught beer system for home use by Heineken and Krups, "that is how it was put into the market, as the Heineken Beertender", stated by participant #6-3).

5.1.3 Discussion Study 4

The participants of study 4 mentioned five out of the seven possible causes of dominance displayed in Table 3.1. One additional cause of dominance mentioned by the participants was not part of paragraph 3.5, being the influence of the promotion surrounding the introduction of the new product on perceived brand dominance. That promotion can influence the salience of particular product attributes (including the brand) and can thus be a possible cause of dominance is supported by a study by MacInnis, Nakamoto and Mani (1992). They showed that the promotion surrounding a single branded new product can influence whether consumers perceive similarities or differences between the current products of that brand and the new product, by making certain properties of the new product more (or less) salient.

The participants of study 4 did not mention two possible causes of dominance displayed in Table 3.1 (i.e., the order of the brand names) or only infrequently (i.e., a difference in new-product-brand-fit, mentioned 3.3% of the time). A possible explanation is that the order of the brand names has an implicit influence on perceptions of dominance, and consumers may not realize that the order of the brands influenced their perceptions of dominance. It is surprising that consumers rarely mentioned a difference in new-product-brand-fit as a potential reason for perceived dominance. One explanation is that consumers consider the brands used in this study to be functional brands because relatedness between the new product and the existing products of the brand is considered more important for functional brands than whether the new product accommodates the brand's image (Park, et al., 1991). Another explanation is that consumers prefer to provide reasons for their choices that are plausible and/or easy to verbalize (Wilson & Schooler, 1991). It is possible that consumers do not consider the brand's image to be a plausible explanation for perceived brand dominance as a brand's image is an abstract entity. They may also have difficulties verbalizing this possible reason for perceived brand dominance because a brand's image is difficult to describe due to its abstractness.

The main reasons for perceived brand dominance mentioned in the present study are the relatedness between the visual design of the new product and the existing products of one of the brands, and the higher perceived category relatedness between the new product and the products of one of the brands. Thus, participants mentioned two stimulus-based fit measures that relate to a difference in new-product-product-fit (as examined in study 3). Each of these aspects focus on the relationships between two brands and their existing product categories, and the specific new product that has been developed. Nevertheless, they are not identical. A difference in new-product-product-fit refers to whether the new product complements the existing products of each of the brands. In contrast, a difference in visual design similarity and category relatedness refers to whether the new product is similar to the visual design or function of the existing products of each of the brands.

Several studies have shown that the properties of a new single-branded product may influence how consumers fit this new product to the current product category of the brand, and that this fit influences how consumers perceive and evaluate the new product (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Bottomley & Holden, 2001; Boush & Loken, 1991; Dacin & Smith, 1994; Park, et al., 1991; Völckner & Sattler, 2006). Thus, each of these aspects may influence the consumers' evaluation of a co-branded new product. Study 3 aimed to examine the influence of a difference in new-product-product-fit on the consumer evaluation of a new co-branded product, but it was not able to do so because the used measure was unreliable. Study 4 showed that category relatedness and visual design similarity are more important causes of perceived brand dominance than new-product-product-fit. Thus, these product properties deserve further investigation. For this reason, both study 5 and 6 explore the effect of these product-specific causes of perceived brand dominance on new product evaluation in order to extend the findings of study 3. Besides a difference in category relatedness, study 5 also examines, another cause of perceived dominance determined in study 4 (being a difference in brand salience). Similarly, study 6 examines brand order next to a difference in visual design similarity.

5.2 STUDY 5: THE IMPACT OF BRAND SALIENCE AND CATEGORY RELATEDNESS ON PERCEIVED BRAND DOMINANCE AND NEW CO-BRANDED PRODUCT EVALUATION

Study 5 examines the impact of a difference in brand salience and a difference in category relatedness on perceived brand dominance, because these are two of the most relevant causes of perceived dominance (see study 4). Perceived brand dominance helps consumers to interpret a new co-branded product. Therefore, this study also investigates whether consumers evaluate a new co-branded product better when both causes of perceived dominance signal to the same dominant brand.

5.2.1 Hypotheses Study 5

Brand salience is the accessibility of a brand and its associations in memory (Alba & Chattopadhyay, 1986; Romaniuk & Sharp, 2004). A brand with strong salience is prominent over other brands (Guido, 1998; Romaniuk & Sharp, 2004). When a brand has strong salience, the brand is classified faster, recognized sooner, and it is the first brand recalled when the category related to that brand is activated (Herr, et al., 1996). Thus, consumers are better able to associate such a brand with a certain product category (Aaker, 1991; Morrin, 1999). In addition, the brand with stronger salience acts as a retrieval cue that activates a network of associations related to that brand or its product category (Romaniuk & Sharp, 2004). Perceived brand dominance is a reflection of the presence of more associations of one of the brands in the schema of the co-branded product (see paragraph 3.4). Because associations linked to a salient brand are easily retrieved from memory (Herr, et al., 1996), it is probable that more associations linked to this brand will become part of the schema of the co-branded product and consumers will thus perceive this brand as the dominant brand. Therefore, the present study proposes that consumers are more likely to perceive the brand with stronger salience as the dominant brand.

> **H1:** When one of the brands has strong brand salience and the other brand has weak brand salience, consumers will consider the former brand to be the dominant brand.

Besides a difference in brand salience, a difference in category relatedness is also expected to influence perceived brand dominance. Category relatedness in the present study focuses on the relation between the new product and the existing products of a brand based on the functional properties of the new product (e.g., whether both the new product and the existing products of a brand are cleaning detergents). This relationship between the new product and the existing products of the brands is determined via a categorization process in which the consumer assesses the extent to which the new product exemplifies a general concept by comparing properties of the existing products of both brands with those of the new product (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Park, et al., 1991). The relatedness between the functional product properties of the new product and an existing product of one of the brands is comparable to the construct of "new-product-product-fit" used in study 3 (see paragraph 4.1.1). However, new-product-product-fit as measured in study 3 is based on a complementary fit between each brand's portfolio and the new product (e.g., a bicycle seat for children complements a bicycle), and not on the category relatedness between a particular product category and the new product (e.g., a bicycle seat for children is similar to a bicycle).

If the functional properties of a new co-branded product are more related to existing products of one of the brands, consumers are likely to assimilate the new product into the category of that brand and augment and refine this category by importing associations from the other brand (Murphy, 1988). The conceptual combination that consumers thus create of the new product is likely to contain relatively more associations from the brand of which an existing product shares more functional properties with the new co-branded product. Thus, that brand is more likely to be the dominant brand.

> **H2:** When a co-branded product has high category relatedness with the product category of one of the brands and low category relatedness with the product category of the other brand, consumers will consider the former brand to be the dominant brand.

Previous research has shown that consumers evaluate a new product better when it is clear to which category it belongs (Fiske, 1982; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). Several brand extension studies have found that a new product that fits the current products of a brand will also be evaluated more positively (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Bottomley & Holden, 2001; Boush & Loken, 1991; Park, et al., 1991). However, if consumers are not able to categorize the new product unambiguously, consumers may miss a clear category in which they can place the new co-branded product (Bowdle & Gentner, 1997). Consequently, they may piece together their evaluation and create a new schema for the new product altogether (see paragraph 3.4). As difficulty in interpreting a new product generally lowers product evaluation, consumers will evaluate a new co-branded product less positively when it has no dominant brand. The present study hypothesizes that both a difference in brand salience (H1) and a difference in category relatedness (H2) may influence perceived brand dominance. Following this rationale, it is to be expected that consumers evaluate a co-branded product with more category relatedness with the existing products of one of the brands more positively when this brand is also the most salient brand. This better evaluation is a consequence of the fact that both causes of perceived brand dominance are in accordance (i.e., when the consumer perceives the new product, both category relatedness and brand salience represent the same brand as the head concept).

Consumers will probably evaluate a new product less positively when they perceive both causes of brand dominance to be in conflict. For example, a new co-branded product may have more category relatedness with the existing products of one of the brands and less category relatedness with the existing products of the other brand. When the latter brand is the most salient brand, the two possible causes of perceived brand dominance both represent a different dominant brand. Hence, consumers may have difficulties to interpret the new co-branded product unambiguously because they cannot easily identify a dominant brand, and will probably evaluate a new product less positively. Thus, this study proposes:

> **H3:** A co-branded product with more category relatedness with the existing products of one of the brands is evaluated better when this brand is the most salient brand than when it is the least salient brand.

The possible mediating effect of perceived brand dominance on the relationship between the examined causes of dominance and new product evaluation is an interesting effect to examine. However, the design of this study does not allow us to formulate a hypothesis on this possible effect. The formulation of a hypothesis is impractible because there is no condition in which no brand is dominant, which makes it impossible to examine whether consumers evaluate a co-branded product with a dominant brand better than a co-branded product with no dominant brand. Furthermore, the creation of such a condition is difficult as consumers prefer to categorize a new co-branded product in a single product category even when it resembles two categories because this requires the least cognitive effort (Sääksjärvi & Bouten, 2009; Wisniewski, 1997).

5.2.2 Method Study 5

Design

To be able to examine these effects, study 5 is an experiment with two new products introduced by two different sets of parent brands that varied in brand salience and category relatedness between the brands. The experiment used a two (salience in athletic shoes category: weak (Puma)/strong (Nike)) by two (salience in computer category: weak (Toshiba)/strong (Dell)) by two (category relatedness of co-branded product close to athletic shoes (Smart shoe)/close to personal computers category (Virtual Reality (VR) goggles)) between subjects design.

Sample and Procedure

The sample consisted of 240 participants between the age of 18 and 35 years (M_{age} = 21; 49.6% female). The participants were recruited on the campuses of the Erasmus University Rotterdam and the Delft University of Technology.

The participants were given a booklet. Each booklet started with an introduction to the study followed by a description of a new co-branded product. Next, participants answered the questions that measured new product evaluation and perceived brand dominance, followed by several manipulation checks. Finally, participants answered a series of control variables (see below).

Stimulus Development

Three pre-tests and a brainstorming session were conducted to determine appropriate brands and new products. To be considered an appropriate brand, it had to fulfill two criteria. First, a brand needed to have either strong or weak brand salience. Second, the brands that formed a hypothetical partnership needed to be equally familiar and liked by consumers to prevent a difference in brand familiarity and liking confounding the results. The first pre-test determined the brand salience of a diverse set of brands by asking twenty-eight participants to recall brand names related to twelve different product categories (see Appendix A.VIII for an overview of the product categories). Each participant recalled brand names in twelve different product categories to make sure that an adequate number of different brands and brand combinations could be determined for the second and third pre-test. By taking both the frequency with which each brand was mentioned and the order in which each brand was listed into consideration (Fazio, Williams, & Powell, 2000; Romaniuk & Sharp, 2004), up to three brands with strong brand salience and three brands with weak brand salience within eight different product categories were selected. Four product categories were dropped either because participants mentioned a too large or a too small set of different brands to make a sensible choice among the brands or because the product category was misinterpreted (e.g., a camera was interpreted by some participants as a photo camera while others thought of a video camera which led to different brands being mentioned). A brand was considered to have strong brand salience when it was mentioned by at least half the participants and weak brand salience when less than half the participants mentioned the brand (Ashcraft, 1978). The brands with strong brand salience chosen for the main study had the highest score with regard to brand salience and the brands with weak brand salience had the lowest score, while all the brands were equally familiar and appreciated.

The second pre-test confronted sixty participants with a set of forty-four brands derived from the first pre-test (see Appendix A.IX for the brands). The participants indicated whether they had heard of the brand and whether they liked the brand on two single item seven-point scales. The results showed that seventeen of the forty-four brands were equally familiar and appreciated.

To identify products that would be suitable, a brainstorming session with a team of five design students was conducted. The purpose of the brainstorming session was to find new product ideas that were not currently on the market to prevent familiarity effects from confounding the results. In addition, the new products had to be suitable for the brands that were determined in the first two pre-tests, and should combine the properties of two distinct product categories in a single product offering. The brainstorming session resulted in five new product ideas that combined the athletic shoes and the personal computer categories (i.e., a diving suit with special sensors, a bicycle with a device for health monitoring, a snowboard with GPS system, a smart shoe, and Virtual Reality goggles).

The new products combined two functions, but it was necessary that participants perceived the main function of the new product to be more related to one of the products in order to create different levels of category relatedness. Thus, the third pre-test examined whether the new products were more related to either the athletic shoes or the personal computer category. Study 3 used a difference score that was found to be unreliable. As a result, study 3 suggested that future research might benefit from the inclusion of direct estimates of the difference in fit of the new co-branded product with the two brands. The same may apply to the measurement of the difference score of category relatedness. The difference in category relatedness can be calculated by subtracting the category relatedness of the new product to the athletic shoes category from the category relatedness of the new product to the personal computer category, or by measuring the difference score directly. To test whether both measures for a difference in category relatedness measure the same construct, the present study used both indirect (i.e., calculated) and direct (i.e., measured) estimates of the difference in category relatedness for this pre-test and for the manipulation check in the main study.

Thirty-five participants answered two single item seven-point scales to measure category relatedness between each product category and the new product indirectly ("this product is related to athletic shoes category/personal computers category") (Herr, et al., 1996), and a seven-point single item on the direct difference in category relatedness between each product category and the new product ("is this product more related to the athletic shoes or to the personal computer category?"; -3 = "athletic shoes" and 3 = "personal computers").

By combining the results from these three pre-tests, two new co-branded products with two different sets of brands were selected. The two new products were a) athletic footwear with a microprocessor that captures the user's physical activity (i.e., the smart shoe), and b) goggles that provide a virtual reality training environment (i.e., the VR goggles) introduced by either Nike and Dell, Nike and Toshiba, Puma and Dell, or Puma and Toshiba (see Appendix A.X for a description of the products). Participants of the third pre-test indicated that the VR goggles were more related to the personal computer category (M = 4.9) than to the athletic shoes category (M = 2.7, t(34) = 5.16, p < .001), while the smart shoe was more related to the athletic shoes category (M = 6.0) than to the personal computer category (M = 3.5, t(34) = 6.64, p < .001). In addition, one-sample t-tests were conducted against the mean of the direct difference in the category relatedness scale. The results confirmed that VR goggles were more related to the personal computer category (M = 1.1, t(34) = 4.70, p < .001), while the smart shoe was more related to the athletic shoes category (M = -1.2, t(34) = 4.53, p < .001).

Measures

Most items were measured on seven-point rating scales (1 = "totally disagree" and 7 = "totally agree"), except for the direct items for the difference in category relatedness (-3 = "athletic shoes" and 3 = "personal computers"). Perceived dominance was measured with a seven-point single item similar to the one used in study 4. This item was derived from Park, et al. (1996): "[Brand 1] is more associated with the product than [brand 2]." The variable of perceived dominance should be interpreted as follows: Those participants who rated a '4' (the mid-point on a 7-point scale) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement that "[brand 1] is more associated with the product than [brand 2]", and thus did not perceive a dominant brand. All other scores indicated that one brand was more associated with the new product than the other brand. In order to assess if dominance influenced evaluation, the questionnaire also measured product evaluation with a two item seven-point point scale that assessed the degree to which the new product was seen as good, and whether the participant felt positive toward the new product (Simonin & Ruth, 1998).

Both brand salience and category relatedness were measured as manipulation checks. Brand salience was measured with four items ("[Brand 1/brand 2] represents the standard of the athletic shoes/personal computer category"; "When I think of the athletic shoes/personal computer category, I think of [brand 1/brand 2]"; "[Brand 1/ brand 2] is dominant within the athletic shoes/personal computer category"; "[Brand 1/brand 2] is a good example of the athletic shoes/personal computer category"). This measure of brand salience differed from the one used in the pre-test, because participants were presented with an advertisement with two visible brand names. Hence, brand salience could not be measured through brand recall. The indirect difference in category relatedness was measured with the same items as were used in the pre-test. The direct difference in category relatedness was measured with three items ("Is this product more related to the athletic shoes/personal computer category?"; "Is this product more consistent with athletic shoes/personal computers?"; "Is this product more similar to products from the athletic shoes/personal computer category?"). The last two items were adapted from Aaker and Keller (1990), Broniarczyk and Alba (1994), Ahluwalia and Gurhan-Canli (2000) and John, Loken and Joiner (1998).

Finally, the present study measured several control variables because study 3 (see paragraph 4.1.2) and previous studies on co-branding have also controlled for these variables. Familiarity and prior affect towards the brands were measured with the same items as were used in the second pre-test. Product-product-fit (i.e., "Athletic shoes and personal computers fit each other"), brand-brand-fit (i.e., "[Brand 1] and [brand 2] fit each other"), and "new-product-brand-fit" (i.e., "[Brand 1/brand 2] fits new product") were each measured with a single item based on Bhat and Reddy (2001). In addition, the difference in new-product-brand-fit (i.e., which of the two brands fitted the new product better) was measured because study 3 showed that this variable may influence evaluation of the new co-branded product. A single item (i.e., "This product fits more with [brand 1] than [brand 2]") directly measured the variable.

Measure Validation

Separate exploratory factor analyses were conducted on the items for the two multi-item scales (i.e., the difference in brand salience and category relatedness). In both cases, all items loaded on a single factor. Reliability analysis of the scales showed that the Cronbach's alpha of each construct was above .79. The scales for the difference in brand salience and category relatedness were formed by using the means of the items that were part of each construct.

The present study used both direct (i.e., measured) and indirect (i.e., calculated) estimates of the difference in fit of the new co-branded product with the two brands (i.e., direct vs. indirect new-product-brand-fit) and the difference in category relatedness. The correlations between the direct and the indirect measure of a difference in new-product-brand-fit ($r = .61$, $p < .001$) and the direct and the indirect measure of a difference in category relatedness ($r = .58$, $p < .001$) were positive and significant. Although the correlations indicated a significant relationship between the direct and indirect measures, the explained variance is below fifty percent (i.e., both $r^2 < .38$).

Based on these levels of explained variance, it is difficult to state whether the variables measured the same construct. Therefore, the present study will retain both the direct and indirect measures of the difference in new-product-brand-fit and the difference in category relatedness in the analyses.

5.2.3 Results Study 5

Manipulation Checks and Control Variables

Brand salience of the brands in the athletic shoe category (Cronbach's alpha = .82) and in the personal computer category (Cronbach's alpha = .79) differed as expected between the weak-strong brand combinations ($M_{strong\ –\ Nike}$ = 5.4, $M_{weak\ -\ Toshiba}$ = 3.7; paired t-test t(59) = 8.97, p < .001; $M_{weak\ –\ Puma}$ = 4.1, $M_{strong\ –\ Dell}$= 4.8; paired t-test t(59) = 4.88, p < .001), creating brand combinations with a high difference in brand salience. Brand salience did not differ between the weak-weak brand combination ($M_{weak\ –\ Puma}$ = 4.4, $M_{weak\ -\ Toshiba}$ = 4.1; paired t-test t(59) = 1.33, *ns*), creating a brand combination with a low difference in brand salience. However, there was an unexpected difference between the strong-strong brand combination ($M_{strong\ –\ Nike}$ = 5.4, $M_{strong\ –\ Dell}$ = 4.6; paired t-test t(59) = 8.15, p < .001): Nike is more salient in its category than Dell. Thus, in contrast to the results of the pre-test, the manipulation of brand salience partially had failed.

The two indirect measures of the difference in category relatedness showed that the smart shoe was stronger related to athletic shoes than to personal computers ($M_{athletic\ shoes}$ = 5.1, $M_{personal\ computers}$ = 3.4; paired t-test t(119) = 10.04, p < .001), while the opposite applied to the VR goggles ($M_{athletic\ shoes}$ = 3.9, $M_{personal\ computers}$ = 4.4; paired t-test t(119) = 2.56, p < .01). The direct measure (Cronbach's alpha = .86) provided similar results ($M_{smart\ shoe}$ = -.86, $M_{VR\ goggles}$ = .56; t(238) = 8.76, p < .001). Although the VR goggles appear to be stronger related to personal computers than to athletic shoes in the main test, the difference is smaller than the difference found in the third pre-test. A possible explanation may be that there were no brands present in the pre-test. However, overall, the manipulation of the difference in category relatedness was successful.

All brands were highly familiar and positively evaluated (means between 4.4 and 6.9; one sample t-test with test value of 4, all t > 3.22, p < .01). However, in contrast to the results of the pre-tests, the athletic shoe brands were more familiar and more positively evaluated than the personal computer brands (paired t-tests: $t_{familiarity}$(240) = 3.55, p < .001; $t_{prior\ affect}$(240) = 5.34, p < .001). See Table 5.3 for an overview of the stimuli.

Main Results

A difference in brand salience did not influence perceptions of dominance (F(3, 240) = 1.64, *ns*). Comparing the two conditions in which there was a clear difference in brand salience between the brands provided similar results: Participants in the weak athletic shoes brand/strong personal computer brand condition (M = 4.3) perceived a similar level of brand dominance as participants in the strong athletic shoes brand/weak personal computer brand condition (M = 4.2; t(118) < 1, *ns*). Therefore, H1 is rejected.

Table 5.3: Study 5 Stimuli

	Athletic shoe category	Personal computer category
Category relatedness	$M_{VR\ goggles} = 3.9$; $M_{Smart\ Shoe} = 5.1$	$M_{VR\ goggles} = 4.4$; $M_{Smart\ Shoe} = 3.4$
Strong salient brand	Nike $M_{familiar} = 6.9$, $M_{p.affect} = 5.5$	Dell $M_{familiar} = 6.7$, $M_{p.affect} = 4.9$
Weak salient brand	Puma $M_{familiar} = 6.7$, $M_{p.affect} = 5.0$	Toshiba $M_{familiar} = 6.6$, $M_{p.affect} = 4.4$

A difference in category relatedness between the new co-branded product and the existing products of one of the brands influenced perceptions of brand dominance. The athletic shoes brand (the personal computer brand) was perceived as the dominant brand when the new co-branded product was a smart shoe (VR goggles) ($F(1, 240) = 11.06$, $p < .01$). H2 is accepted. Of all the control variables, only the difference in new-product-brand-fit influenced the results. When the direct difference in new-product-brand-fit measure was added ($F(1, 240) = 23.27$, $p < .001$), the difference in category relatedness between the new co-branded product and the existing products of one of the brands no longer influenced perceptions of dominance ($F(1, 240) = 1.42$, *ns*).[1]

In contrast to our expectations, the interaction effect between a difference in brand salience and category relatedness was not significant ($F(3, 239) < 1$, *ns*). H3 is rejected. In addition, a difference in brand salience did not influence new product evaluation directly ($F(3, 239) < 1$, *ns*). Participants in the weak athletic shoes brand/ strong personal computer brand condition ($M = 4.9$) liked the new product just as well as participants in the strong athletic shoes brand/weak personal computer brand condition ($M = 4.8$). A difference in category relatedness also did not influence new product evaluation ($F(1, 239) < 1$, *ns*). When the control variables were added, both product-product-fit ($F(1, 239) = 27.85$, $p < .001$), and new-product-brand-fit ($F(1, 239) = 10.58$, $p < .001$) influenced new product evaluation.

Although no formal hypothesis was formulated to examine the relationship between dominance and new product evaluation, this relationship may still be investigated. To check if consumers prefer to utilize an interpretation in which one brand acts as the dominant brand (Wisniewski, 1997), the variable of perceived dominance was transformed into a three-level categorical variable (i.e., a score of '4' indicated 'no dominance', a score of '1' or '7' indicated 'clear dominance', all other scores indicated 'possible dominance'). About 21% of the participants did not perceive a dominant brand, whereas 69% found one brand to be possibly dominant. Ten percent of the participants clearly perceived a dominant brand (a score of '1' or '7' on the perceived brand dominance scale). The latter group was compared to the group that did not

[1] When the indirect difference in new-product-brand-fit measure was added ($F(1, 240) = 24.48$, $p < .001$), the difference in category relatedness between the new co-branded product and the existing products of one of the brands had a smaller (but still significant) influence on perceived dominance ($F(1, 240) = 4.05$, $p < .05$).

perceive a dominant brand. The results show that perceived brand dominance did not influence the evaluation of the new product. When participants clearly perceive a dominant brand (M = 4.4) they are not more positive about the new product than when they do not perceive a dominant brand (M = 5.0; t(71) = 1.40, *ns*).[2]

By transforming the variable of perceived brand dominance as above it is not possible to analyze whether it makes a difference *which* brand is perceived to be the dominant brand. Therefore, the variable of perceived dominance was transformed a second time. The new variable was a three level categorical variable (i.e., athletic shoes brand dominant, personal computer brand dominant, no dominance). This categorical variable of perceived brand dominance was used as the independent variable in an ANOVA. Again, perceived brand dominance did not influence the evaluation of the new product (F(2, 238) < 1, *ns*). When the participants perceived a dominant brand ($M_{dominance\ athletic\ shoes\ brand}$ = 4.8, $M_{dominance\ personal\ computer\ brand}$ = 4.7), they evaluated the new product similar as when they did not perceive a dominant brand ($M_{no\ dominance}$ = 5.0).

5.2.4 Discussion Study 5

The main objective of study 5 was to examine whether a difference in brand salience and category relatedness caused one brand to be perceived as dominant over the other brand. In contrast to expectations, a difference in brand salience did not influence perceived brand dominance. If one brand has stronger brand salience than the other brand within a brand combination that brand is not necessarily the dominant brand. A potential explanation for this unexpected finding may be the partially failed manipulation of brand salience. The failed manipulation is attributable to the used procedure. The brand salience of the chosen brands was determined in a pre-test that did not mention the new product or the partner brand, while the main study mentioned these aspects. It is likely that the brand salience of each brand changed due to the use of a different context; the presence of a particular product or second brand may have changed how consumers responded (Alba & Chattopadhyay, 1985; Bridges, et al., 2000). This is illustrated by the fact that the brand salience of Nike was stronger than the brand salience of any of the other brands, including Dell, the computer brand with strong brand salience. A post-test was conducted that revealed a possible explanation for Nike's strong salience: consumers associated Nike with multiple product categories, and therefore Nike was salient in both the athletic shoe and personal computer category.[3] Brand salience is often a consequence of a large

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[2] A score of '3' or '5' may also indicate that consumers do not perceive a dominant brand because these scores are near the mid-point. For this reason, the analysis was conducted again, but this time the group that did not perceive dominance existed of those participants who indicated a score of '3', '4' or '5' while the group that did perceive dominance existed of those participants who indicated a score of '1', '2', '6' or'7'. The results again showed that when participants perceived a dominant brand (M = 4.7) they were not more positive about the new product than when they did not perceive a dominant brand (M = 4.8; t(237) = .63, *ns*).

[3] Twenty participants were asked to what extent they associated the athletic shoe brands with personal computers, using a single-item scale (-3 = "associate more with Nike" and 3 = "associate more with Puma"). A one-sample t-test was run against the mean of the direct association scale. Nike was associated more with computers than Puma (t(19) = -4.87, p < .001). Furthermore, an open-ended question asked participants to state which products each brand sells. According to their responses, Nike was perceived to have a broader range of products than Puma. For example, participants mentioned Nike watches, headphones, and portable media players.

market share and more promotional expenses (Baker, 2003; Reddy, et al., 1994), and a brand with a wide portfolio (such as Nike) is more likely to have both a large market share and more promotional expenses. To summarize, the broader range of products associated with Nike may have confounded the results. Future research can benefit from controlling for perceived portfolio width.

Supporting H2, a difference in category relatedness influenced perceptions of dominance in a co-branded product. A brand is more likely to be the dominant brand when the new product is related to the main product category of that brand. However, this relationship disappeared when a perceived difference in new-product-brand-fit was added as a control variable. A perceived difference in new-product-brand-fit is an additional potential cause of dominance derived from the literature (see paragraph 3.5.1) and has been found to influence the evaluation of a new product (see study 3). Because the effect of the difference in category relatedness on perceived brand dominance disappeared, it is possible that the difference score of new-product-brand-fit acted as a mediator. To examine the potential role of a difference in new-product-brand-fit in mediating the effect of the difference in category relatedness on perceived brand dominance, a mediation analysis was performed using Baron and Kenny's (1986) framework (see Appendix A.XI). The findings of this analysis showed that a difference in new-product-brand-fit mediated the effect of the difference in category relatedness on perceived brand dominance. This mediation effect may result from the fact that new-product-brand-fit is a more abstract or holistic concept than category relatedness. Consumers retrieve brand-specific associations that form new-product-brand-fit from memory (Keller, 1993; Warlop, et al., 2005). Perhaps consumers should perceive some level of category relatedness before they can retrieve these brand-specific associations and perceive abstract fit.

Finally, this study showed that an interaction between a difference in brand salience and a difference in category relatedness had no influence on the evaluation of a new co-branded product. Thus, in contrast to expectations, consumers do not take into account whether there is a match between the two causes of perceived brand dominance when evaluating the new product. In addition, perceived brand dominance had no direct effect on new product evaluation. Consumers do not take into account whether there is a dominant brand when evaluating the new product. Further research is needed to investigate the influence of perceived brand dominance on new product evaluation in more detail. Study 6 will therefore manipulate two other aspects that may influence perceived brand dominance and new product evaluation.

5.3 STUDY 6: THE IMPACT OF BRAND ORDER AND VISUAL DESIGN SIMILARITY ON PERCEIVED BRAND DOMINANCE AND NEW CO-BRANDED PRODUCT EVALUATION[4]

Study 5 found that a difference in category relatedness was a cause of perceived brand dominance but it did not influence new product evaluation. Study 6 will examine whether two other aspects of a new co-branded product (i.e., the order of the brands and the visual design of the product) can cause one brand to be dominant over the other brand. The order of the brands is a cause of dominance that has been studied before (Desai & Keller, 2002; Kumar, 2005; Park, et al., 1996). The visual design of a new product is often similar to that of existing products to help consumers recognize to which brand the new product belongs (Person, et al., 2008). For this reason, the new product's visual design is more likely to reflect the specific brands involved. Study 6 contributes to the existing literature, because it examines the relevance of simultaneously discussing the collaboration between the brands and the perception of the new product by focusing on the influence of brand order and the new product's visual design on new product perception and evaluation.

5.3.1 Hypotheses Study 6

A possible cause of dominance previously studied in relation to co-branded products is the order of the brands (Desai & Keller, 2002; Kumar, 2005; Park, et al., 1996). These studies state that consumers perceive a different dominant brand when the new product is branded by "Douwe Egberts and Philips" than by "Philips and Douwe Egberts." Park et al. (1996) investigated the influence of the order of the brands on consumer perceptions of a co-branded product and found that participants associated the new product more with the brand mentioned last (i.e., the head concept) than the brand mentioned first (i.e., the modifying concept). Thus, consumers perceive the last mentioned brand to be the dominant brand. In line with the findings of Park et al. (1996), this study hypothesizes:

> **H1:** The order of the brands will influence perceptions of dominance; the brand mentioned last is more likely to be the dominant brand.

The visual design of a new product (i.e., visual cues) may influence perceptions of dominance too (see also paragraph 3.5.2 and study 4). The new product itself communicates to consumers to which category it belongs through its visual design (Creusen & Schoormans, 2005; Mooij, 1998; Schroeder & Salzer-Morling, 2006). Person et al. (2008) showed that a new branded product is often introduced with a visual design that is similar to the visual design of the brand's existing products to help consumers recognize the product's origin. However, in general, new co-branded products do not look exactly similar to an existing product of one of the brands, but they often are a modification of that product's visual design. This modification is achieved through the addition of design and/or brand elements of the other brand. Despite

[4] This paragraph is an adapted version of a paper that appeared in the EMAC 2009 proceedings (Bouten, L. M., & Hultink, E. J. (2009). *What you see is what you get?: The influence of visual and textual information on perceived dominance in co-branded products.* Paper presented at the 38th EMAC Conference in Nantes, France).

this modification, one brand may still dominate the visual design of the co-branded product. Support for this notion comes from psychological studies that examined unbranded products that combine functionalities (Gill & Dubé, 2007; Gregan-Paxton, et al., 2005). A co-branded product that resembles the existing products of one of the brands is more likely to have a dominant brand. Thus:

> **H2:** When a co-branded product has many visual design similarities with the existing products of one of the brands and few visual design similarities with the existing products of the other brand, consumers will consider the former brand to be the dominant brand.

As stated before, difficulty in interpreting a new product generally lowers product evaluation (Fiske, 1982; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). Consumers are better able to interpret a new co-branded product that has a dominant brand. Consequently, they will evaluate a new co-branded product more positively when it has a dominant brand. The present study hypothesizes that both the order of the brands (H1) and the new product's visual design (H2) may influence perceived brand dominance. Similar to the rationale used for hypothesis 3 in study 5, it is to be expected that consumers evaluate a co-branded product with many visual similarities with the existing products of one of the brands more positively when this brand is also the last mentioned brand. To illustrate, when consumers perceive a new moisturizing anti-acne face care product that looks like a Nivea tube that is branded by Clearasil and Nivea, consumers may perceive Nivea as dominant based on both the order of the brands and the new product's design. Hence, consumers can easily identify a dominant brand, and will probably evaluate this product more positively. Thus, this study hypothesizes:

> **H3:** A co-branded product with many visual similarities with the existing products of one of the brands is evaluated better when this brand is the last mentioned brand than when it is the first mentioned brand.

Several studies have found that individuals place more weight on verbal cues than on visual cues (e.g., Medin, et al., 1987; Yamauchi & Markman, 2000), while other studies found the opposite effect (e.g., Gregan-Paxton, et al., 2005; Matan & Carey, 2001). Thus, it could be that only one of the before mentioned causes of perceived dominance will be influential and may mitigate the effect of the other cause of perceived dominance. For this reason, it is difficult to hypothesize the exact direction and strength of the possible interaction effect between brand order and a difference in visual similarity on new product evaluation.

Finally, just as in study 5, the design of this study does not allow us to formulate a formal hypothesis on the possible mediating effect of perceived brand dominance, although it is still an interesting effect to examine.

5.3.2 Method Study 6

Design

An experiment was set up with a two (brand order: Clearasil or Nivea mentioned last) by two (visual design similarity: new product's design more similar to Clearasil or more similar to Nivea) between subjects design. Based on this design four different advertisements for a new product were created. The new product was a new co-branded moisturizing acne-control face-wash that combined the attributes of moisturizers (Nivea) and acne-control products (Clearasil) into a single product (see stimulus development).

Sample and Procedure

The sample consisted of 108 women between the age of 14 and 25 years (M_{age} = 17.9). Half of the sample were students at the Delft University of Technology; the other half were students at several high schools in Delft. Each participant was randomly assigned to one of the four conditions, resulting in a total of 26 to 28 participants in each condition.

Participants saw one of the four advertisements and received a booklet. The booklet started with an introduction to the study followed by the items measuring the evaluation of the new co-branded product. Next, participants answered the questions measuring brand dominance. Finally, participants were asked to answer a series of control variables (see below). Participants took about five minutes to complete the booklet. They received sweets as a token of appreciation.

Stimulus Development

The relevant visual and verbal cues were determined through two pre-tests. The first pre-test had two aims. The first aim was to identify brands with equally strong brand salience to control for the possible influence of a difference in brand salience on perceptions of dominance. The second aim was to determine whether the existing product visuals of several brands were easily associated with those brands. This was necessary to make sure that participants would be able to link particular visual elements to a specific brand (e.g., the use of the color white with the brand Nivea). The sample of this first pre-test consisted of 35 female high school and architecture students (M_{age} = 19.9). In order to determine brand salience, the participants were asked to state which brand they thought of first when they were presented with the product attributes 'moisturizing' and 'acne-control'. After determining the brand salience, the participants had to match six different brand names to the images of six different products to test the strength of the associational link between the brand and the visual design of its products. The images displayed no text and brand logos. Participants received six brand names (i.e., Dove, Nivea, Clearasil, Neutrogena, Clean & Clear, and the fictional brand EverYouth) that they had to match to one of the unbranded images.[5] To control for order effects, four different versions of the questionnaire

[5] The fictional brand EverYouth was added because Dove had re-designed its products' visual appearance just before conducting this study. Because Dove is one of the moisturizer brands

were created in which the order of the brands and the order of the images were counterbalanced.

The brands Clearasil and Nivea were chosen as the focal brands for this study because Nivea (mentioned by 49% of the participants in relation to the attribute 'moisturizing') and Clearasil (mentioned by 80% of the participants in relation to the attribute 'acne-control) were the brands with the strongest brand salience in their respective product categories. In addition, 77% of the participants correctly matched the 'Nivea' image with Nivea and 83% of the participants correctly matched the 'Clearasil' image with Clearasil.

A second pre-test was conducted to identify the most important design elements of the products of both Clearasil and Nivea. The sample of this second pre-test consisted of 29 female students (M_{age} = 20.9). Participants were presented with images of typical face-care products from both Nivea and Clearasil and were asked through an open-ended question to mention the most important characteristics of each product's design. To avoid any order effects, the order with which the products were presented to the participants was counterbalanced.

The answers to the open-ended questions were analyzed and grouped into several categories. The most important elements of the Clearasil product were the distinctive robust shape of the tube, the color-contrast between the red and blue colors, and the use of these two distinctive colors. In addition, the rotated Clearasil brand name and the use of the red line to underline the brand name were mentioned as relevant aspects. Finally, participants mentioned the use of small text just above the cap. For the Nivea product, the overall subdued look and the dominance of the color white were most relevant. Participants also mentioned the slender shape of the tube and the contrast between the different colors that were used (see Appendix A.XII for an overview).

A designer used the results of the second pre-test to create the manipulated images: a thin white tube with blue graphics (more similar to Nivea), and a robust light- and dark blue tube with red graphics (more similar to Clearasil). The logo of the brand more similar to the visual design was visually superimposed over the logo of the other brand, imitating the verbal header-modifier effect. The verbal product descriptions were similar to the one used by Park, et al. (1996)(e.g., "Clearasil anti-acne face-wash with Nivea moisturizing formula"). Figure 5.1 presents the stimuli.

Measures

Most items were measured on seven-point rating scales (1 = "totally disagree" and 7 = "totally agree"), apart from preference for one of the brands and two associational measures. The dependent measures, perceived dominance ("[Brand 1] is more associated with the product than [brand 2]"; Park, et al., 1996) and new product evaluation ("This new product is good"; "I feel positive toward the new product"; Simonin & Ruth, 1998) were measured with items similar to the ones used in Study 5.

with the biggest market share and therefore was a likely candidate for this study, it was relevant to identify which Dove product design had the strongest associational link with the Dove brand. Both the new and old Dove design were shown to participants and the fictional brand EverYouth acted as a filler brand name so there were as many names as there were designs to match.

Figure 5.1: Study 6: Stimuli

Similar to study 5, familiarity with each brand and preference for one of the brands acted as control variables. As stated before, familiarity with each brand and preference for one of the brands can potentially influence how consumers evaluate a new product (see Simonin and Ruth, 1998, and study 3). Familiarity with each brand was measured with a single-item used by Simonin and Ruth (1998; "I have heard of this brand before"). Preference for one of the brands was measured with a single-item that asked whether participants preferred Nivea or Clearasil (1 = "prefer Nivea" and 7 = "prefer Clearasil"). Two extra control variables were added; the association of each brand with the attributes 'moisturizing' and 'acne-control', and involvement with the attributes 'moisturizing' and 'acne-control'. The association of each brand with the attributes 'moisturizing' and 'acne-control' was measured (1 = "associate most with Nivea" and 7 = "associate most with Clearasil") to establish whether the participants associated each brand with the relevant attributes that are combined in the new product. Involvement was measured because it can influence how consumers evaluate a new product. To measure involvement, the participants stated how important the product properties 'moisturizing' and 'acne-control' were to them (cf. Kirmani, Sood, & Bridges, 1999).

5.3.3 Results Study 6

Control variables

Confirming the results from the pre-test, both Nivea and Clearasil were highly familiar brands (M_{Nivea} = 7.0, $t_4(107)$ = 131.67, p < .001; $M_{Clearasil}$ = 6.9; $t_4(107)$ = 56.32, p < .001). In addition, each brand was associated with its particular product category ($M_{moisturizers}$ = 2.0, $t_4(107)$ = 14.20, p < .001; $M_{acne\text{-}control\ products}$ = 6.5, $t_4(107)$ = 22.80, p < .001). However, participants preferred Nivea over Clearasil (M = 2.2, $t_4(107)$ = 14.33, p < .001), and considered 'moisturizing' more important than 'acne-control' ($M_{moisturizing}$ = 5.3; $M_{acne\text{-}control}$ = 4.6; t(108) = 3.97, p < .001).

Main results

In contrast to the findings of Park, et al. (1996), brand-order had no influence on perceptions of dominance (F(1, 107) < 1, *ns*). Participants in the "Nivea first" condition (M = 4.4) perceived a similar level of brand dominance as participants in the "Clearasil first" condition (M = 4.3). Therefore, H1 is rejected. However, the new product's visual design influenced perceptions of brand dominance (F(1, 107) = 78.63, p < .001). The brand that was most prominent within the new product's visual design was perceived as dominant, supporting H2. None of the control variables influenced this relationship.

In contrast to our expectations, the interaction effect between brand order and the new product's visual design was not significant (F(1, 107) =1.97, *ns*). Furthermore, brand order did not influence new product evaluation (F(1, 107) < 1, *ns*). Participants in the "Nivea first" condition (M = 4.5) liked the new product just as well as participants in the "Clearasil first" condition (M = 4.4). However, the new product's visual design influenced new product evaluation directly (F(1, 107) = 6.85, p < .01). Participants in the "visually more similar to Nivea" condition (M = 4.7) evaluated the new product better than participants in the "visually more similar to Clearasil" condition (M = 4.1). None of the control variables influenced these effects. The only control variable that had a significant influence on new product evaluation was brand preference (F(1, 107) = 4.79, p < .05).

To examine the relationship between perceived brand dominance and new product evaluation, the dependent variable of perceived dominance was transformed into a categorical variable (see the main results section of Study 5 for the followed procedure). Of the participants, 8% did not perceive a dominant brand, 51% found one brand to be possibly dominant, and 41% clearly perceived a dominant brand (a score of '1' or '7' on the perceived brand dominance scale). To test whether the presence of a dominant brand within a co-branded product had a positive impact on the evaluation of a new co-branded product, the group that had a score of '1' or '7' on the perceived brand dominance scale was compared to the group that did not perceive a dominant brand. Perceived brand dominance did not have a significant impact on the evaluation of the new product. The participants who clearly perceived a dominant brand (M = 4.2) were not more positive about the new product than those who did not perceive a dominant brand (M = 4.9; t(51) = 1.39, *ns*).[6]

Similar to study 5, the variable of perceived dominance was transformed into a three level categorical variable (i.e., Nivea dominant, Clearasil brand dominant, no dominance). This categorical variable of perceived brand dominance was used as the independent variable in an ANOVA, and this time perceived brand dominance was found to influence the evaluation of the new product ($F(2, 107) = 5.63, p < .01$). When participants perceived Nivea to be the dominant brand (M = 4.8), they evaluated the new product more positively than when they perceived Clearasil to be the dominant brand (M = 4.1; $t(97) = 3.19, p < .01$). Evaluation of the new product when participants did not perceive a dominant brand (M = 4.9) did not significantly differ from the evaluation of the new product when participants did perceive a dominant brand ($t(70) = 1.78, p = .08$; $t(43) < 1$, *ns*).

5.3.4 Discussion Study 6

One of the objectives of the present study was to examine whether verbal (i.e., brand order) and visual (i.e., visual design similarity) information that is part of a new co-branded product influences perceived brand dominance and new product evaluation. In contrast to the findings of Park et al.(1996), the order of the brands had no significant influence on perceptions of dominance. In addition, the order of the brands did not influence new product evaluation. Only visual information influenced perceptions of dominance in a co-branded product and new product evaluation. A possible explanation for these findings may be that one source of information is more important when both verbal and visual information is present (see paragraph 3.5.2) (e.g., Gregan-Paxton, et al., 2005; Medin, et al., 1987; Yamauchi & Markman, 2000). This may especially be true for fast moving consumer goods as consumers already rely more on visual information for these products (Schoormans & Robben, 1997).

A second objective was to examine what factors cause perceived brand dominance. The present study found that a co-branded product is differently perceived when a particular brand is dominant through the product's visual design. Besides having an effect on perceived brand dominance, a difference in visual design similarity also influenced new product evaluation. A possible explanation why perceived brand dominance caused by a difference in visual design similarity influenced new product evaluation may be that the visual design of the new product communicates to consumers to which category a new product belongs (Creusen & Schoormans, 2005; Mooij, 1998; Schroeder & Salzer-Morling, 2006), and easy categorization leads to better product evaluation.

[6] The analysis was conducted again, but this time the group that did not perceive dominance existed of those participants who indicated a score of '3', '4' or '5' while the group that did perceive dominance existed of those participants who indicated a score of '1', '2', '6' or'7' (see footnote 2 of this chapter for more details). When participants perceive a dominant brand (M = 4.3) they are not more positive about the new product than when they do not perceive a dominant brand (M = 4.8; t(106) = 1.80, *ns*).

An additional finding was that the more the participants perceived Nivea to be the dominant brand, the more they liked the new product. One possible reason may be that the participants were biased against Clearasil as a dominant brand, because this brand is associated with a low involvement category and undesired condition (i.e., acne). That participants were biased against acne may also be the reason that the participants preferred Nivea over Clearasil, and why they indicated to be more involved with 'moisturizing' than 'acne-control'.

5.4 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS STUDIES 4, 5 AND 6

5.4.1 Summary of the Findings

Dominance within a co-branded product is a reflection of how and under what conditions consumers perceive the new product, and it may have consequences for the chosen introduction strategy and for the post-exposure attitude toward the dominant brand. Therefore, it is a relevant factor to study. An exploratory study with forty-eight participants identified the most relevant causes of perceived brand dominance (study 4), being a difference in brand salience, category relatedness, and visual design similarity. Study 5 and 6 showed via two experiments that both a difference in category relatedness and visual design similarity influenced perceptions of brand dominance. The brand that has more similarities on a product level with the new product was perceived to be the dominant brand.

None of the variables manipulated in study 5 (a difference in brand salience and category relatedness) or study 6 (brand order and a difference in visual design similarity) influenced new product evaluation as expected. The only significant effect found was that consumers evaluate a new product differently when the new product is visually more similar to a particular brand (study 6). This effect may be based on a bias against one of the concepts that formed the new product (i.e., acne-control): when the preferred concept is visually dominant, the new product is evaluated more positively. Before any conclusions can be drawn about a relationship between a preference for one of the concepts and new product evaluation, this effects requires further investigation.

In addition, study 6 found that the visual design of the new product influenced perceptions of brand dominance and new product evaluation. A possible explanation why visual design similarity influenced both factors may be that the visual design of the new product cannot only help the consumer to categorize the new product but simultaneously reinforces the image of a brand (Creusen & Schoormans, 2005; Crilly, Moultrie, & Clarkson, 2009). Therefore, the design of a new product may be a stronger manifestation of brand dominance than a verbal product description that only indicates relatedness on a product category level.

5.4.2 Limitations

Study 5 aimed to manipulate a difference in brand salience to establish the influence of this difference on perceptions of brand dominance. However, study 5 partially failed to manipulate brand salience because one of the used brands (i.e., Nike) was more salient than the other brands. A possible reason for this failed manipulation is that the relatively big portfolio breadth of Nike made the brand more salient in both categories related to the new product. Future research should take the influence of portfolio breadth into account.

The relationship between a difference in category relatedness and a difference in visual design similarity also merits further research. Although they are two distinct constructs, it is to be expected that these constructs are somewhat related because the product's functionality will often influence the product's form: Designers use the product's form to help consumers comprehend its function (Crilly, et al., 2009).

Finally, study 6 used both existing brand names and visuals. In previous studies (see Medin, et al., 1987; Yamauchi & Markman, 2000), participants had to learn category membership during the experiment as a consequence of using synthetic stimuli. They did this by combining both verbal and visual information sources. Thus, the independent influence of verbal and visual information was difficult to assess in previous studies. In contrast, study 6 used both existing brand names and visuals, allowing the distinction between the influence of these cues on perceptions of dominance and evaluation. However, the use of only familiar cues may have influenced the findings of the present study. It may be interesting to investigate more innovative products that are consequently visually less familiar. According to Gregan-Paxton et al. (2005) verbal information becomes more important when visual information is less familiar. Thus, perhaps brand order becomes more important when the visual design of a co-branded product is more innovative.

5.4.3 Managerial Implications

Study 4 confirmed that consumers perceive differences in the contribution of each individual brand to a new co-branded product. For marketers it is relevant to know which of these possible causes of dominance are most relevant. Study 5 found that a difference in category relatedness influenced perceived brand dominance, while a difference in brand salience did not. In addition, study 6 demonstrated that the visual design of a new product (i.e., visual design similarity) influenced perceptions of dominance, while brand order did not. Based on these findings, it appears that managers have to consider which brand's former product category or visual design relates most to the new product to get a better understanding of possible brand dominance.

From a managerial perspective, the lack of an influence of a difference of brand salience on perceived brand dominance found in study 5 implies that weakly salient brands can seek out alliances with strong salient brands without the risk of being undervalued. However, the partially failed manipulation of brand salience makes this assumption a tentative one. Similarly, the lack of an influence of brand order on perceived brand dominance found in study 6 suggests the choice of which brand is mentioned first in the new product's promotion may be arbitrary.

Marketers can manipulate category relatedness by strengthening the link between the new product and an existing product of one of the brands by repeatedly exposing consumers to this link. More advertising support for the new product can lead to higher levels of perceived category relatedness because consumers are better able to identify similarities between the new product and its related category (Klink & Smith, 2001; Lane, 2000; Völckner & Sattler, 2006). Visual design similarity can be adapted by changing the product's design. When a designer creates a product that looks similar to an existing product, consumers are more likely to perceive the brand that is related to that existing product as the dominant brand. Thus, the results of study 5 and 6 suggest that marketers can influence perceptions of dominance by adapting certain elements within the promotion or the visual design of the new co-branded product.

Study 5 found that although category relatedness influenced perceived brand dominance, it had no direct consequences for the evaluation of the new product. However, study 6 demonstrated that the visual design of a new product influenced new product evaluation. The contrasting results of study 5 and 6 seem to imply that there may be different conditions in which perceived brand dominance is relevant for new product evaluation. Consequently, managers have to consider how each brand's former product category relates most to the new product (i.e., functional or visual) to predict how this will influence new product evaluation.

To conclude, this chapter provides marketers with some suggestions on how to influence consumers' perceptions of brand dominance. In addition, this chapter made a first attempt in examining how perceived brand dominance influenced the evaluation of a new co-branded product. However, further research is needed before any definite recommendations can be provided with regard to this relationship.

6 GENERAL DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The aim of this doctoral thesis was to provide an integrated view of both the marketing and NPD literatures in relation to the co-branding strategy. The current literature on co-branding discusses the (dis)advantages of this brand strategy from only one of these perspectives. The marketing literature focuses on consumer perceptions and evaluations of the partnership *after* introduction. In contrast, the NPD literature focuses on the collaboration between the brands during the development of the new product *before* the introduction of the co-branded product on the market. Thus, each literature stream focuses on a specific part of the NPD process, and not on how these processes may be interrelated. This is surprising as these processes are interdependent (Linnarson, 2005). New product success is more likely when decisions related to each process are coordinated simultaneously (Ravasi & Lojacono, 2005). This thesis strived to integrate the marketing and NPD perspectives by discussing the collaboration between the brands and the perception of the new product simultaneously. In this way, the consumers' perception and evaluation of a new co-branded product in relation to the partner brands are clarified.

The thesis focused on four different issues. First, the thesis provided a clear definition of and a context for the co-branding strategy by examining the use of co-branding in the past and present (studies 1 and 2). Second, it aimed to improve our understanding of the potential benefits of co-branding by examining whether a good fit between each brand and the new co-branded product influenced new product evaluation (study 3). Third, this thesis examined why consumers find one brand's connection with the new co-branded product to be more sensible than the other brand's connection with the new product (study 4, 5 and 6) and how this perceived dominance influenced the evaluation of the new co-branded product (study 5 and 6). Finally, it showed the relevance of simultaneously discussing the collaboration between the brands and the perception of the new product by focusing on the influence of the new product's visual design on new product perception and evaluation (study 6). This final chapter will start with a discussion of the key findings of this doctoral thesis based on the six different studies and their findings. Next, this chapter discusses the limitations of the studies and suggests some interesting areas for future research. The chapter ends with a discussion of the implications of this thesis for researchers and managers.

Table 6.1: Overview of the studies and their results

Chapter		Propositions & Hypotheses	
1	Introducing Co-Branding	-	
2	Co-Branding in Practice:		
	Study 1: A Historical Analysis of Co-Branding	Propositions: 1: Co-branding is not a new strategy as is often claimed; 2: Co-branding is used as a long-term brand alliance less often compared to joint promotions, a short-term brand alliance; 3: Both strategies have different strategic objectives and these objectives have changed over the years	
	Study 2: A Classification of Co-Branding	Proposition: Co-branding can be classified into three sub-strategies	
3	The Consumer Perception and Evaluation of New Co-Branded Products	-	
4	The Impact of Fit Measures on the Consumer Evaluation of New Co-Branded Products		
	Study 3: The Impact of Fit Measures on the Consumer Evaluation of New Co-Branded Products	Hypotheses:	
		H1: Product-product-fit → Eva.	sign.
		H2: Brand-brand-fit → Evaluation	sign.
		H3: New-product-product-fit → Evaluation	ns
		H4: New-product-brand-fit → Evaluation	sign.
		H5: Δ New-product-product-fit → Evaluation	n.a.
		H6: Δ New-product-brand-fit → Evaluation	sign.
5	Dominance and New Co-Branded Product Evaluation:		
	Study 4: An Exploratory Examination into Potential Causes of Perceived Brand Dominance	Propositions:	
		Δ Category relatedness → Dom.	√
		Δ Visual design similarity → Dom.	√
		Δ Brand salience → Dominance	√
	Study 5: The Impact of Brand Salience and Category Relatedness on Perceived Brand Dominance and Product Evaluation	Hypotheses:	
		H1: Δ Brand salience → Dom.	ns
		H2: Δ Cat. rel. → Dominance	sign.
		H3: Δ Brand salience x Δ Cat. rel. → Evaluation	ns
	Study 6: The Impact of Brand Order and Visual Design Similarity on Perceived Brand Dominance and Product Evaluation	Hypotheses:	
		H1: Brand order → Dominance	ns
		H2: ΔVisual design sim. → Dom.	sign.
		H3: Brand order x ΔVisual design sim.→ Evaluation	ns
6	General Discussion and Implications	-	

**All relationships are positive*
Δ *depicts a difference score*

6.1 SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS

Table 6.1 provides an overview of the studies presented in the thesis and their corresponding findings. This paragraph will briefly discuss each of these studies. Studies 1 and 2 are two qualitative studies that examined the use of co-branding in the past and present. The aim of these studies was to provide a clear definition of and a context for the co-branding strategy. According to the literature, any cooperation between two (or more) brands is a type of brand alliance. Sometimes such a cooperation leads to the introduction of a new product (e.g., a co-branded product), other times a cooperation is temporary and results in a joint promotion. To distinguish the co-branding strategy from joint promotions, study 1 performed a historical analysis of post-war advertisements in a leading Dutch women's magazine (i.e., Libelle). The findings of this study showed that overall cooperations in the form of joint promotions appeared more often in practice than co-branded products. In addition, the content analysis revealed that the frequency of use follows developments in Dutch society in general and brand management in particular. To illustrate these developments, some of the main findings are briefly discussed: In the 1950s and 1960s, numerous new products were introduced on the Dutch market. Brand owners used the co-branding strategy to legitimize these new products by reducing perceptions of risk for the brands involved. In the 1970s and 1980s , brand owners realized that the brand had become a vital part of the marketing strategy and tried to add abstract associations to differentiate their brands from other brands. Co-branding helped brands to develop such an associational framework. In the 1990s, consumers became more critical about the role of brands. Joint promotions appeared more frequently, but co-branded products were rare during this period. Finally, in the first decade of the twenty-first century, co-branding provided brand owners with opportunities for the creation of emotional relationships with consumers. As such, more co-branded products were introduced that leveraged the brand image of both partner brands.

Via a classification study, study 2 determined three types of co-branded products: 1) symbolic co-branded products, 2) ingredient branded products, and 3) co-branded hybrids. The first two types of co-branded products often constitute an existing product to which a second brand adds differentiating value that is either symbolic (i.e., symbolic co-branded products) or functional (i.e., ingredient branded products) in nature. The third type of co-branded product, the co-branded hybrid, occurs infrequently. A possible reason for its infrequent use is that co-branded hybrids combine two previously independent product categories into a single new product and are thus always new-to-the-brands and often even new-to-the-world. Ingredient branded products appear most frequently in practice and incorporate a medium to high level of NPD. Therefore, this thesis focused on ingredient branded products.

To improve our understanding of the potential benefits of co-branding, this thesis examined whether a good fit between each brand and the new co-branded product influenced new product evaluation in study 3 (see the third row of Table 6.1). For this purpose, study 3 replicated and extended earlier results of Simonin and Ruth (1998) through a questionnaire based study. Simonin and Ruth (1998) found that fit between the brands both on a product category and a brand image level (product-product-fit and brand-brand-fit respectively) positively influenced the evaluation of a new co-branded product. However, they did not address the impact of the new product itself. This is unfortunate as aspects of the new product can influence how consumers process and evaluate a co-branded product. The findings of study 3 showed that besides fit between both brands on a product category and a brand image level (H1 and H2), the fit between the image of each brand and the new product had a positive impact on new product evaluation (H4). The fit between the former products of each brand and the new product had no impact on new product evaluation (H3). Furthermore, participants preferred a product that was easy to categorize based on the image of each brand (H6). This latter finding illustrates that the theoretical framework used by Simonin and Ruth (1998), i.e., piecemeal processing, may be less appropriate for determining how consumers evaluate a new co-branded product. For this reason, this doctoral thesis referred to conceptual combination theory as its underlying theoretical framework (see paragraph 3.4). Conceptual combination theory combines categorical- and piecemeal processing into a single theory. This theory states that consumers access two (or more) existing schemas to form a single new schema, the conceptual combination (Wisniewski, 1996). The conceptual combination often contains relatively more associations of one of the original schemas, resulting in perceived dominance.

To examine why a new co-branded product (i.e., a new conceptual combination) often contains relatively more associations of one of the original schemas, study 4 (see the fourth row of Table 6.1) examined what possible causes of dominance consumers perceived and what causes of dominance were most relevant. Study 4 consisted of a survey with open-ended questions that confronted the participants with different types of co-branded products. The findings of study 4 supported the relevance of five out of seven possible causes of dominance mentioned in Chapter 3 (see Table 3.1). The participants of study 4 did not mention brand-order as a possible cause of dominance (a cause of dominance found in earlier studies; see Desai & Keller, 2002; Kumar, 2005; Park, et al., 1996) and a difference in new-product-brand-fit infrequently, but they did mention a cause of dominance that was not specified in the literature (i.e., focus of promotional activities). The most frequently mentioned causes of perceived dominance were a difference in category relatedness (i.e., similarities between each brand and the new product on a functional level), a difference in brand salience (i.e., dominance of the brand within its category), and a difference in visual design similarity (i.e., similarities between each brand and the new product's visual design) between the partner brands.

To examine which factors influenced perceived dominance, studies 5 and 6 consisted of two experiments that each manipulated two different possible causes of dominance (see the fifth and sixth row of Table 6.1). Study 5 manipulated a difference in brand salience between the brands, and the category relatedness between each brand and a new ingredient branded product. The findings of this study showed that a difference in brand salience did not influence perceived brand dominance (H1), while a difference in category relatedness had a significant influence on perceived brand dominance (H2). In contrast to expectations, there was no significant interaction between a difference in brand salience and a difference in category relatedness with regard to new product evaluation (H3). Despite this lack of influence on evaluation, study 5 has demonstrated that category relatedness is an important cause of perceived brand dominance, and thus influences how consumers perceive a new co-branded product. In addition, study 5 found that a co-branded product was not necessarily evaluated better when one brand was dominant. Thus, easy categorization does not necessarily lead to better new product evaluation.

Finally, study 6 manipulated the order of the brand names and visual design similarity. The former factor did not influence perceived brand dominance (H1), the latter did. The brand whose products had the most visual design similarities with the new ingredient branded product was considered the dominant brand (H2). In contrast to our expectations, a match between brand order and visual design similarity did not result in a better evaluation of the co-branded product (H3). Similar to study 5, study 6 also found that a co-branded product was not necessarily evaluated better when one brand was dominant. However, a difference in visual design similarity influenced new product evaluation directly.

6.2 LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The studies in this doctoral thesis had several limitations related to the used stimuli and the used measures. First, three limitations in relation to the used stimuli are discussed. The studies used stimuli that provided a product description next to mentioning the brand name and its associated product category. This led to improved external validity, because the use of additional information besides the brand name and its category approximates marketplace conditions more closely (Klink & Smith, 2001). In addition, study 6 used a visual in combination with the brands and thus employed a more comprehensive consumer and marketing context (Garber, et al., 2003). By emphasizing visuals in the product representations, this study was able to capture richer brand-specific associations than merely using product names, providing support to the strong influence of brands in interpreting new products (Dawar & Parker, 1994). As such, the use of visuals has proven to be a valuable addition to this study, recommendable to other studies of this kind. However, the influence of the explicitness of the stimuli on perceived similarity between the new product and the existing products of each brand needs further research. In study 6 a designer created the visuals by using a combination of familiar brand-specific design elements like brand logos and color. Hence, the stimuli of this study displayed explicit information and a high level of visual similarity to the existing products. However, a brand also manifests itself through other brand-specific design features besides brand logos and color (Fennis & Pruyn, 2007). Perhaps using singular (e.g., only logos or color) or different brand-specific elements (e.g., product styling, layout, materials) leads to a different perception of perceived similarity between the new product and the existing products of each brand.

In addition, all the studies focused on highly familiar brands to ensure that participants would be able to elicit associations with the brands (Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994; Simonin & Ruth, 1998; Warlop, et al., 2005). However, this limits the generalizability of the findings because consumers are likely to respond differently to co-branded products that are branded with less familiar brands (Simonin & Ruth, 1998). Consumers with moderate familiarity use more stimulus-based information than consumers with low- or high familiarity (Bettman & Park, 1980). Thus, consumers are more likely to evaluate a product introduced by moderately familiar brands based on, for example, visual design or product position in the store and not on associations related to the brands. It may be interesting to examine whether new-product-brand-fit is still a relevant factor in relation to new product evaluation when consumers are less familiar with one or both brands, because a partnership can have advantages for a brand that is less familiar (Simonin & Ruth, 1998). For example, if such a weak brand wants to strengthen its positioning in the market, it could team up with a strong brand and benefit from favorable brand associations towards the co-branded product. A strong brand dominates these brand associations, and can utilize the competence and/or capital of the weaker brand without necessarily being harmed by the weaker brand's associations.

Besides using highly familiar brands, the brands examined in this thesis were either single product brands (i.e., brands connected to a single product category by consumers) or had clear flagship products (i.e., a product consumers most closely associate with the brand as defined by John, et al., 1998). The use of these types of brands reduced unwanted variance in the measurement of the different types of fit, because participants could compare the new product to the product (category) that each brand was best known for. However, it also reduced the generalizibility of the findings. If consumers relate a brand to multiple product categories, determining fit between a co-branded product and the brand's product portfolio may become more difficult. It is to be expected that consumers will then refer to other dimensions of the product to establish whether it is a good product (Fiske & Pavelchak, 1986), and fit may become less important. Additional research can investigate the influence of a brand's product portfolio width on how consumers perceive and evaluate a new co-branded product.

Next, this paragraph discusses two limitations in relation to the used measures. The findings of this thesis indicated that the fit between each brand and the new product was a multi-dimensional construct. For example, study 3 made a clear and compelling distinction between fit between each brand and the new product based on the new product's function (i.e., new-product-product-fit) and fit based on the new product's image (i.e., new-product-brand-fit). The study found that only brand-related fit influenced new product evaluation. However, the majority of the participants in study 4 mentioned two product-specific fit measures (i.e., a difference in category relatedness and visual design similarity) as the main reasons for perceived brand dominance and infrequently mentioned brand-related fit measures. A possible explanation why the participants in study 4 infrequently mentioned new-product-brand-fit as a possible cause of dominance is that this concept is an abstract concept that covers the intangible (or symbolic) aspects of the brands. Because consumers find it difficult to verbalize these aspects, they may have not mentioned it as a possible cause of dominance. That new-product-brand-fit is a more abstract or holistic concept is also suggested by the mediating effect of new-product-brand-fit on the relationship between new-product-product-fit and new product evaluation (found in study 3). As stated by Herr, et al. (1996), a brand can fit the new product on a functional level (i.e., the brand and the new product have high category relatedness) or on a more abstract level (i.e., the brand and the new product have high new-product-brand-fit). Perhaps consumers should perceive functional fit before they can perceive abstract fit and thus new-product-product-fit influences new-product-brand-fit. It was unfortunate that the difference score of new-product-product-fit in study 3 was unreliable. Otherwise, it would have been possible to test whether the difference score of new-product-product-fit influenced new product evaluation within study 3, and compare these results to the findings in studies 5 and 6. In addition, the independent roles of categorizing the new product based on fit on a brand level (i.e., new-product-brand-fit) and categorizing the new product based on fit on a product level (i.e., new-product-product-fit, category relatedness, visual design similarity) would have been further clarified. The distinctions and similarities between concrete(or product)- and abstract(or brand)-related fit between each brand and the new product needs further examination so that both researchers and managers will be better able to determine which brand and why this brand is dominant.

This doctoral thesis also examined the differences and similarities between using an indirect (i.e., calculated) or a direct (i.e., measured) estimate of a difference score. This examination was perceived as necessary, because the indirect measure for a difference in new-product-product-fit based on existing measures derived from the brand extension literature used in study 3 was unreliable and was therefore not used for further analysis. Study 5 used both a direct and an indirect measure of the difference in new-product-brand-fit and category relatedness. The direct measures were found to be more influential than the indirect measures. A possible reason for this finding is that a direct difference score acts as an explicit frame of reference, because the direct difference score provides both referents (e.g., "Is the new product more similar to Nivea or to Clearasil?" instead of "Is the new product similar to Nivea(Clearasil)?"). The presence of both referents makes it easier to determine which brand fits best independent of the consumers' prior knowledge, and this enhances the consumers' ability to process and understand the presented information (Moorman, 1990). The low reliability of the difference score in study 3 and the similarity between the direct and indirect measure for the difference score in study 5 indicated that the use of direct measures is more appropriate. Future studies may benefit from the use of direct measures of a difference in fit.

Finally, this paragraph discusses some interesting directions for further research. The marketing literature assumes that co-branding typically leads to certain competitive advantages in comparison to a single brand strategy. Examples of these advantages are increased product quality expectations (Kapferer, 2001; Park, et al., 1996; Rao & Ruekert, 1994; Washburn, et al., 2000) and the legitimization of a new product that is beyond the scope of (one of) the brands (Kapferer, 2001). With regard to the first advantage, consumers possibly expect that tomato flavoured crisps by Lays and Heinz taste better than if they are introduced by Lays alone. This assumption has been tested by Park, et al. (1996). However, in their study the focus was on consumer reactions *before* trying the product, which means that the measured construct was expectation formed prior to trial. Because product trial is a critical factor influencing consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards a product (Kempf & Smith, 1998), other studies would benefit from a comparison of consumer expectation towards new products before trial with evaluations of satisfaction after trial (see e.g., Bouten, et al., 2007).

With regard to the second advantage, co-branding may be appropriate if a firm wants to introduce a product that has a specific new attribute (e.g., crisps with a tomato ketchup flavour) that is not supported by their current brand (e.g., Lays). Cooperating with a second brand associated with this attribute (e.g., Heinz) may help increase expectation towards the specific attribute, which may influence overall satisfaction with the ingredient branded product. The addition of a second brand could thus add breadth to the first brand, so that attributes that were new to it can now find additional support. This seems to be in line with the findings from Simonin and Ruth (1998), who suggest that the introduction of a new co-branded product influences post-exposure consumer perceptions of a brand. This means that, in the long term, the first brand might start to be associated with the new attribute as well. In order to arrive with definitive recommendations further studies have to be carried out.

6.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY

Many different terms have been used to describe the co-branding strategy (Simonin & Ruth, 1998). This doctoral thesis defined co-branding as "a form of co-operation between two or more brands with significant consumer recognition, in which all the participants' brand names are retained" (Blackett & Russell, 1999) and "a single, unique product is created" (Leuthesser, et al., 2003). In addition, it revealed that there are different kinds of co-branded products, being symbolic co-branded products, ingredient branded products, and co-branded hybrids. By making this classification, this thesis contributed to the clarification of the concept of co-branding.

Existing research has examined either how brands should cooperate to create a co-branded product (Bucklin & Sengupta, 1993a; Dussauge, Garrette, & Mitchell, 2000; Gopalakrishnan, 2007; Gundlach & Cadotte, 1994; Kalaignanam, Shankar, & Varadarajan, 2007; Levin, 2002; Prince & Davies, 2002) or how consumers evaluate such a product (Kapferer, 2001; Park, et al., 1996; Rao & Ruekert, 1994; Simonin & Ruth, 1998; Washburn, et al., 2000). In contrast, this doctoral thesis aimed to integrate both approaches. The studies within the thesis simultaneously examined how consumers perceive the partnership and each brand's contribution to the development of a new co-branded product. In addition, the studies examined how this perception influences the consumers' evaluation of the product. By integrating these approaches and by focusing on the implications of co-branding on consumer reactions, this thesis responded to the call for more research on this topic by Keller and Lehmann (2006).

The findings also indicated that consumers use different types of evaluative information processing depending on how they perceive the co-branded product: When consumers perceive one brand or category as dominant within the brand combination, this brand or category activates the schema belonging to the particular brand or category. This activation will lead consumers to categorize the new product into that (brand's) category. Consumers subsequently adapt that category by the addition of associations related to the non-dominant brand or category. However, when consumers do not perceive a dominant brand or category, they will revert to piecemeal processing and create a new category containing an equal amount of associations related to both brands. This new category then forms a new conceptual combination. Thus, this doctoral thesis extends prior work on conceptual combinations (Costello & Keane, 2001; Murphy, 1988; Wisniewski, 1996, 1997) by examining the influence of brands and their possible dominance on the processing and evaluation of a new conceptual combination.

As stated earlier, one of the aims of this doctoral thesis was to examine whether a good fit between each brand and the new co-branded product influenced new product perception and evaluation. The findings of this thesis demonstrated that a distinction should be made between the influence of fit between each brand and the new product based on the new product's function and design (i.e., new-product-product-fit, category relatedness and visual design similarity) and fit based on the new product's image (i.e., new-product-brand-fit). The first type of fit is more tangible and thus easier for consumers to verbalize, while the latter type of fit is more abstract. Study 5 and 6 showed that the two product-related fit factors of a difference in category relatedness and visual design similarity are relevant factors when consumers determine what brand is more dominant within the new product. These findings duplicate findings from studies on single-branded products that found that the properties of new single-branded products influence the consumers' perception of fit between this new product and the category related to the brand (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Bottomley & Holden, 2001; Boush & Loken, 1991; Dacin & Smith, 1994; Park, et al., 1991; Völckner & Sattler, 2006). Despite the abstractness of new-product-brand-fit, this thesis revealed that consumers prefer a new product that fits at least one of the brands based on that brand's image and that consumers do not consider product related fit as a relevant factor in their evaluation of the new product. Thus, this thesis has made a first attempt in distinguishing different types of fit and how these types of fit influenced both new co-branded product perception and evaluation.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

This thesis provides marketers with suggestions on how to influence consumers' perceptions of brand dominance and their evaluation of a new co-branded product. Because a co-branded product exists of two brands that form a partnership to create a new product through a collaborative NPD process, the implications section of this thesis covers the implications for the brand partnership, the NPD process, and the new product.

6.4.1 Implications for the Brand Partnership and the NPD Process

NPD is an uncertain and time-consuming activity and collaboration during NPD requires a high-level of coordination (Bhaskaran & Krishnan, 2009). In addition, brands that decide to cooperate during NPD have to acknowledge and accept that in most cases consumers will perceive a dominant brand after introduction of the new product. For these reasons, the brands should examine which brand is likely to be perceived as dominant and take this dominance into account during contract negotiations. This way an imbalance between the partners after the new product's introduction is not a surprise and the brands can respond proactively during NPD, thereby avoiding conflict (Bucklin & Sengupta, 1993b). Hopefully, when marketers of both brands are more aware whether and why consumers perceive a dominant brand, they may take this into account during the NPD process and during the product's introduction. Thus, they can improve their chances of new product success.

For a brand, there may be two possible routes to follow in co-branding. First, the starting point for a brand may be a new product idea that it wants to develop. In that case, the brand should consider whether consumers believe the brand has the expertise to develop and introduce the new product by itself. If so, the fit between the brand image and the new product from the consumer's point of view becomes relevant. A sufficient level of fit on the brand image level makes a positive evaluation of a new product more likely and the brand can decide to introduce the new product with a single brand. When consumers do not find that there is a sufficient level of fit to provide the conditions for a successful brand extension, the brand could consider co-branding and look out for a partner whose brand image can appropriate the new product. For example, the partner brand can add symbolic values to the new product to help differentiate it from existing products on the market. Thus, the partners may decide to introduce the new product as a symbolic co-branded product. In this case, the brand can secure that consumers perceive it as the dominant contributor to the new product by creating a higher degree of fit on the brand image level. Returning to Jeep's extension into baby gear (see paragraph 4.1.1), a good fit on the brand level between the new product and the brand may be more a matter of adapting marketing communications and non-functional aspect of the visual design of the product (e.g., adding a second logo) than of deciding which type of new product to develop.

If consumers believe the brand is not able to develop and introduce the new product by itself, then the brand has to determine whether the product is positioned within a new category or not. A brand that intends to position a product in an *existing* category but is unable to develop the new product by itself needs the legitimization of additional functional values from a partner brand. This brand is therefore advised to introduce the product as an ingredient branded product. A brand that intends to position a product in a *new* category and is unable to develop the new product needs to cooperate intensely with a suitable partner brand. This brand should introduce the product as a co-branded hybrid. Of course, in all cases, the partner brand has to be a sensible partner on both the product and the brand image level. Otherwise, it is probably better to introduce the product with a single brand because the synergies created by two brands will not be fully realized (see Figure 6.1 for a schematic overview).

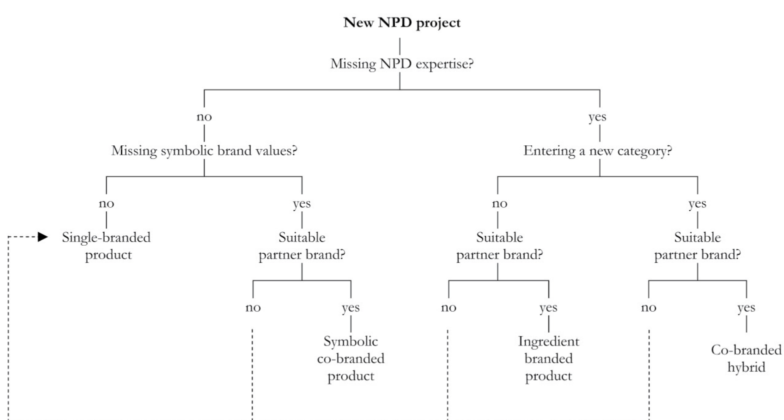

Figure 6.1: Schematic overview of the implications for the brand partnership when starting from the viewpoint of the new product

Second, the starting point for the brand may be a brand alliance. Then the question becomes one of choosing a partner that fits well at both the brand and product level. If consumers do not perceive any fit between the brands on a brand-image level then it is better to introduce the new product with a single (new) brand. Two brands that create a new product together do not necessarily have to communicate this cooperation to consumers. The brands involved can also decide to introduce the new product with a single brand. For example, Swatch, a manufacturer of trendy watches, worked together with Mercedes-Benz, a manufacturer of luxury cars, on an idea for a compact car initially called the "Swatchmobile". The two brands formed a balanced partnership during NPD called "Micro Compact Car Smart" (Mortimer, 2002). However, they decided to introduce the new car under the single brand name "Smart" as the new product concept did not match either brand sufficiently.

On the other hand, if consumers perceive a sufficient level of fit between the brand images, the brands should determine whether the brands are also perceived to fit on a product level. The brands can decide to introduce a symbolic co-branded product when the brands fit each other, but the existing products of the brands do not. Brands that fit each other on a brand image *and* a product level can determine whether they are able to enter a new category with their new product or not. If the brands are not able to enter a new product category, they can introduce an ingredient branded product. Otherwise, they can decide to introduce a co-branded hybrid (see Figure 6.2 for a schematic overview).

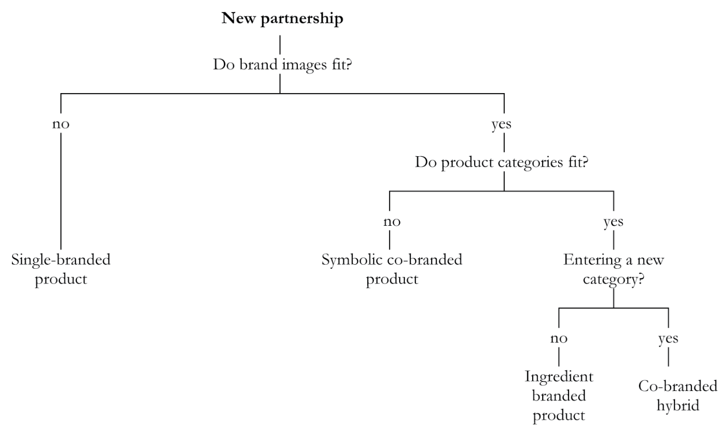

Figure 6.2: Schematic overview of the implications for the brand partnership when starting from the viewpoint of the new partnership

6.4.2 Implications for the Design of the New Product

One of the main benefits of co-branding is that the use of two brands differentiates a product from existing products, regardless of whether the product's features are different from the features of existing products. This is especially relevant for symbolic co-branded and ingredient branded products that often comprise a re-design of an existing product. The mere addition of a second brand helps to differentiate the product from its predecessors and from competitors. However, as the failure of products like the Apple Hewlett Packard iPod and the consumer loyalty program AOL AAdvantage (see Chapter 1) have shown, the second brand should add some additional benefits to the co-branded product for consumers to accept the new product. Else, they may feel that the co-branded product is a too-easy to make product and thus "a blatant effort to capitalize on a brand name" (Aaker & Keller, 1990, p. 38).

This thesis found that several properties of the new product influence how consumers perceive a new co-branded product. Consumers determine how the functional and visual properties of a new co-branded product fit the current product category of the brand. The brand that has more similarities on a product level with the new product is perceived to be the dominant brand. Thus, managers can manipulate perceived brand dominance not only by adapting the chosen brand strategy, but also by the positioning of the new product or the new product's visual design.

Furthermore, the consumers' perception of a new product's visual design can influence how they evaluate that product, confirming earlier findings that consumers use a product's visual design as a basis for categorization and evaluation (Bloch, 1995; Creusen & Schoormans, 2005; Veryzer & Hutchinson, 1998). In addition, when a product's visual design deviates from the existing products in a category, the product's visual design helps to differentiate the product from the competition (Cox & Cox, 2002). Brands should be aware of the consequences of choosing a certain visual design when introducing a new co-branded product. The new product's design might influence whether consumers are able to recognize the brand (through visual design similarity) or whether the new product attracts attention (through a deviating visual design)(Person, Snelders, Karjalainen, & Schoormans, 2007; Warlop, et al., 2005).

That these consequences can be large is illustrated by a refrigerated coffee with milk developed by Campina and Douwe Egberts that was introduced on the Dutch market in 2006. Campina and Douwe Egberts had pooled their resources to create this new product, and they felt that both partner brands had been equally important during NPD. They wanted to portray this equality through the new product's visual design. The design of the new product was thoroughly tested and resulted in a visual design in which none of the brands was visually dominant (see Figure 6.3, left; Marko Arends from Sara Lee International, personal communication, March 3, 2008). Despite the product's visual design, consumers categorized the new product as a coffee with added milk (i.e., an ingredient branded product) and consequently perceived Douwe Egberts as the dominant brand (e.g., 65% of the participants of study 4 who evaluated the product perceived Douwe Egberts to be the dominant brand based on the category relatedness with coffee). Based on this 'categorization confusion', Campina and Douwe Egberts decided to end the partnership after only three years (Smit, 2009). Each brand has introduced an own version of a refrigerated coffee with milk after this break-up. Campina seems to have chosen to retain most aspects of the co-branded refrigerated coffee with milk (see Figure 6.3, left), while Douwe Egberts has adjusted the package to resemble other products of Douwe Egberts more clearly (see Figure 6.3, middle). Future will tell whether consumers indeed prefer the product that is easy to categorize based on its visual design (i.e., the refrigerated coffee with milk by Douwe Egberts).

This example also shows the relevance of integrating NPD and design into the chosen brand strategy. Brand management is often considered an overriding concept that contains design management as a secondary aspect (Johansson & Svengren, 2003). However, more academics argue that an integration of design- and brand

Figure 6.3: A refrigerated coffee with milk by Campina and Douwe Egberts (left), by Douwe Egberts (middle), and by Campina (right)

management is likely to lead to innovations that are better evaluated (Beverland, 2005c). Or, as Montaña, Guzmán, and Moll (2007, p. 829/830) state "consumers can better understand what a brand stands for and what it does for them when all of its brand elements are consistent [and] this consistency can be achieved through design." The findings of this thesis support this argument. As this thesis has demonstrated, consumers evaluate a new co-branded product more positively when the brands have incorporated their brand-specific factors during NPD.

SUMMARY

Co-Branding: A Brand Partnership and A New Product

Lisanne Bouten

Co-branding is a form of cooperation between two brands with significant consumer recognition that results in the creation and introduction of a new product on which both brands are visible. Although co-branding results in the creation and introduction of a new product through collaboration, the current literature on co-branding focuses on either the creation (i.e., NPD literature) or the introduction (i.e., marketing literature) of the product. As new product success partly depends on a properly executed brand strategy (Keller, 2008), it is relevant to better understand the interaction between these two aspects. The main aim of this doctoral thesis was to provide an integrated view of both the marketing and NPD literatures and hence to discuss both the brand partnership and the new product simultaneously in relation to the co-branding strategy.

This research project had four underlying goals. First, this project provided more conceptual clarity on the co-branding strategy by examining the use of co-branding in the past and present (studies 1 and 2). Second, it aimed to improve our understanding of the consumer evaluation of co-branded products by explicitly taking the role of the new product into account (study 3). Third, this project examined the consumers' perception of a new co-branded product and it showed how consumers may consider the presence of one brand on the new co-branded product to make more sense than the other brand's presence on the new product (study 4, 5 and 6). Fourth, this project aimed to clarify the relevance of simultaneously discussing the collaboration between the brands during NPD and the perception of the new product after introduction by focusing on the influence of the new product's visual design on new product perception and evaluation (study 6).

Chapter 1 discussed the different theoretical approaches to study co-branding (i.e., the perspectives of the marketing and the NPD literatures). The marketing literature discusses the competitive advantages offered by a co-branding strategy in comparison to a single-brand strategy. In addition, it focuses on the relevance of the partnership by examining the compatibility between the participating brands, and how consumers perceive the partnership after the product's introduction. The NPD literature states that co-branding is relevant when a brand is unable to make a new product on its own, because a partner brand can provide intellectual and financial resources. In addition, it states that a partnership works best when the participation of each of the partners is equal because an unbalanced relationship is a possible source of conflict. However, consumers may not always perceive a balanced relationship due to, for example, the new product's design.

Chapter 2 provided a context for the co-branding strategy by examining the use of co-branding in the past and present. The chapter revealed that the rise and fall of the use of the co-branding strategy corresponds to the rise and fall of the Dutch economy and the use of brands in consumer society. In addition, Chapter 2 revealed that there are three kinds of co-branded products: 1) symbolic co-branded products, 2) ingredient branded products, and 3) co-branded hybrids. The first two types constitute an existing product to which a second brand adds differentiating value that is either symbolic (i.e., symbolic co-branded products) or functional (i.e., ingredient branded products) in nature. The third type of co-branded product, the co-branded hybrid, combines two previously independent product categories into a single new product and is thus always new-to-the-brands and often new-to-the-world. Ingredient branded products are the focus of this thesis because this strategy is used most frequently and it may offer its brand owners the opportunity to adapt an existing category.

Chapter 3 was a theoretical chapter that provided an overview of three different types of information processing: 1) categorical processing, 2) piecemeal processing, and 3) conceptual combination theory. With categorical processing the consumer places a new product in an existing category and forms his opinion about the new product based on information related to that category. Piecemeal processing is based on multiple pieces of information that are integrated to form an evaluation. Each of these two types of processing have inspired separate streams of research on attitude formation and product evaluation within the co-branding literature. However, Pavelchak (1989) argues that consumers apply both processes depending on how they perceive the new product. For this reason, several co-branding studies use a theoretical perspective called conceptual combination that combines both processing types. Conceptual combination theory proposes that consumers access two (or more) existing schemas to form a single new schema, the conceptual combination (Wisniewski, 1996). The conceptual combination often contains relatively more associations of one of the original schemas, resulting in the dominance of a concept. Chapter 3 also provided an overview of possible causes of dominance derived from existing brand extension and co-branding studies. Seven possible causes were determined: 1) a difference in brand salience, 2) a difference in familiarity with the brands, 3) a difference in production ability of the brands, 4) a difference in the fit between the associations of each brand and the new product, 5) the chosen distribution channel and store display, 6) brand order, and 7) a difference in fit based on product properties (category relatedness and visual similarity).

Chapter 4 examined whether a good fit between each brand and the new co-branded product influences new product evaluation. A high fit between the current products of both brands and a high fit between both brand images lead to a more positive evaluation of a co-branded product. In addition, the new co-branded product was evaluated more positively when it fits with the brand images of the parent brands.

Another finding was that consumers evaluate a new co-branded product higher when one parent brand fits the new product better than the other at the brand image level.

Chapter 5 explored several possible causes of dominance and the influence of this dominance on new product evaluation. A difference in brand salience and the order of the brands did not influence perceived brand dominance, while a difference in category relatedness had a significant influence on perceived brand dominance. Furthermore, the brand whose products have the most visual design similarities with the new co-branded product was considered the dominant brand. Besides exploring why consumers perceive dominance, Chapter 5 assessed whether this perceived dominance influenced the evaluation of the new co-branded product. In contrast to our expectations, a co-branded product was not necessarily evaluated better when one brand was dominant. Thus, easy categorization does not necessarily lead to better new product evaluation.

Chapter 6 summarized the key findings and discussed the implications of using the co-branding strategy in relation to the NPD process, the partnership, and the new product. A relevant implication is that brands should be aware of the consequences of choosing a certain visual design when introducing a new co-branded product. Therefore, it is relevant to integrate NPD and design into the chosen brand strategy.

SAMENVATTING

Co-Branding: Een Samenwerking Tussen Merken en een Nieuw Product

Lisanne Bouten

Co-branding is een vorm van samenwerking tussen twee bij de consument bekende merken. Deze samenwerking resulteert in de ontwikkeling en introductie van een nieuw product waarop beide merken zichtbaar zijn. Het doel van dit proefschrift was het geven van een geïntegreerd overzicht van co-branding gebaseerd op zowel de productontwikkeling- als de marketing literatuur om gelijktijdig de samenwerking tussen de merken als het nieuwe product te bespreken. Co-branding helpt merken om hun competenties en reputaties te combineren tijdens de ontwikkeling en introductie van een product en om via deze combinatie bepaalde concurrentievoordelen te behalen. De huidige literatuur over co-branding richt zich of alleen op de ontwikkeling (te weten de productontwikkeling literatuur) of alleen op de introductie (te weten de marketing literatuur) van het co-branded product. Omdat het succes van een nieuw product gedeeltelijk samenhangt met een goed uitgevoerd merkbeleid (Keller, 2008), is het van belang om de interactie tussen beide aspecten beter te begrijpen.

Dit onderzoeksproject vervulde vier doelen. Allereerst gaf dit proefschrift een duidelijke definitie van en context voor de co-branding strategie door het gebruik van co-branding in het verleden en het heden te onderzoeken (studies 1 en 2). Ten tweede had het tot doel om het begrip van de evaluatie van co-branded producten te verbeteren door de rol van het nieuwe product expliciet te maken (studie 3). Ten derde onderzocht dit project hoe consumenten een co-branded product waarnemen en het liet daarmee zien waarom consumenten de passendheid tussen een merk en het nieuwe product beter vinden dan de passendheid tussen het andere merk en het nieuwe product (studies 4, 5 en 6). Ten vierde richtte dit project zich specifiek op de invloed van productuiterlijk op de waarneming en evaluatie van het nieuwe product om het belang aan te tonen van het gelijktijdig bespreken van de samenwerking tussen twee merken voor én na introductie (studie 6).

Hoofdstuk 1 belichtte de verschillende theoretische invalshoeken voor de bestudering van co-branding, te weten de marketing- en productontwikkeling literatuur. De marketing literatuur bespreekt de concurrentievoordelen die te behalen zijn door middel van co-branding in vergelijking met een single-brand strategie. Daarnaast stelt de marketing literatuur het belang van de samenwerking voorop door te onderzoeken of de merken goed bij elkaar passen en hoe de consument de samenwerking als geheel waarneemt. De productontwikkeling literatuur stelt dat co-branding van belang is wanneer een merk niet in staat is het product zelfstandig te maken. Een partnermerk kan intellectuele- en financiële middelen toevoegen. Daarnaast stelt deze literatuur dat een samenwerkingsverband het beste functioneert wanneer beide merken een gelijk aandeel hebben. Echter, consumenten kunnen de samenwerking als ongelijkwaardig bezien door, bijvoorbeeld, het uiterlijk van het co-branded product.

Hoofdstuk 2 verschafte een context voor de co-branding strategie door middel van een onderzoek naar het gebruik van co-branding in het verleden en het heden. Het hoofdstuk liet zien dat de veranderingen in het gebruik van de co-branding strategie correspondeerde met de veranderingen in de Nederlandse economie en het gebruik van merken in de consumentenmaatschappij. Hoofdstuk 2 liet ook zien dat er drie verschillende soorten co-branded producten zijn: 1) symbolische co-branded producten, 2) ingredient branded producten, en 3) co-branded hybriden. De eerste twee soorten bestaan vaak uit een bestaand product waaraan een tweede merk symbolische (symbolische co-branded producten) of functionele (ingredient branded producten) onderscheidende waarde toevoegt. De derde soort, de co-branded hybride, combineert twee voorheen onafhankelijke product categorieën in één nieuw product. Hierdoor is dit product altijd nieuw voor de merken en soms zelfs nieuw voor de wereld. Ingredient branded producten zijn relevant om te onderzoeken, omdat een ingredient branded product merkeigenaren de mogelijkheid geeft om een bestaand product aan te passen en omdat dit de meest gebruikte vorm van co-branding is in de praktijk. Zij zijn dan ook het onderwerp van deze dissertatie.

Hoofdstuk 3 vormde een theoretisch hoofdstuk dat een overzicht gaf van drie verschillende manieren om informatie te verwerken: 1) categorisatie, 2) multi-attribuut modellen (of piecemeal processing), en 3) de conceptuele combinatie theorie. Wanneer een consument categorisatie gebruikt om informatie te verwerken zal hij een nieuw product in een bestaande categorie proberen te plaatsen en op basis van deze categorisatie zijn mening vormen over het nieuwe product. Bij een multi-attribuut model gebruikt de consument meerdere stukjes informatie die hij integreert om tot een evaluatie te komen. Beide vormen van informatieverwerking hebben aanleiding gegeven tot onderzoek over de evaluatie van co-branded producten. Echter, Pavelchak (1989) stelde dat consumenten beide voorgaande processen gebruiken afhankelijk van hoe ze het nieuwe product waarnemen. Daarom gebruiken verschillende co-branding studies de conceptuele combinatie theorie die beide informatie verwerkingsprocessen combineert. De conceptuele combinatie theorie stelt dat consumenten twee (of meer) bestaande schema's gebruiken en op basis daarvan een nieuw schema vormen, de conceptuele combinatie (Wisniewski, 1996). Deze conceptuele combinatie bevat vaak relatief meer associaties van één van de originele schema's, wat in dominantie resulteert. Hoofdstuk 3 gaf ook een overzicht van mogelijke oorzaken van dominantie ontleend aan bestaande merkextensie en co-branding studies. Zeven mogelijke oorzaken werden vastgesteld: 1) een verschil in merk salliantie tussen de merken, 2) een verschil in bekendheid met de merken, 3) een verschil in productievaardigheid van de merken, 4) een verschil in passendheid op basis van merkassociaties tussen elk merk en het nieuwe product, 5) het gekozen distributiekanaal en de winkel uitstalling, 6) de merkvolgorde en 7) een verschil in passendheid op basis van producteigenschappen (categorie verwantschap en visuele gelijkheid).

Hoofdstuk 4 onderzocht of een goede passendheid tussen elk merk en het nieuwe product van invloed was op de productevaluatie. Een goede passendheid tussen de huidige producten van elk merk en de imago's van de beide merken bleek een positieve invloed op de evaluatie van het co-branded product te hebben. Daarnaast werd het nieuwe product ook beter geëvalueerd wanneer het paste bij het merkimago van elk afzonderlijk merk. Het bleek ook dat consumenten een nieuw co-branded product beter evalueren wanneer het imago van een van de afzonderlijke merken beter past bij het nieuwe product dan het imago van het andere merk.

Hoofdstuk 5 bekeek verschillende mogelijke oorzaken van dominantie en de invloed van deze dominantie op de evaluatie van het nieuwe product. Een verschil in merk salliantie en de volgorde van de merken op het product bleken de waargenomen dominantie niet te beïnvloeden. Een verschil in verwantschap met de categorieën van elk afzonderlijk merk op functionele en op visuele basis bleek wel van invloed op de waargenomen dominantie. Daarnaast onderzoch hoofdstuk 5 of de waargenomen dominantie van invloed was op product evaluatie. In tegenstelling tot de verwachting werd een co-branded product niet beter geëvalueerd wanneer er een dominant merk werd waargenomen. Een makkelijke categorisatie leidt dus niet noodzakelijkerwijs tot een betere evaluatie.

Hoofdstuk 6 vatte de belangrijkste bevindingen samen en besprak de gevolgen van het gebruik van de co-branding strategie in relatie tot het productontwikkelingsproces, de samenwerking en het nieuwe product. Een relevante conclusie was dat de merken rekening moeten houden met de gevolgen van de keuze voor een bepaald productuiterlijk. Daarom is het van belang het productontwikkeling- en ontwerpproces te betrekken in de gekozen merkstrategie.

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APPENDICES

A.1 STUDY 1: DATABASE OF ADVERTISEMENTS WITH TWO OR MORE BRANDS IN LIBELLE

#	Period	Year	Issue Libelle	Type	Brand 1	Products brand 1	Brand 2	Products brand 2
1	1	1949	17	co-branded product	Sneeuwwit	washing detergent	Sporex	ingredient
2	1	1949	21	co-branded product	Rikobee	washing detergent	Klok	washing detergent
3	1	1950	5	co-branded product	Merino	washing detergent	Koninklijke Shell	resources
4	1	1951	25	joint promotion	Haas	vinegar	Natuurazijn	vinegar
5	1	1952	13	co-branded product	Frigidaire	refrigerator	General Motors	engines
6	1	1952	21	joint promotion	Pin-Up	perms	KLM	airplane travel
7	1	1952	29	joint promotion	Lux	washing detergent	Tribosa	fabric
8	1	1953	13	joint promotion	Lux	washing detergent	Tweka	fabric
9	1	1953	21	co-branded product	Frigidaire	refrigerator	General Motors	engines
10	1	1953	49	joint promotion	Lewenstein	sewing machines	Bernina	sewing machines
11	1	1954	3	co-branded product	Edy	washing machine	Heemaf	engines
12	1	1954	37	co-branded product	Frigidaire	refrigerator	General Motors	engines
13	1	1955	21	co-branded product	Frigidaire	refrigerator	General Motors	engines
14	1	1955	37	joint promotion	Esso	petrol	Valor	heaters
15	1	1955	41	joint promotion	BK	pots and pans	Amsterdamse Huishoudschool	school
16	1	1955	45	joint promotion	BK	pots and pans	Nieuwe Huishoudschool	school
17	2	1956	13	joint promotion	Hoboca	retailer	NS	railway company
18	2	1956	25	co-branded product	Simplex	moped	Sachs	engines
19	2	1957	21	co-branded product	Frigidaire	refrigerator	General Motors	engines
20	2	1957	41	joint promotion	Edy	washing machine	Radion	washing detergent
21	2	1957	44	joint promotion	AEG	washing machine	Sunil	washing detergent
22	2	1957	45	joint promotion	Edy	washing machine	Radion	washing detergent
23	2	1958	5	joint promotion	DRU	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
24	2	1958	9	joint promotion	Radion	washing detergent	Robusta	washing machine
25	2	1958	13	joint promotion	AEG	washing machine	Sunil	washing detergent
26	2	1958	19	joint promotion	Scharpf	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
27	2	1958	37	joint promotion	Siwa de Luxe	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
28	2	1958	45	joint promotion	DRU	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
29	2	1959	13	joint promotion	AEG	washing machine	Sunil	washing detergent
30	2	1959	13	joint promotion	Edy	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
31	2	1959	21	joint promotion	Drietex	washing detergent	Enkalon	fabric
32	2	1959	21	joint promotion	Edy	washing machine	Radion	washing detergent
33	2	1959	21	co-branded product	Frigidaire	refrigerator	General Motors	engines
34	2	1959	41	joint promotion	Edy	washing machine	Radion	washing detergent
35	2	1959	45	joint promotion	Scharpf	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
36	2	1960	5	joint promotion	Edy	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent

#	Period	Year	Issue Libelle	Type	Brand 1	Products brand 1	Brand 2	Products brand 2
37	2	1960	16	joint promotion	Siwa grandluxe	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
38	2	1960	41	joint promotion	Edy	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
39	2	1960	41	joint promotion	Siwa grandluxe	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
40	2	1960	49	joint promotion	Scharpf	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
41	2	1960	49	joint promotion	Erres	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
42	2	1960	53	joint promotion	Scharpf	washing machine	Skip	washing detergent
43	2	1961	13	co-branded product	Robson	clothes	Dralon	fabric
44	2	1961	13	joint promotion	Sturka	clothes	Shell	touring service
45	2	1961	17	co-branded product	Robson	clothes	Dralon	fabric
46	2	1961	37	joint promotion	Siwa	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
47	2	1961	41	co-branded product	Virtex	underwear	Enkalon	fabric
48	2	1961	41	joint promotion	DA drogisterijen	pharmacy	Daf	cars
49	2	1961	45	joint promotion	Scharpf	washing machine	Skip	washing detergent
50	2	1962	13	joint promotion	Constructa	washing machine	Skip	washing detergent
51	2	1962	13	joint promotion	Castor	washing machine	Dixan	washing detergent
52	2	1962	41	co-branded product	Virtex	trousers	Helanca	fabric
53	2	1962	45	co-branded product	Vasalana	fashion	Leacril (by ACSA)	fabric
54	2	1962	45	joint promotion	Unilux/Scharpf	washing machine	OMO	washing detergent
55	2	1963	13	co-branded product	Vasalana	fashion	Leacril (by ACSA)	fabric
56	2	1963	21	co-branded product	Virtex	trousers	Helanca	fabric
57	2	1963	21	joint promotion	Edy	washing machine	Skip	washing detergent
58	2	1963	29	joint promotion	Bolly Koek	cookies	Red Band	liquorice
59	2	1963	37	joint promotion	Philips	vacuum cleaners	Pfaff	sewing machines
60	2	1963	45	joint promotion	Erres	washing machine	Skip	washing detergent
61	2	1964	13	joint promotion	English Electric	washing machine	Dixan	washing detergent
62	2	1964	21	co-branded product	Auping	beds	Vredenstein	plastics
63	2	1964	25	joint promotion	Calgon	washing detergent	different washing machine brands	
64	2	1964	45	co-branded product	Ubica	matrasses	Dralon	fabric
65	2	1965	21	co-branded product	Swall	fashion	Tergal	fabric
66	2	1965	21	joint promotion	Palmolive	washing detergent	Sheffield	siccors
67	2	1965	37	joint promotion	Skip	washing detergent	AEG, Bosch	washing machines
68	2	1965	41	co-branded product	Virtexa	fashion	Helanca	fabric
69	2	1965	41	joint promotion	Dixan	washing detergent	AEG, Candy	washing machines
70	2	1966	13	co-branded product	Piller	fashion	Diolen	fabric
71	2	1966	17	co-branded product	Bon-Tri	fashion	Astralon	fabric
72	2	1966	21	joint promotion	Skip	washing detergent	Miele, Zanker, AEG, Unilux, Erres, Rondo, Constructa	washing machines
73	2	1966	21	co-branded product	DuPont	Orlon (fabric)	Parley	knitting yarn

#	Period	Year	Issue Libelle	Type	Brand 1	Products brand 1	Brand 2	Products brand 2
74	2	1966	45	co-branded product	DuPont	Orlon (fabric)	Parley	knitting yarn
75	2	1966	49	co-branded product	Orlon - lycra	fabric	Ariba, Hollandia, Golden Trouble	socks
76	3	1967	5	joint promotion	Maggi	stock cubes	Monogrampleet	cuttlery
77	3	1967	17	co-branded product	Sunil	washing detergent	Heliofoor	ingredient
78	3	1967	17	joint promotion	Echfalon	washing detergent	Gazelle	bicycle
79	3	1967	21	co-branded product	Friesche Vlag	dairy products	Domo	dairy products
80	3	1968	9	joint promotion	Airtour Holland	travel	KLM, BEA	airplane travel
81	3	1968	13	co-branded product	Ted Lapidus	fashion	Astralon	fabric
82	3	1968	13	joint promotion	Skip	washing detergent	different washing machine brands	
83	3	1968	17	co-branded product	Cyane	fashion	Astralon	fabric
84	3	1968	21	co-branded product	Friesche Vlag	dairy products	Domo	dairy products
85	3	1968	33	joint promotion	Coral	washing detergent	Enkalon, dralon,	fabrics
86	3	1968	37	joint promotion	Dreft	dishwashing detergent	Kodak	camera
87	3	1968	41	co-branded product	Playtex	ladies underwear	Lycra	fabric
88	3	1969	5	joint promotion	Dato	washing detergent	Perlon, Nylon,	fabrics
89	3	1969	9	co-branded product	Egger	curtains	Terlenka	fabric
90	3	1969	9	co-branded product	Sanfor	fabric	Damai, Kowa	sheets
91	3	1969	13	co-branded product	Desso	carpet	Dralon	fabric
92	3	1969	13	co-branded product	Setterlaine	fashion	Astralon	fabric
93	3	1969	13	co-branded product	Peter Pan	ladies underwear	Lycra	fabric
94	3	1969	21	co-branded product	Sunil	washing detergent	Heliofoor	ingredient
95	3	1969	21	joint promotion	Kemt	hair spray	Carmen	curling tongs
96	3	1969	21	joint promotion	Dato	washing detergent	Perlon, Nylon,	fabrics
97	3	1969	37	co-branded product	Ciro	fashion	Scharpia (Trevia)	fabric
98	3	1969	45	co-branded product	Playtex	ladies underwear	Lycra	fabric
99	3	1969	45	joint promotion	Koninklijke Leerdam	glasses	KLM	airplane travel
100	3	1969	49	joint promotion	All	washing detergent	Miele	washing machine
101	3	1969	49	co-branded product	Playtex	ladies underwear	Lycra	fabric
102	3	1969	49	co-branded product	Douwe Egberts	coffee	TechniVorm	coffee machine
103	3	1970	9	joint promotion	Terlenka	fabric	HEMA	retailer
104	3	1970	13	joint promotion	All	washing detergent	Constructa	washing machine
105	3	1970	17	joint promotion	All	washing detergent	Candy	washing machine
106	3	1970	21	joint promotion	Ariel	washing detergent	Siemens	washing machine
107	3	1970	22	co-branded product	Tweka	swimwear	Helanca, Bri-nylon (by ICI)	fabrics
108	3	1970	25	joint promotion	Echfalon	washing detergent	wolmerk	ingredient
109	3	1970	29	co-branded product	Sunil	washing detergent	Heliofoor	ingredient
110	3	1970	37	joint promotion	Dato	washing detergent	Nylon, perlon,	fabrics

#	Period	Year	Issue Libelle	Type	Brand 1	Products brand 1	Brand 2	Products brand 2
111	3	1970	41	joint promotion	F4	washing detergent	Lycra, dralon	fabrics
112	3	1970	41	joint promotion	Happylon	sheets	De Bijenkorf	retailer
113	3	1971	9	joint promotion	All	washing detergent	Zanussi	washing machine
114	3	1971	9	joint promotion	Diolen	fabric	HEMA	retailer
115	3	1971	29	joint promotion	Friesche Vlag	dairy products	NVS	Dutch Society for Diabetics
116	3	1971	33	co-branded product	Elvi Couture	fashion	Jersey Boutique	fabric
117	3	1971	45	co-branded product	Warner	fashion	Lycra	fabric
118	3	1971	45	co-branded product	Douwe Egberts	coffee	TechniVorm	coffee machine
119	3	1972	13	co-branded product	SRV pyjama	pyjamas	Dralon	fabric
120	3	1972	13	joint promotion	Calgon	washing detergent	Quanto	fabric softner
121	3	1972	37	joint promotion	Andy	all-purpose cleaner	Bruynzeel	kitchens
122	3	1972	45	joint promotion	Sun	dishwashing detergent	AEG, Bosch	dishwashers
123	3	1972	49	joint promotion	Arzberg	porselein	Zwiesel	drinkservies
124	3	1973	17	co-branded product	Tweka	swimwear	Helanca, Lycra	fabric
125	3	1974	17	joint promotion	Royal Club	soda	Campari, Cinzano, Martini	liquor
126	3	1974	21	joint promotion	Royal Club	soda	Bokma	liquor
127	3	1974	25	joint promotion	Persil	washing detergent	Dralon, Trevira,	fabric
128	3	1975	13	joint promotion	All	washing detergent	AEG	washing machine
129	3	1975	13	co-branded product	Jin Jersey	fashion	Bayer, dralon	fabric
130	3	1975	25	joint promotion	All	washing detergent	Siemens	washing machine
131	3	1975	37	co-branded product	Del Mod International	fashion	wolmerk	ingredient
132	3	1975	41	joint promotion	Ariel	washing detergent	Hotelplan	holidays
133	3	1975	41	co-branded product	Stibbe Styled	fashion	wolmerk	ingredient
134	3	1975	45	joint promotion	All	washing detergent	Miele	washing machine
135	3	1976	17	joint promotion	Dixan	washing detergent	Leifheit	domestic products
136	3	1976	37	joint promotion	All	washing detergent	AEG, Bauknecht,	washing machine
137	3	1977	45	joint promotion	Andy	all-purpose cleaner	Mosa	tiles
138	4	1978	9	co-branded product	Heinzelmann	fashion	Bayer, dralon	fabric
139	4	1978	21	joint promotion	Dato	washing detergent	V&D	curtains
140	4	1978	25	joint promotion	Fleuril	washing detergent	Miele	washing machine
141	4	1978	37	co-branded product	Vival	fashion	Bayer, dralon	fabric
142	4	1978	45	joint promotion	Andy	all-purpose cleaner	May Fair	wall covering
143	4	1978	49	joint promotion	Pas	cabinets	Lego, Playmobil, Dinkytoy	toys
144	4	1979	41	joint promotion	Sun	dishwashing detergent	Miele	dishwashers
145	4	1979	45	joint promotion	Dreft	washing detergent	Bauknecht, Tomado	washing machine
146	4	1979	45	joint promotion	Kanis & Gunnink	coffee	NS	railway company

#	Period	Year	Issue Libelle	Type	Brand 1	Products brand 1	Brand 2	Products brand 2
147	4	1980	21	joint promotion	All	washing detergent	different washing machine brands	
148	4	1980	49	joint promotion	Gala	coffee	KLM	airplane travel
149	4	1981	9	joint promotion	Sun	dishwashing detergent	Atag	dishwashers
150	4	1981	9	joint promotion	Andy	all-purpose cleaner	Histor	paints
151	4	1981	21	joint promotion	Andy	all-purpose cleaner	Mosa	tiles
152	4	1981	41	joint promotion	Bolletje	rusks	Philips	VCR
153	4	1981	45	joint promotion	Arke	holidays	Henkel	washing detergent
154	4	1983	9	co-branded product	Rockport	shoes	Bufflo	leather
155	4	1983	9	joint promotion	Britain	British tourist agency	Olau	holidays
156	4	1983	33	joint promotion	All	washing detergent	AEG	washing machine
157	4	1983	45	joint promotion	Andy	all-purpose cleaner	Mosa, Histor,Bruyn-zeel, Quadro, May Fair	
158	4	1983	45	joint promotion	Mars, Milky Way, Snickers	candybars	Speelboom, Wigwam	toy store
159	4	1984	13	co-branded product	Triumph	ladies underwear	Lycra	fabric
160	4	1984	49	joint promotion	Bio-tex	washing detergent	Phildar	wool
161	4	1985	9	joint promotion	Renault	cars	Elf	oil
162	4	1985	41	joint promotion	Kanis & Gunnink	coffee	PTT	postal service
163	4	1986	13	joint promotion	Renault	cars	Elf	oil
164	4	1986	33	joint promotion	Brugman	kitchens	Atag, Bauknecht, Etna	kitchen appliances
165	4	1986	37	joint promotion	NS	railway company	Omo, All, Jif, Andy	cleaning products
166	4	1986	37	joint promotion	Olympisch	Olympic games	Opel (GM), KLM, Philips	
167	5	1989	9	joint promotion	Interlux	holiday homes	ANWB	Dutch Association for Mobility
168	5	1989	13	joint promotion	Oad	holidays	Rabobank	bank
169	5	1989	13	joint promotion	Oase	bedrooms	BEKA	beds
170	5	1989	17	joint promotion	Conimex	Oriental food	Garuda Indonesia	airplane travel
171	5	1989	37	joint promotion	Oase	bedrooms	Hülstra	beds
172	5	1990	5	joint promotion	Malta Gozo & Comino	holidays	Airmalta	airplane travel
173	5	1992	17	joint promotion	Bolletje	rusks	ANWB	Dutch Association for Mobility
174	5	1993	1	joint promotion	Brits Toerist-enbureau	British tourist agency	North Sea Ferries, Olou, P&O, Sally, Stena Line	ferries
175	5	1993	1	joint promotion	EuroSites	holidays	SRG, ANVR	Dutch Association of Travel Agents an Tour Operators
176	5	1993	17	joint promotion	O.B.	tampons	Peek & Cloppenburg	retailer

#	Period	Year	Issue Libelle	Type	Brand 1	Products brand 1	Brand 2	Products brand 2
177	5	1993	25	joint promotion	Kodak	film	Disney	entertainment
178	5	1993	25	joint promotion	Duinrell	attraktiepark	NS	railway company
179	5	1993	45	joint promotion	O.B.	tampons	Jovanda	fashion
180	5	1994	1	joint promotion	Malta Gozo & Comino	holidays	Airmalta	airplane travel
181	5	1994	33	joint promotion	Carpet-land	carpet	Louis de poortere	carpet
182	5	1994	37	joint promotion	Remia	sauce	Lotto	lottery
183	5	1994	45	joint promotion	Bosch	washing machine	Ariel Futur	washing detergent
184	5	1994	49	joint promotion	PTT telecom	phone company	Hak	canned vegetables
185	5	1995	1	joint promotion	Knorr	food	OAD	holidays
186	5	1995	1	co-branded product	Vrij uit	holidays	ANWB	Dutch Association for Mobility
187	5	1995	13	joint promotion	Miele	dishwashers	Sun Micro	afwashing detergent
188	5	1995	45	joint promotion	Austrian Airlines	airplane travel	Tyrolean	airplane travel
189	5	1996	1	joint promotion	Canvas	holidays	ARKE	holidays
190	5	1996	1	co-branded product	Vrij uit	holidays	ANWB	Dutch Association for Mobility
191	5	1996	41	joint promotion	C&A	clothes	Etos	retailer
192	5	1996	41	joint promotion	Milky Way	candybars	Lego	toys
193	5	1997	5	joint promotion	Vrij uit	holiday	Gran Dorado	holidays
194	5	1997	37	joint promotion	OMO	washing detergent	V&D	retailer
195	5	1997	41	joint promotion	OMO	washing detergent	C&A	retailer
196	5	1997	45	joint promotion	Milky Way	candybars	Lego	toys
197	5	1997	49	joint promotion	Blue Band	butter	War child	Association for the protection of children in war situations
198	5	1998	25	joint promotion	Lapagayo	clothes	Mini	cars
199	5	1999	41	joint promotion	Bolletje	rusks	Brabantia	household products
200	5	1999	41	co-branded product	Philips	consumer electronics	Jordan	tooth brushes
201	6	2000	37	joint promotion	Renault	cars	Elf	oils
202	6	2000	45	joint promotion	Ariel	washing detergent	Thermae 2000	wellness centre
203	6	2000	49	joint promotion	Ariel	washing detergent	Siemens	washing machine
204	6	2001	17	co-branded product	Vrouw-Online.nl	website	V&D	retailer
205	6	2001	33	co-branded product	Libertel	mobile phone company	Vodafone	mobile phone company
206	6	2001	45	co-branded product	Vrouw-Online.nl	website	Rabobank	bank
207	6	2001	45	co-branded product	Vrouw-Online.nl	website	V&D	retailer
208	6	2002	37	joint promotion	Verkade	cookies	V&D	retailer
209	6	2003	21	joint promotion	Nescafe	coffee	V&D	retailer
210	6	2004	9	joint promotion	Maggi	stock cubes	Princess	kitchen appliances
211	6	2004	28	co-branded product	Philips	consumer electronics	Robijn	iron

#	Period	Year	Issue Libelle	Type	Brand 1	Products brand 1	Brand 2	Products brand 2
212	6	2004	49	co-branded product	Douwe Egberts	coffee	Philips	consumer electronics
213	6	2005	1	co-branded product	Libelle	magazine	Eastborn	beds
214	6	2005	5	joint promotion	Bonduelle	canned vegetables	Lion King	musical
215	6	2005	9	co-branded product	Zwitsal	baby wipes	Spongebob	cartoon character
216	6	2005	13	co-branded product	Libelle	magazine	Eastborn	beds
217	6	2005	21	joint promotion	P20	sun tan lotion	Ponypark Slagharen	recreational park
218	6	2005	21	joint promotion	Becel	dairy products	Nederlandse Hartstichting	Dutch society for the prevention of heart diseases
219	6	2005	25	joint promotion	Renault	cars	ELF	oils
220	6	2005	25	joint promotion	Becel	dairy products	Nederlandse Hartstichting	Dutch society for the prevention of heart diseases
221	6	2005	25	joint promotion	Douglas	retailer	Citroën	cars
222	6	2005	37	co-branded product	Libelle	magazine	Jade	duvets
223	6	2005	37	joint promotion	Renault	cars	ELF	oils
224	6	2005	45	joint promotion	Beckers	snacks	Princess	kitchen appliances
225	6	2005	45	co-branded product	Mora	snacks	Waldkorn	bread
226	6	2005	45	co-branded product	Libelle	magazine	Jade	duvets
227	6	2005	49	co-branded product	Libelle	magazine	Jade	duvets
228	6	2006	17	joint promotion	Becel	dairy products	Nederlandse Hartstichting	Dutch society for the prevention of heart diseases
229	6	2006	17	co-branded product	Libelle	magazine	AGU	rain gear
230	6	2006	17	joint promotion	McDonalds	fastfood	Nationale Sportweek	National Week for the promotion of physical activities
231	6	2006	17	joint promotion	Alldays	pantyliners	Kruidvat	retailer
232	6	2006	21	joint promotion	Becel	dairy products	Nederlandse Hartstichting	Dutch society for the prevention of heart diseases
233	6	2006	21	joint promotion	Transitions	lenses	Pearle	retailer of glasses
234	6	2006	25	joint promotion	Becel	dairy products	Nederlandse Hartstichting	Dutch society for the prevention of heart diseases
235	6	2006	29	joint promotion	Becel	dairy products	Nederlandse Hartstichting	Dutch society for the prevention of heart diseases
236	6	2006	29	joint promotion	Sisi	soda	Playstation, Videoland, Kernie's familiepark	entertainment
237	6	2006	37	co-branded product	C&A	clothes	Jan Smith	entertainment
238	6	2006	37	joint promotion	Becel	dairy products	Nederlandse Hartstichting	Dutch society for the prevention of heart diseases

#	Period	Year	Issue Libelle	Type	Brand 1	Products brand 1	Brand 2	Products brand 2
239	6	2006	37	joint promotion	Linesse	cheese	Thermen & Beauty Group	wellness centre
240	6	2006	41	joint promotion	Vrij uit	holidays	TomTom	navigational system
241	6	2006	41	co-branded product	Campina	dairy products	Tetra Pak	packaging
242	6	2006	45	co-branded product	Philips	consumer electronics	Douwe Egberts	coffee
243	6	2006	49	joint promotion	McDonalds	fastfood	Vittel, Roosvicee	soda
244	6	2007	5	co-branded product	Zendium	tooth paste	WNF	World Wildlife Fund
245	6	2007	13	joint promotion	Ariel	washing detergent	TNO	independent research organisation
246	6	2007	13	co-branded product	Koopmans	pre-mixed backing products	Waldkorn	bread
247	6	2007	17	joint promotion	OMO	washing detergent	NOC*NSF	olympic organisation
248	6	2007	25	co-branded product	Philips	consumer electronics	Douwe Egberts	coffee
249	6	2007	29	joint promotion	McDonalds	fastfood	Campina, Roosvice, Danone, Vittel	soda
250	6	2007	29	co-branded product	Heineken	beer	Krups	consumer electronics
251	6	2007	33	joint promotion	Pantene	shampoo	Kruidvat	retailer
252	6	2007	33	joint promotion	OXL-pads	anti-perspiration pads	Bijenkorf	retailer
253	6	2007	37	co-branded product	Libelle	magazine	RoadNavigator	navigational system
254	6	2007	41	joint promotion	Pantene	shampoo	kruidvat	retailer
255	6	2007	41	co-branded product	Libelle	magazine	RoadNavigator	navigational system
256	6	2007	45	joint promotion	Blue Band	butter	Hersenstichting Nederland	Dutch society for the prevention of brain diseases
257	6	2007	45	joint promotion	puC	coffee machine	AH, C1000, Blokker, Marskramer	retailers
258	6	2007	49	joint promotion	Blue Band	butter	Hersenstichting Nederland	Dutch society for the prevention of brain diseases
259	6	2008	1	co-branded product	dr.Oetker	pre-mixed backing products	Prinsesje Lillifee	cartoon character
260	6	2008	5	joint promotion	McDonalds	fastfood	Campina, Roosvice, Danone, Vittel	soda
261	6	2008	9	joint promotion	Wehkamp	website retailer	C&A	retailer
262	6	2008	13	joint promotion	Vaseline	vaseline	Kruidvat	retailer
263	6	2008	21	joint promotion	Garnier Ambre Solaire	shampoo	KWF kanker-bestrijding	Dutch society for the prevention of cancer
264	6	2008	21	co-branded product	Hansaplast	band aid	Disney	entertainment
265	6	2008	25	joint promotion	Garnier Ambre Solaire	shampoo	KWF kanker-bestrijding	Dutch society for the prevention of cancer

#	Period	Year	Issue Libelle	Type	Brand 1	Products brand 1	Brand 2	Products brand 2
266	6	2008	25	joint promotion	Conimex	Oriental food	NOC*NSF	olympic organisation
267	6	2008	29	joint promotion	Conimex	Oriental food	NOC*NSF	olympic organisation
268	6	2008	29	co-branded product	Flair, Viva, Libelle, Margriet, etc.	magazine	AKO, Primera	retailer
269	6	2008	41	joint promotion	Dagravit	pills	Kruidvat, Trekpleister	retailer
270	6	2008	41	joint promotion	Knorr	sauce	Efteling	entertainment
271	6	2008	45	co-branded product	Philips	consumer electronics	Douwe Egberts	coffee
272	6	2008	45	co-branded product	Philips	consumer electronics	Douwe Egberts	coffee
273	6	2009	1	joint promotion	Chocomel	chocolate milk	Senseo/Blokker	coffee machine / retailer
274	6	2009	9	joint promotion	Quaker	cereal	Maag Lever Darm stichting	Dutch society for the prevention of internal diseases
275	6	2009	13	joint promotion	Batavus	bicycles	CenterParcs/ Bungalows.nl	holidays
276	6	2009	17	joint promotion	Primera	retailer	Tarzan/Natio-nale Musical Card	musical
277	6	2009	17	joint promotion	Cereal	diet products	Wii Fit	toys
278	6	2009	17	joint promotion	Buro Britain	British tourist agency	Stena Line	ferries
279	6	2009	21	joint promotion	Becel	dairy products	Nederlandse Hartstichting	Dutch society for the prevention of heart diseases
280	6	2009	21	joint promotion	Biotherm	skin products	Douglas	retailer
281	6	2009	21	co-branded product	Zonnatura	diet products	Kikker	book character
282	6	2009	25	joint promotion	Becel	dairy products	Nederlandse Hartstichting	Dutch society for the prevention of heart diseases
283	6	2009	25	joint promotion	Primera	retailer	diverse tijdschriften	magazines
284	6	2009	25	joint promotion	Lego	toys	Efteling	entertainment
285	6	2009	25	joint promotion	Matrinair	airplane travel	Optimel	dairy products

A.2 STUDY 2: DATABASE OF CO-BRANDED PRODUCTS

Products used in study 2

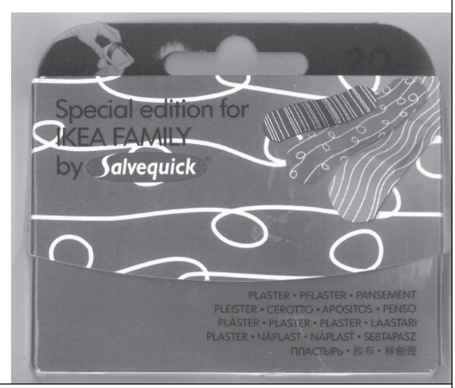
Product: Shoes Brands: Puma – sporting equipment/shoes Starck - designer  	Product: Driving shoes Brands: Puma – sporting equipment/shoes Mini Cooper - automobiles 
Product: Bicycle Brands: Puma – sporting equipment/shoes Biomega - bicycles 	Product: special edition car Brands: Fiat - automobiles Diesel - clothing 
oduct: charity endorsement: emergency electronic equipment (e.g., radio) Brands: Eton – consumer electronics American Red Cross - charity 	Product: credit card Brands: ANWB - motorclub VISA - credit card company 

Product: laptop
Brands: Itronix - computers
Hummer - automobiles

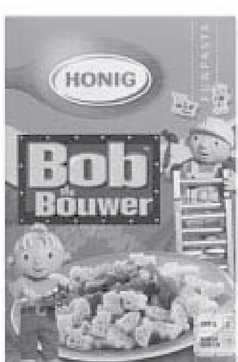
Product: Digital camera
Brands: Olympus – photo equipment
Ferrari - automobiles

Product: special edition furniture
Brands: Eddie Bauer - clothing
Lane Home Furnishing - furniture

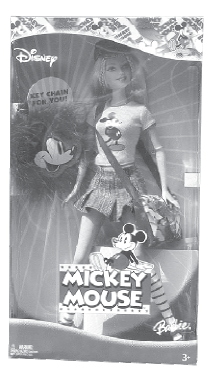
Product: band aid
Brands: Ikea – furniture retailer
Salvequick – band aid



Product: soup and pasta
Brands: Honig – soups, sauces and pasta
Bob de Bouwer – cartoon character



Product: special edition Barbie doll
Brands: Barbie - toys
Disney - entertainment



Product: Toys
Brands: Lego - toys
StarWars - movie

Product: special edition candy
Brands: Kellogg's - cereal
Lego -toys

Product: toothpaste
Brands: Colgate - toothpaste
Spongebob - cartoon character

Product: dairy products
Brands: Efteling – amusement park
Friesche Vlag – dairy products

roduct: Cookies
Brands: Disney - entertainment
Lotus - cookies

Product: Fashionable rain protection wear
Brands: Libelle – women's magazine
AGU – rain protection wear

<table>
<tr>
<td>Product: crystal encrusted handsets
Brands: Motorola V3 – mobile phones
Swarowski - crystals
</td>
<td>Product: mobile phone and travel kit
Brands: Samsung – consumer electronics
Oger – men's apparel
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: special edition car
Brands: Renault Twingo - automobiles
Benetton - clothing
</td>
<td>Product: special edition car
Brands: Levi's - jeans
Gremlin - automobiles
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: Special edition car
Brands: Ford - automobiles
Harley Davidson - motorcycles
</td>
<td>Product: Speaker system
Brands: Thomson – consumer electronics
Starck - designer
</td>
</tr>
</table>

Product: drill
Brands: Metabo - DIY equipment
Porsche design – group of designers

Product: Furniture featuring integrated home entertainment appliances
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
Cappellini - furniture

Product: joined website
Brands: Wehkamp – mail order company
C&A – clothing store

Product: Clocks in car dashboard
Brands: Bentley - automobiles
Breitling – clocks/wristwatches

Product: Crisps with tomato flavor
Brands: Heinz – tomato sauce
Lays - crisps

Product: Chocolate bar
Brands: Marabou - chocolate
Daim - chocolate

Product: cookies
Brands: Hershey's - chocolate
Reeses – peanut butter cups

Product: fabric softner and fabric cleaner
Brands: Persil – washing detergent
Silan – fabric softner

Product: fudge supreme peanut butter swirl
Brands: Pillsbury – baking products
Jif – peanut butter

Product: Special flavor icecream
Brands: Breyers – ice cream
Hershey's Kisses - chocolate

Product: Icecream with cookies
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
Oreo - cookies

Product: Icecream with special chocolate
Brands: Hertog – ice cream
Milka - chocolate

Product: Desert with cookies
Brands: Jello - deserts
Oreo - cookies

Product: Icecream with special chocolate
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
Cadbury - chocolate

Product: shoe
Brands: Adidas – sporting equipment/shoes
Gore Tex - fibre

Product: Mobile phone and camera
Brands: Nokia – mobile phones
Carl Zeiss - lenses

Product: spicy crackers
Brands: McIllney - tabasco
Cheez-It - crackers

Product: luxury hotel
Brands: Marriott's Luxury Group - hotels
Bulgari - jewelry

<table>
<tr>
<td>Product: lunch pack
Brands: Cathedral city - cheese
Jacob's – cream crackers
Branston - relish

</td>
<td>Product: Cola with artificial sweetener
Brands: Coca Cola / Dr.Pepper – soft drink
Nutrasweet – artifical sweetener

</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: soup with cheese
Brands: Knorr – soups and sauces
Boursin - cheese

</td>
<td>Product: Battery operated upright vacuum cleaner
Brands: Dirt Devil – vacuum cleaners
Swiffer – static dust cleaners
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: mobile navigator
Brands: TomTom – navigation systems
Apple Iphone - computers
</td>
<td>Product: Portable sports audio
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
Nike – sporting equipment/shoes

</td>
</tr>
</table>

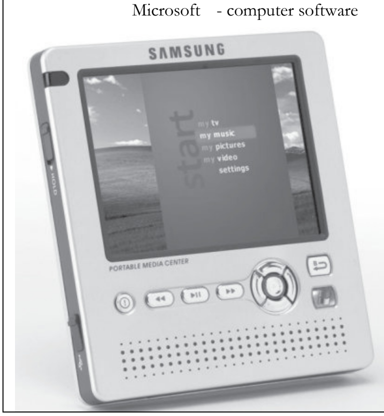
Product: Espresso machine
Brands: Nespresso - coffee
Krups – consumer electroncis

Product: Coffeemachine
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
Douwe Egberts - coffee

Product: Home brewing system
Brands: Krups – household appliances
Heineken - beer

Product: pre-mixed drink
Brands: Smirnoff - vodka
Ocean Spray – cranberry products

Product: Portable media center
Brands: Samsung – consumer electronics
Microsoft - computer software



Product: Insurance policy with benefits
Brands: Agis – insurance company
AH - retailer

Product: joined venue
Brands: Dunkin Donuts – donuts retailer
Baskin Robbins – ice cream parlour

Product: cold coffee for on the go
Brands: Campina – dairy products
Douwe Egberts - coffee

Product: Mobile phone with gaming technology
Brands: Nokia – mobile phones
Sega – game consoles

Product: Speedpass payment system integrated in watch
Brands: Timex - watches
Exxon Mobil - gasoline

Rest of the products part of the database

Product: credit card Brands: VISA – credit card company Chase - financial institute Philips – (consumer) electronics  	Product: credit card Brands: American Express - credit card company Delta - airline 
Product: credit card Brands: VISA - credit card company Fiat - automobiles  	Product: credit card Brands: VISA – credit card company Chase - financial institute Disney - entertainment 
roduct: credit card Brands: American Express - credit card company Save the Children - NGO  	Product: joined venue Brands: Subway – sandwich retailer Haagen Dasz – ice cream 

Product: bank-café
Brands: ABN AMRO – financial institute
Douwe Egberts - coffee

Product: joined venue
Brands: Carl's Jr. – fast food chain
Green Burrito – fast food chain

Product: joined venue
Brands: Chanel – designer, clothing
Alain Ducasse – chef cook

Product: joined venue
Brands: Shell – gasoline
Circle K - supermarket

Product: joined venue
Brands: Barnes&Noble - bookstore
Starbucks – coffee retailer

Product: joined venue
Brands: Circle K - supermarket
76 - gasoline

Product: joined venue
Brands: Long John Silvers – fast food chain
Taco Bell – fast food chain (mexican)

Product: joined venue
Brands: Auchan - supermarket
Flunch - restaurant

Product: Nick-themed hotel
Brands: Holiday Inn - hotels
Nickelodeon – TV station

Product: joined venue
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
Shell - gasoline

roduct: joined venue
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
C&A – clothing store

Product: joined venue
Brands: AH - supermarket
Shell / Esso - gasoline

Product: joined venue
Brands: Yo Sushi – fast food chain
Sainsbury's - retailer

Product: lifestyle hotels
Brands: Rezidor Hospitality - hotels
Cerruti - clothing

Product: clinic in supermarket
Brands: WalMart - retailer
RediClinic LLC - clinics

Product: multi-layered fitness program, customized shoes
Brands: Puma – sport equipment/shoes
W Hotels - hotels

Product: shoes
Brands: Nike –sporting equipment/shoes
Michael Jordan –basketball player

Product: Clothing
Brands: Adidas – sporting equipment/shoes
Yohji Yamamoto - designer/clothing

Product: Shoes
Brands: Adidas – sporting equipment/shoes
Porsche design – group of designers

Product: Lipbalm created to suit your shoes
Brands: Reebok – sporting equipment/shoes
Bonne Bell - lipbalm

Product: Shoes
Brands: Puma – sporting equipment/shoes
Ferrari - automobiles

Product: Shoes
Brands: Puma– sporting equipment/shoes
Gore Tex - fibre

Product: Shoes
Brands: Adidas – sporting equipment/shoes
Goodyear - tires

Product: Shoes
Brands: Cole Haan - shoes
Nike – sporting equipment/shoes

Product: tennis shoe
Brands: Michelin - tires
Babolat – sport equipment/shoes

Product: shoe
Brands: Samsung – consumer electronics
Adidas – sport equipment/shoes

Product: Shoes
Brands: Crocs - shoes
Disney - entertainment

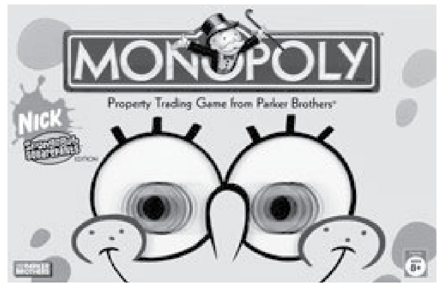
Product: bandaid for children
Brands: Hansaplast – band aid
Disney - entertainment

Product: soup
Brands: Campbells - soups
Disney - entertainment

Product: Battery operated toothbrush
Brands: Oral B – dental care products
Disney - entertainment

Product: Liquorice
Brands: Katja - liquorice
Disney - entertainment

Product: special edition game
Brands: Monopoly – board game
Spongebob - cartoon character



Product: ice cream
Brands: Breyers – ice cream
Spongebob - cartoon character

Product: pasta
Brands: Honig – soups, sauces and pasta
Spongebob - cartoon character

Product: Vitamins for children
Brands: Dagravit - vitamins
Spongebob - cartoon character

Product: Toys
Brands: Lego - toys
Spongebob - cartoon character

<table>
<tr>
<td>
Product: toy kitchen appliances
Brands: Klein - toys
Philips – (consumer) electronics

</td>
<td>
Product: toy kitchen appliances
Brands: Klein - toys
Miele – household appliances

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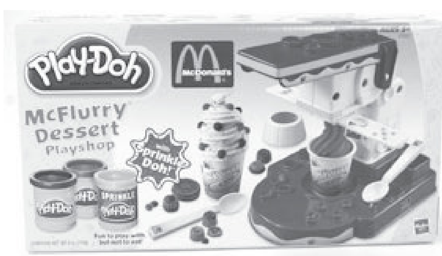
<td>
Product: toys
Brands: Play-Doh - toys
McDonalds – fast food chain


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Product: Toothpaste for teens
Brands: Aquafresh - toothpaste
Mary-kate & Ashley – actors


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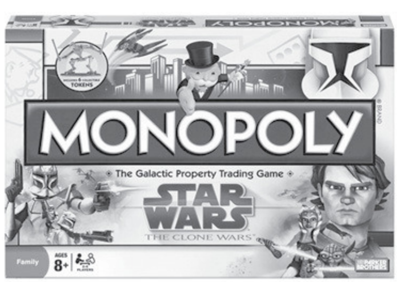
<td>
Product: board game
Brands: Monopoly – board game
StarWars - movie


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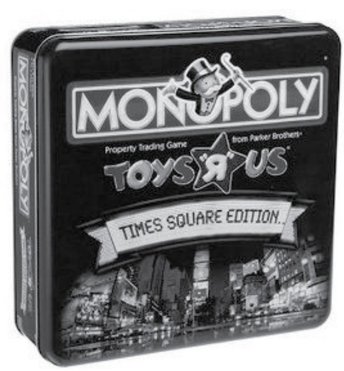
<td>
Product: Special edition game
Brands: Monopoly - games
Toys 'R'Us – toys retailer


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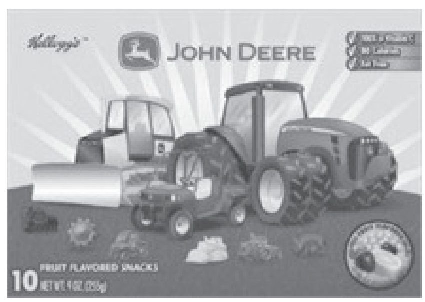
Product: exlusive cars
Brands: Matchbox - toys
Taco Bell – fast food chain

Product: Toys
Brands: Lego - toys
Ferrari - automobiles

Product: special edition candy
Brands: Kellogg's - cereal
Indiana Jones – movie character

Product: special edition candy
Brands: Kellogg's - cereal
John Deere – heavy equipment



Product: cereal
Brands: Kellogs - cereal
Disney/Pixar – cartoon characters

Product: cereal
Brands: Kellogs - cereal
Hello Kitty/Dora/Spongebob - cartoon characters

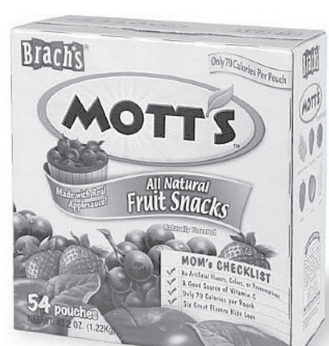
<table>
<tr>
<td>Product: special Lego shaped waffles
Brands: Eggo - waffles
Lego - toys

</td>
<td>Product: candy
Brands: Kellogg's - cereal
Xbox – game console

</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: Cake
Brands: Maitre Paul - cakes
Efteling – amusement park

</td>
<td>Product: rusks
Brands: Efteling – amusement park
Bolletje – bakery products

</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: candy
Brands: Brach's - confections
Hawaiian Punch – fruit punch

</td>
<td>Product: fruit snacks
Brands: Brach - confections
Mott's – apple sauce and juice

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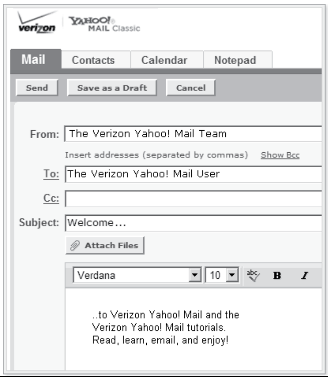
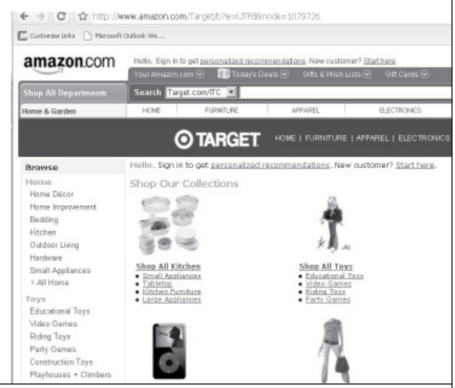
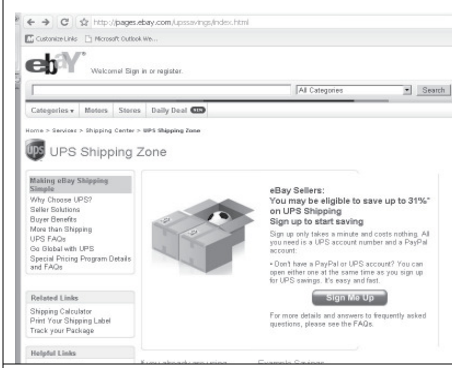
Product: broadband internet portal
Brands: Verizon – wireless network
Yahoo – internet search engine



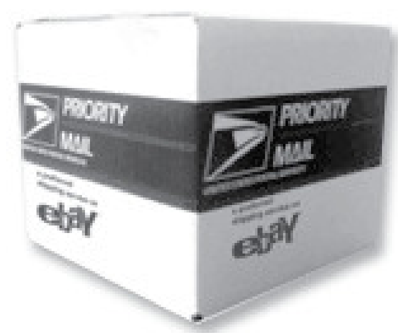
Product: Shared website
Brands: Amazon – online retailer
Target – offline retailer



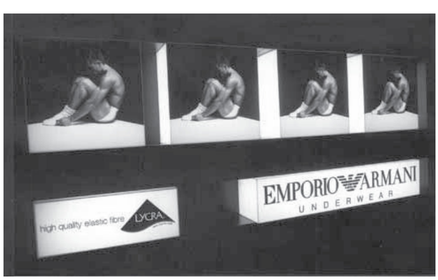
Product: Priority shipping
Brands: United States Postal Services – shipping services
E-Bay – internet based auction house



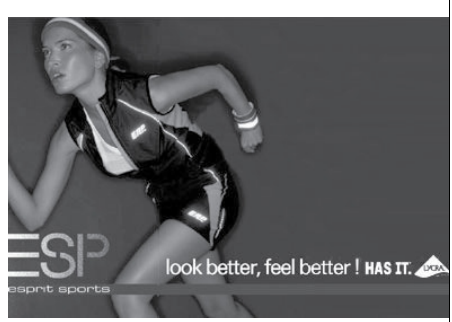
Product: shipping boxes
Brands: E Bay - internet based auction house
USPS - shipping services



Product: clothing
Brands: Armani – clothing/designer
Lycra - fibre



Product: clothing
Brands: Esprit - clothing
Lycra - fibre



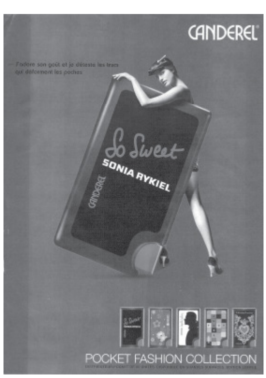
Product: Bicycle
Brands: Armani – designer/clothing
Bianchi - bicycles

Product: clothing
Brands: Martini Racing – racing team
Porsche design – group of designers

Product: Special package
Brands: Canderel – artificial sweetner
Karl Lagerfeld – designer/clothing

Product: Special package
Brands: Canderel - artificial sweetner
Kenzo – designer/clothing

Product: Special package
Brands: Canderel - artificial sweetner
Sonia Rykiel – designer/clothing



Product: designer apparel
Brands: Bang & Olufsen – consumer electronics
Luis Vutton - designer/clothing

Product: Toilet freshner Brands: Bref – toilet freshners Alessi - utensils (kitchen, bathroom)	Product: Weather station Brands: Oregon Scientific – consumer electronics Starck - designer

Product: special edition beer Brands: 1644 - beer Starck - designer	Product: Lemon squeezer Brands: Alessi - utensils (kitchen, bathroom) Starck - designer

Product: suitcases Brands: Samsonite – bags and suitcases Starck - designer	Product: Office environment improvements Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics Olivetti – computers & printers

Product: kitchen appliances Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics Alessi – utensils (kitchen, bathroom) 	Product: kitchen appliances with crystals Brands: Swarovski - crystals Gorenje – household appliances 
Product: kitchens Brands: Poggen Pohl - kitchens Porsche design – group of designers  	Product: Household appliances Brands: Siemens - (consumer) electronics Porsche design - group of designers 
Product: china wear Brands: Royal Worcester - china Jamie Oliver - cook  	Product: special design pots and pans Brands: Tefal - cookware Jamie Oliver - cook  

Product: Cookware Brands: Libelle – women's magazine BK - cookware  	Product: cookware Brands: Le Cordon Bleu – cooking school Spring - cookware 
Product: crystal encrusted handsets Brands: VKPhone – mobile phones Swarowski - crystals 	Product: phone Brands: Asus - computers Lamborghini - automobiles 
Product: mobile phone Brands: Boost – mobile phones Roxy - clothing  	Product: Mobile phone Brands: Samsung – consumer electronics Bang & Olufsen – consumer electronics 

Product: Mobile phone covers
Brands: Motorola – mobile phones
Quiksilver - clothing

Product: Mobile phone
Brands: Sharp – consumer electronics
Ferrari - automobiles

Product: mobile phone
Brands: Samsung – consumer electronics
Adidas – sport equipment/shoes

Product: mobile phone
Brands: Motorola – mobile phones
Dolce & Gabanna – clothing/designer

Product: special edition mobile phone
Brands: LG – consumer electronics
Prada – clothing/designer

Product: mobile phone
Brands: Nokia – mobile phones
Versaci– clothing/designer

Product: mobile phone
Brands: Orange – mobile phones
Levi – clothing/designer

Product: mobile phone
Brands: Samsung – mobile phones
Armani– clothing/designer

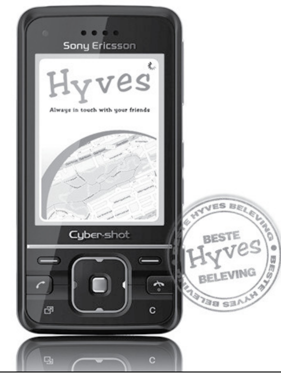
Product: mobile phone
Brands: Samsung – mobile phones
Versaci– clothing/designer

Product: Content services delivered by mobile phone to United fans
Brands: Manchester United – soccer club
Vodafone – wireless network

Product: mobile phone with I-tunes
Brands: Motorola – mobile phones
I-tunes – music player

Product: telephone for wireless internet chatting and calling
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
MSN – internet messenger service

Product: mobile phone with Hyves
Brands: Sony Ericsson – mobile phones
Hyves – network website



Product: internet mobile phone
Brands: T-Mobile – wireless networks
Google – internet search engine

Product: Pay system via mobile phone
Brands: Nokia – mobile phones
Mastercard – credit card

Product: telephone for payments
Brands: Nokia – mobile phones
Cingular – wireless networks
MasterCard - credit card company

Product: telephone for payments
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
VISA – credit card

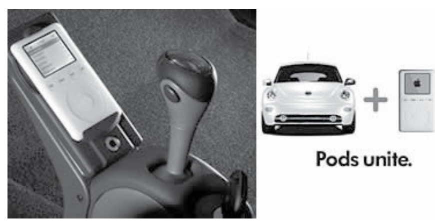
Product: telephone for payments
Brands: NTT DoCoMo – wireless network
Sony – consumer electronics

Product: mobile phone navigation device
Brands: Garmin – satellite navigation devices
Asus – computers and smartphones

Product: Navigational system
Brands: Libelle - magazine
RoadNavigator – navigation system

Product: I Pod integrated into car
Brands: BMW/Mercedes/Volvo/etc. – automobiles
I Pod – audio equipment from Apple

Product: I Pod integrated into car
Brands: Smart/Volkswagen - automobiles
I Pod – audio equipment from Apple



Product: Concept car with special interior
Brands: Hummer - automobiles
Nike – sporting equipment/shoes

Product: Car seating
Brands: Audi TT - automobiles
Recaro – car seats

Product: Sound improvement system
Brands: Sony – consumer electronics
Dolby – audio stabilizer

Product: Car sound system
Brands: Audi TT - automobiles
Bose – audio equipment

Product: audio system
Brands: Lexus - automobiles
Mark Levinson – audio equipment

Product: On-the-road communication device
Brands: Palm – PDA's
Audi - automobiles

Product: Car with special interior
Brands: Lexus - automobiles
Coach – leather goods

Product: Car with special interior
Brands: Ford - automobiles
Eddie Bauer - clothing

<table>
<tr>
<td>Product: Car
Brands: Mercedes - automobiles
Swatch - watches
</td>
<td>Product: special edition car
Brands: Toyota - automobiles
Yorin – radio/television station

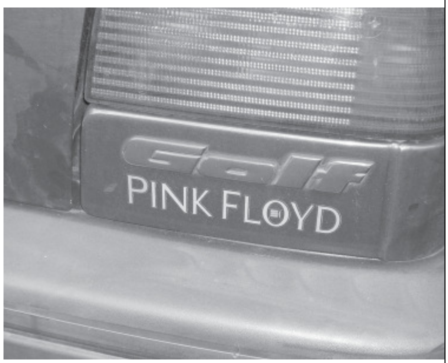
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: special edition car
Brands: Frank Sinatra - singer
Chrysler - automobiles
</td>
<td>Product: special edition car
Brands: Snoopy – cartoon character
Mitsubishi - automobiles

</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: special edition car
Brands: Peugeot - automobiles
Roland Garros – tennis match

</td>
<td>Product: special edition car
Brands: Volkswagen - automobiles
Genesis – pop group

</td>
</tr>
</table>

Product: special edition car
Brands: Volkswagen - automobiles
Pink Floyd – pop group



Product: special edition car
Brands: Lancia - automobiles
Fila - sport equipment

Product: Special edition car
Brands: Mini Cooper - automobiles
Puma – sporting equipment/shoes

Product: special edition car
Brands: Nissan - automobiles
Elle – women's magazine

Product: Special gasoline
Brands: Shell - gasoline
Ferrari - automobiles

Product: Special train for short distances
Brands: Nederlandse Spoorwegen – train transport (long distance)
HTM – tram transport (short distance)

Product: mountainboard
Brands: MBS - mountainboard
Jeep - automobiles

Product: special edition bicycle
Brands: Eddie Bauer - clothing
Giant - bicycles

Product: Bicycle
Brands: Colnago - bicycles
Ferrari - automobiles

Product: Bicycle
Brands: Libelle - women's magazine
Batavus - bicycles

Product: babygear
Brands: Eddie Bauer - clothing
Cosco – children's products

Product: Baby carriage
Brands: Kolcraft – baby products
Jeep - automobiles

Product: Umbrella
Brands: Knirps - umbrellas
Volkswagen - automobiles

Product: Umbrella
Brands: Knirps - umbrellas
Mexx - clothing

Product: Icecream with special chocolate
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
M&M's - chocolate

Product: Icecream with cookies
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
Oreo - cookies

Product: Special flavor icecream
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
Cornetto – ice cream

Product: Chocolate bar
Brands: KitKat – candy bars
McDonalds (McFlurry) – ice cream

<table>
<tr>
<td>Product: McFlurry
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
Chips Ahoy - cookies

</td>
<td>Product: ice cream
Brands: Breyers – ice cream
Twix – candy bars

</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: Icecream with special chocolate
Brands: Breyers – ice cream
M&M's - chocolate

</td>
<td>Product: Icecream with special chocolate
Brands: Ben&Jerry's – ice cream
Heath – candy bars

</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: Icecream with special flavor
Brands: Breyers – ice cream
Sara Lee - cakes

</td>
<td>Product: Icecream with special chocolate
Brands: Breyers – ice cream
Snickers – candy bars

</td>
</tr>
</table>

Product: Icecream with special chocolate
Brands: Jello - deserts
Popsicle – ice cream

Product: Icecream with cookies
Brands: Haagen Dasz – ice cream
Oreo - cookies

Product: Icecream with special chocolate
Brands: Hertog – ice cream
Toblerone - chocolate

Product: chocolate banana icecream
Brands: Banama – ice cream
Chiquita - bananas

Product: Icecream with special flavor
Brands: Haagen Dasz – ice cream
Baileys - liqueur

Product: Icecream with cookies
Brands: Klondike – ice cream
Oreo - cookies

Product: Water
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
Spa – mineral water

Product: Biological milk
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
Campina – dairy products

Product: special juice
Brands: Tropicana – fruit juice
Benecol – cholesterol blocker

Product: Milk drink
Brands: Emmi – dairy products
Benecol – cholesterol blocker

Product: canned beer
Brands: Amstel – beer
Ajax/AZ/Feijenoord – football clubs

Product: tea
Brands: Lipton - teas
Rainforrest alliance - charity

Product: Pre-mix drink
Brands: Coca Cola – soft drink
Diebels - beer

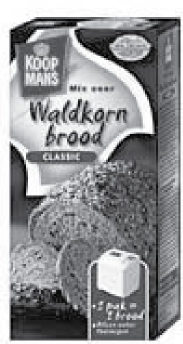
Product: Starbucks coffee liqueur
Brands: Jim Beam - liqueur
Starbucks - coffee

Product: inflight meals
Brands: KLM – airline company
Conimex – asian food products

Product: canned italian meals
Brands: Zapetti - sauce
Buitoni - pasta

Product: meals
Brands: Heinz – tomato sauce, beans, etc.
Weight watchers – diet products

Product: ready meals
Brands: Knorr – soups and sauces
Lipton - tea

Product: soup with mozerella Brands: Liebig – soup Santa Lucia - cheese  	Product: stock with olive oil Brands: Knorr – soups and sauces Puget – olive oil 
Product: spinach with creamcheese Brands: Iglo – frozen foods Boursin - cheese  	Product: soup with cheese Brands: Knorr – soups and sauces La vache qui rit - cheese 
Product: Snack Brands: Mora - snacks Waldkorn - bread  	Product: Bread mix Brands: Koopmans – baking products Waldkorn - bread 

Product: all kinds of products
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
McCain, Danone, Kraft, etc.

Product: meat alternative with cheese
Brands: Valess – meat alternatives
Milner - cheese

Product: lunchables
Brands: Oscar Mayer – sandwich meats
Grey Poupon - mustard

Product: lunchables for kids
Brands: Oscar Mayer – sandwich meats
Teddy Grahams – cracker snacks

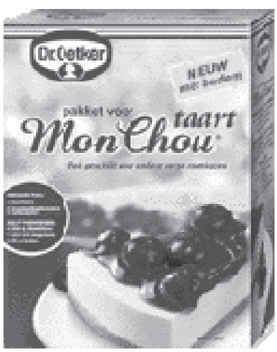
Product: Dip & Go
Brands: Cathedral city - cheese
Branston - relish

Product: Brownies with special flavor
Brands: Betty Crocker – baking mixes
Hershey - chocolate

Product: Muffin mix
Brands: Betty Crocker – baking mixes
Cinnabon – baked goods with cinnamon

Product: Cheesecake
Brands: Conditorei Coppenrath & Wiese – baking products
Philadephia – cream cheese

Product: cheesecake mix
Brands: Dr. Oetker – baking products
MonChou - cheese



Product: special edition cakes
Brands: Brossard - pastry
Lenotre – restaurants and gourmet food stores

Product: Brownie mix with chocolate bits
Brands: Pillsbury – baking products
Hershey's - chocolate

Product: Apple crumb pie
Brands: Mrs. Smith's – baking products
Cinnabon – cinnamon products

Product: brownies
Brands: Duncan Hines – baking products
M&M's - chocolate

Product: snack
Brands: Kudos – grain bars
M&M's, Snickers – candy bars

Product: peanut butter cookies
Brands: Brach - cookies
Jif – peanut butter

Product: special flavor cookies
Brands: Tim Tam - cookies
Kahlua - liqueur
Tia Maria - liqueur

Product: Chocolate bar
Brands: Milka - chocolate
Daim - chocolate

Product: Bonbons
Brands: AH - retailer
Australian – ice cream and chocolate

Product: chocolate bananas
Brands: Casali - chocolate
Chiquita - bananas

Product: chocolate with vodka
Brands: Fazer - chocolate
Finlandia - vodka

Product: cakes with chocolate (flap jacks)
Brands: McVities - chocolate
Snickers – candy bars

Product: snack & drink
Brands: Nutella – chocolate/hazelnut spread
Esta Thé – ice tea

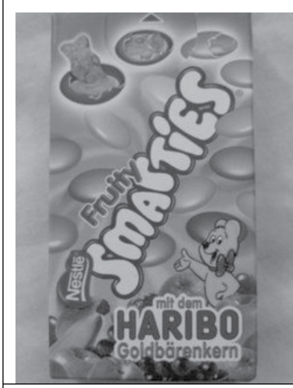
Product: cookie
Brands: Liga - cookies
Danone – dairy products

Product: yoghurt with chocolate balls
Brands: McVities - chocolate
Muller – dairy products

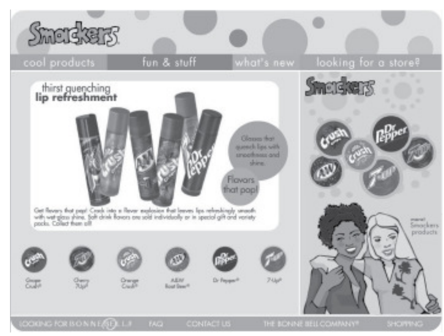
Product: chocolate mousse
Brands: Yoplait – dairy products
Cote D'Or - chocolate

Product: Yogurt
Brands: Yoplait – dairy products
Trix – cereal

Product: Candy
Brands: Haribo - candy
Smarties - candy



Product: Lipbalm with special flavor
Brands: Bonne Bell - lipbalm
Dr Pepper, 7UP, etc.- soft drinks



Product: Instant cappuccino
Brands: Gevalia - coffee
Daim - chocolate

Product: instant coffee with chocolate bits
Brands: Jacobs – coffee
Milka - chocolate

Product: coffee milk cups
Brands: Australian - chocolate
Nutroma – coffee milk

Product: coffee milk cups
Brands: illy - coffee
Nutroma – coffee milk

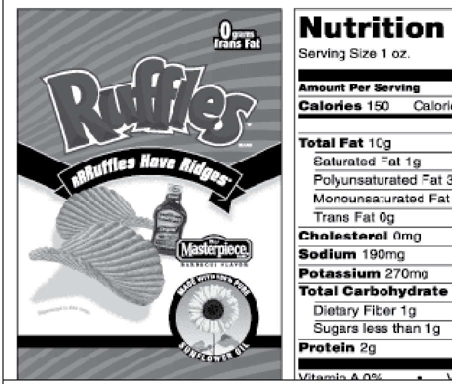
Product: coffee milk cups
Brands: illy - coffee
Friesche Vlag – dairy products

Product: artificial sweetener
Brands: Sodexo - catering
Canderel - artificial sweetener

Product: crisps
Brands: Tim's - crisps
Johnny's - salt

Product: Crisps with barbecue flavor
Brands: Lays - crisps
KC Masterpiece – sauces

Product: Crisps with barbecue flavor
Brands: Ruffles - crisps
KC Masterpiece - sauces



Product: crisps
Brands: Doritos - crisps
Pizza-La – fast food chain

Product: crisps
Brands: Doritos - crisps
Pizza Hut – fast food chain

Product: Popcorn with cinnamon butter
Brands: Orville Redenbacher – pop corn
Cinnabon – baked goods with cinnamon

Product: french fries pre-baked in olive oil
Brands: Aviko – potato products
Carbonell – olive oil

Product: baby food
Brands: Beechnut – baby food
Chiquita - bananas

Product: hot tomato sauce
Brands: Heinz – tomato sauces
Mcllhenny - tabasco

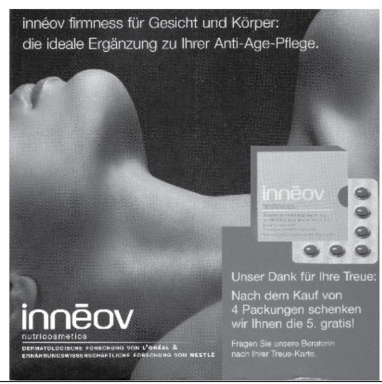
Product: Tomato ketchup
Brands: McDonalds – fast food chain
Develey - sauces

Product: Smucker's 3 Musketeers Sundae Syrup
Brands: Smucker's - condiments
3 Musketeers - confectionary

Product: cheese spread
Brands: Linesse - cheese
St Moret - cheese

Product: Disposable cups
Brands: Dixie – disposable products
Coca Cola – soft drink

Product: mouthwash with candy flavour
Brands: Signal – dental care products
Chupa Chups - candy

<table>
<tr>
<td>Product: Chewing gum
Brands: Orbit – chewing gum
Crest - toothpaste
</td>
<td>Product: toothpaste
Brands: Hyatt - hotel
Aquafresh - toothpaste
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: anti aging pills
Brands: Biodermal – skin care products
Davitamon - vitamins
</td>
<td>Product: Nutritional cosmetic products
Brands: L'Oreal – hair care products
Nestlé - food
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: watch
Brands: Eddie Bauer - clothing
Ibeam - watches
</td>
<td>Product: Watch with special function
Brands: Swatch - watches
MSN – internet messenger service
</td>
</tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr>
<td>Product: army knives
Brands: Eddie Bauer - clothing
Swiss Army Knives – pocket knives

</td>
<td>Product: Special edition sunglasses
Brands: Oakley - sunglasses
Ducatti - motorcycles

</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: Backpack
Brands: Eastpack - backpacks
iPod – audio equipment

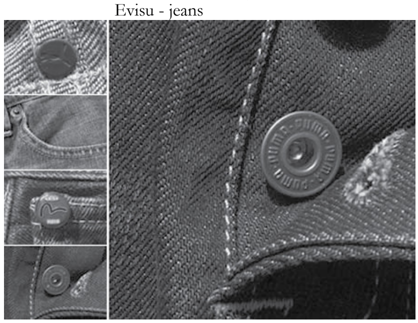
</td>
<td>Product: Clothing
Brands: Edelweiss - clothing
Gore Tex - fibre

</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: Bluetooth-enabled snow wear
Brands: Plantronics – consumer electronics
Quiksilver - clothing
</td>
<td>Product: completely integrated training system
Brands: Adidas – sport equipment/shoes
Polar – consumer electronics
</td>
</tr>
</table>

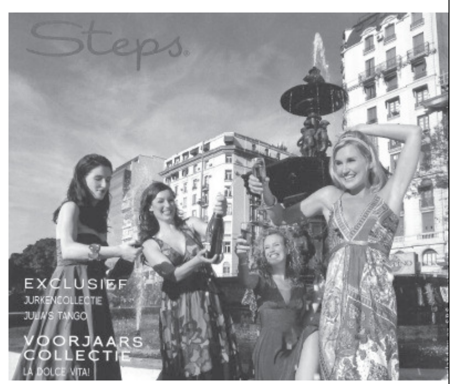
Product: swimsuit vending machine
Brands: Quicksilver – clothing
Standard Hotels – hotels

Product: special colored clothing
Brands: GAP – clothing
Pantone – color systems

Product: jeans with EVISU brushstroke on the back pocket and PUMA formstripe that slowly emerges over time, becoming increasingly visible as the jeans are worn
Brands: Puma – sporting equipment/shoes
Evisu - jeans



Product: clothing
Brands: Steps – clothing store
Julia's Tango – television program



Product: fabric softner and fabric cleaner
Brands: Tide – washing detergent
Downy – fabric softner

Product: fabric softner with special scent
Brands: Downy – fabric softner
Febreze – fabric refresher

Product: coffeemachine
Brands: Braun – consumer electronics
Kenco - coffee
Twinings – tea
Suchard – chocolate
Carte Noir - coffee

Product: Coffeemachinepods for soup
Brands: LavAzza Blue – coffee
Knorr – soups and sauces
Lipton - tea

Product: Espresso machine
Brands: Nespresso - coffee
Jura – coffee machines

Product: Coffeemachine
Brands: Black and Decker/Krups/Mr Coffee – coffee machines
Folgers/Millstone - coffee

Product: Espresso machine
Brands: Nespresso - coffee
Siemens – household appliances

Product: Electrical toothbrush with toothpaste patches
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
Crest – dental care products

<table>
<tr>
<td>Product: Electrical toothbrush
Brands: Braun – consumer electronics Oral B – dental care products
</td>
<td>Product: Electrical toothbrush
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
Jordan – dental care products
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: Shaving device with emulsion
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
Nivea – skin care products
</td>
<td>Product: Ultrasonic stain removal system
Brands: Black and Decker – consumer electronics
Tide – washing detergent
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: Iron with special fluid
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
Robijn – fabric softner
</td>
<td>Product: steamiron with anti wrinkling liquid
Brands: Black and Decker – consumer electronics
Downy – fabric softner
</td>
</tr>
</table>

Product: Air freshener
Brands: Ambi pur – air freshners
National Geographic – television channel

Product: Air freshener that plays reusable perfumed discs
Brands: Febreze – fabric freshner
Bionaire – consumer electronics

Product: Upright wet and dry vacuum cleaner
Brands: Hoover – vacuum cleaners
Old English – cleaning products
Lysol – cleaning products

Product: Home brewing system
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
Inbev – beer producer

Product: Hair dryer
Brands: Panasonic – consumer electronics
Pantene - shampoo

Product: hair products
Brands: Taft – hair products
Lycra - fibre

Product: Beds
Brands: Libelle – women's magazine
Eastborn - beds

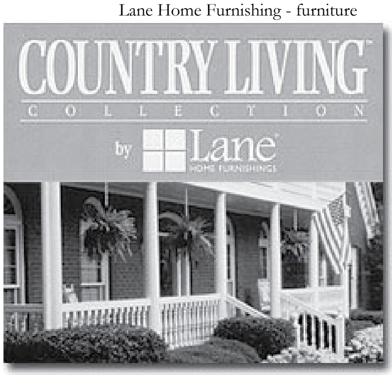
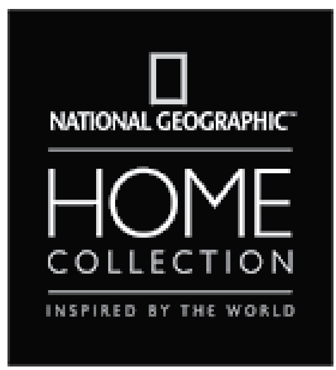
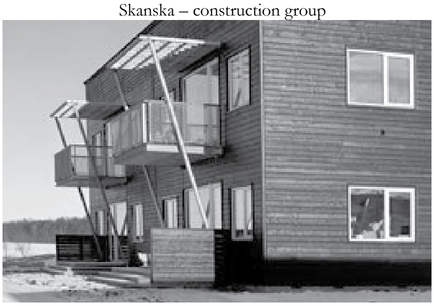
Product: Electronics furniture
Brands: Philips – (consumer) electronics
Leolux - furniture

Product: Weather stations, travel clocks and stopwatches
Brands: Oregon Scientific – consumer electronics
Ferrari - automobiles

Product: shared service
Brands: AH - retailer
Postbank - bank

Product: environmentally friendly energy
Brands: AH - retailer
Nuon – energy company

Product: energy
Brands: Hema - retailer
RWE – energy company

<table>
<tr>
<td>Product: paints
Brands: Flexa - paints
VT wonen - magazine
</td>
<td>Product: paint
Brands: Ikea – furniture retailer
Flexa - paints
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: special edition furniture
Brands: Country Living - magazine
Lane Home Furnishing - furniture
</td>
<td>Product: special edition furniture
Brands: National Geographic - magazine
Lane Home Furnishing - furniture
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product: Prefab houses
Brands: Ikea – furniture retailer
Skanska – construction group
</td>
<td>Product: iPod compatible foot wear
Brands: Nike – sport equipment/shoes
iPod – audio equipment by Apple
</td>
</tr>
</table>

Product: I-pod with HP technology
Brands: I-pod – audio equipment
HP - computers

Product: Microchip inside computer
Brands: Apple - computers
Intel – micro chips

Product: special edition I pod
Brands: Ipod – audio equipment from Apple
U2 – rock band

Product: Speakers
Brands: I-Pod – audio equipment by Apple
Altec Lansing – consumer electronics

Product: Radio
Brands: I-Pod – audio equipment by Apple
Griffin Technology – consumer electronics

Product: Universal microphone adapter
Brands: I-Pod – audio equipment by Apple
Belkin – consumer electronics

Product: Portable media center
Brands: Creative – consumer electronics
Microsoft - computer software

Product: Portable media center
Brands: I-River – consumer electronics
Microsoft - computer software

Product: Laptop
Brands: Acer - computers
Ferrari - automobiles

Product: laptop
Brands: Asus - computers
Lamborghini - automobiles

Product: charity endorsement
Brands: Ford - automobiles
Breast Cancer Foundation - charity

Product: amplifier with Fender sound
Brands: Fender - guitars
Boss - amplifiers

<table>
<tr>
<td>Product: magazine
Brands: Intermediar - magazine
PW - magazine

</td>
<td>Product: Infant products
Brands: Avent – baby products
Philips – (consumer) electronics

</td>
</tr>
</table>

A.3 STUDY 3: STIMULI

Below the translated product descriptions of the stimuli used in study 3 are presented (the original descriptions were in Dutch).

Bicycle seat for children:

The expertise of car seats for young children of [seat brand] and the experience of [bicycle brand] with respect to bicycles are combined in a new and easy to use bicycle seat for children. The bicycle seat for children provides the child with exactly what it needs. Comfort, safety and the right position to enjoy everything around him/her. Children up to 15 kilograms enjoy a maximum of comfort and optimal safety in this bicycle seat for children with a modern design. The bicycle seat can be attached on the luggage carrier of any bicycle and is easy to detach through its innovative design. The seat is available in various modern colors.

Hand vacuum cleaner with replaceable cloths:

The experience of [dry cloth brooms brand] in cleaning and the expertise in battery-technology of [battery brand] is combined in a new and easy to use hand vacuum cleaner with replaceable cloths. The hand vacuum cleaner is light and easy to maneuver due to its flexible and rotating mouthpiece that reaches even the most difficult areas. On this mouthpiece, cloths can be placed that are especially designed to pick up small dirt, static dust and hairs. When it encounters large pieces of dirt, you can activate the battery-operated vacuum cleaner with a single push on the button. This way no dirt stays behind!

A.4 STUDY 3: MEASURES

Dependent variable: evaluation of the new co-branded product

1. I think this is a good new product (based on Samu, Krishnan, and Smith 1999; Simonin and Ruth 1998)
2. I think this is a pleasant new product (based on Samu, Krishnan, and Smith 1999)
3. I think this is an interesting new product (Grossman and Till 1998)
4. I am positive toward this new product (based on Grossman and Till 1998; Simonin and Ruth 1998)
5. I think this new product is nice
6. I am favorable toward this new product (based on Samu, Krishnan, and Smith 1999; Simonin and Ruth 1998)

Product-product-fit:

7. I think the products complement each other (based on Aaker and Keller 1990; Simonin and Ruth 1998; adapted from Samu, Krishnan, and Smith 1999)
8. I think the products substitute each other (based on Aaker and Keller 1990)*
9. I think these products are consistent (based on Simonin and Ruth 1998)*
10. I think the products fit each other (based on Bhat and Reddy 2001)
11. I think the products are similar to each other (based on Park, Milberg, and Lawson 1991)*

Brand-brand-fit:

12. I think these brands are consistent (adapted from Simonin and Ruth 1998)*
13. I think these brands are complementary (adapted from Park, Jun, and Shocker 1996; Simonin and Ruth 1998)
14. I think the brands fit each other (based on Bhat and Reddy 2001)

New-product-product-fit:

15. I think the new product complements the current products (adapted from Aaker and Keller 1990)
16. I think the new product is a substitute of the current products (adapted from Aaker and Keller 1990)*
17. I think the new product is consistent with the current products (based on Broniarczyk and Alba 1991)*
18. I think the new product fits the current products (based on Bhat and Reddy 2001)
19. I think the new product is similar to the current products (adapted from Park, Milberg, and Lawson 1991)*

New-product-brand-fit:

20. I think the brand and the new product complement each other (based on Simonin and Ruth's 1998 measure for brand-brand-fit)
21. I think the brand and the new product are consistent (based on Simonin and Ruth's 1998 measure for brand-brand-fit)*
22. I think the brand fits the product (adapted from Bhat and Reddy 2001)
23. I think the new product adds to the brand
24. I think the brand adds to the new product*
25. I think this is a very appropriate product for this brand (Bridges, et al., 2000)

Familiarity (all items adapted from Simonin and Ruth 1998)

26. I am familiar with this brand
27. I recognize this brand
28. I have heard of this brand before

Prior affect

29. I think this is a good brand (based on Samu, Krishnan, and Smith 1999; Simonin and Ruth 1998)*
30. I think this is a pleasant brand (based on Samu, Krishnan, and Smith 1999)
31. I think this is an interesting brand (Grossman and Till 1998)
32. I am positive toward this brand (based on Grossman and Till 1998; Simonin and Ruth 1998)*
33. I think this is a nice brand
34. I am favorable toward this brand (based on Simonin and Ruth 1998; Samu, Krishnan, and Smith 1999)*

Note: A * indicates that the item was dropped during scale purification

A.5 STUDY 3: THE IMPACT OF THE FIT MEASURES ON EVALUATION (SPLIT PER PRODUCT)

#[a]		Dependent: Evaluation of co-branded product Model Bicycle seat for children ß-values		Model Hand vacuum cleaner ß-values		t-test for difference in coefficients (Hardy, 1994, p. 52)
A	Product-product-fit	0.11		0.21	*	.78
B	Brand-brand-fit	0.21	*	0.41	***	1.89
C	New-product-product-fit	-0.05		-0.06		.14
D	New-product-brand-fit	0.51	***	0.31	**	.90
ΔNPPF	Difference score new-product-product-fit	-		-		-
ΔNPBF	Difference score new-product-brand-fit	0.20	*	0.14	*	.18
P.AFF	Prior affect towards brands	0.33	***	0.13		.93
FAM	Familiarity with brands	-0.09		-0.14		1.29
	R^2-value	0.63		0.64		
	Adjusted R^2	0.60		0.62		
	F-value	22.16		24.39		

[a] *Letters refer to relations in Figure 4.1*
* *p-value < .05*
** *p-value < .01*
*** *p-value < .001*

A.6 STUDY 3: MEDIATION ANALYSIS

Baron and Kenny's (1986) framework of mediation was used to examine whether new-product-brand-fit mediated the effect of new-product-product-fit on new product evaluation. The framework states that mediation is present when three tests are valid: 1) the effect of the independent variable (i.e., new-product-product-fit) on the dependent variable (i.e., new product evaluation) is significant without incorporating the mediator, 2) the effect of the independent variable on the mediating variable (i.e., new-product-brand-fit) is significant, and 3) when the mediator is added to the original analysis as a covariate, the effect of the covariate on the dependent variable is significant and the effect of the independent variable is either non-significant (i.e., perfect mediation) or reduced (i.e., partial mediation).

The mediation analysis showed that new-product-product-fit influenced new product evaluation without incorporating new-product-brand-fit ($\beta = .64$, $p < .001$; $R^2_{adj} = .40$, $F(1, 206) = 140.05$, $p < .001$), and new-product-brand-fit influenced new product evaluation without incorporating new-product-product-fit ($\beta = .78$, $p < .001$; $R^2_{adj} = .60$, $F(1, 205) = 309.84$, $p < .001$). In addition, new-product-product-fit influenced new-product-brand-fit ($\beta = .73$, $p < .001$; $R^2_{adj} = .53$, $F(1, 203) = 224.97$, $p < .001$). Finally, when both new-product-brand-fit and new-product-product-fit were added, new-product-brand-fit influenced new product evaluation ($\beta = .67$, $p < .001$), while the influence of new-product-product-fit had reduced ($\beta = .16$, $p < .02$; $R^2_{adj} = .62$, $F(2, 203) = 163.07$, $p < .001$). A Sobel-test (Baron & Kenny, 1986) indicated that new-product-brand-fit ($z = 8.62$, $p < .001$) was a significant, but partial, mediator on the influence of new-product-product-fit on new product evaluation.

A.7 STUDY 4: STIMULI

	Product description		
Fast moving consumer good	 Café Fresco: On-the-go coffee (2006) introduced by Douwe Egberts (M = 6.6) & Campina (M = 5.6)	 McFlurry: Ice cream with chocolate (1997) introduced by M&M's (M = 6.0) & McDonald's (M = 6.4)	 Low-fat baked beans (not available in The Netherlands) introduced by Heinz (M = 5.8) & Weight Watchers (M = 3.2)
Durable	 Cool Skin: Shaving device with moisturizing emulsion (1999) introduced by Philips (M = 6.7) & Nivea (M = 5.7)	 BeerTender: Draught beer system for home use (2004) introduced by Heineken (M = 6.5) & Krups (M = 3.5)	 Tide Buzz: Ultrasonic stain remover (not available in The Netherlands) introduced by Black & Decker (M = 5.6) & Tide (M = 1.8)

A.8 STUDY 5 - PRE-TEST 1: BRAND SALIENCE

	Product categories*											
	Athletic shoes	Personal computers	Mobile phones	Portable audio	Wrist-watches[1]	Cameras[2]	Coffee	Chocolate	Toothpaste	Chewing gum	Skin care products[3]	Milk[4]
Strong brand salience	Nike (100%)	Apple (100%)	Nokia (100%)	Apple (100%)	Rolex (100%)	Sony (100%)	Douwe Egberts (100%)	Milka (100%)	Colgate (100%)	Sportlife (100%)	Nivea (100%)	Campina (100%)
	Adidas (86%)	Dell (83%)	Sony-Ericsson (85%)	Sony (95%)	Swatch (88%)	Canon (85%)	-	Verkade (67%)	Prodent (84%)	Stimorol (81%)	Dove (76%)	-
	Asics (57%)	IBM (61%)	Samsung (78%)	Philips (90%)	-	-	-	Cote d'or (67%)	Elmex (53%)	-	-	-
Weak brand salience	Reebok (43%)	Compaq (28%)	Motorola (30%)	Creative (24%)	Casio (35%)	Nikon (40%)	Max Havelaar (30%)	Nestlé (20%)	Zendium (37%)	Freedent (29%)	L'Oreal (48%)	Friesche Vlag (33%)
	Puma (43%)	Toshiba (22%)	Siemens (22%)	Samsung (14%)	Seiko (18%)	Samsung (35%)	Nescafé (26%)	-	Aquafresh (32%)	Xylifresh (10%)	Clearasil (19%)	-
	K-swiss (7%)	Sony (22%)	-	Archos (10%)	Fossil (18%)	Olympus (30%)	-	-	Sensodyne (26%)	-	Vaseline (14%)	-

** Numbers between parentheses represent the percentage of participants who mentioned each brand*

[1] Participants mentioned a large set of different brands. Only two brands were mentioned by more than 50% of the participants and five different brands were mentioned 18% of the time. Therefore, this category was dropped from further analysis.

[2] Participants indicated that the product category description of cameras was interpreted as either (digital) photo cameras or video cameras. Therefore, this category was dropped from further analysis.

[3] Participants mentioned a large set of different brands. Only two brands were mentioned by more than 50% of the participants and three different brands were mentioned 14% of the time. Therefore, this category was dropped from further analysis.

[4] Participants mentioned a small set of different brands. Therefore, this category was dropped from further analysis.

A.9 STUDY 5 - PRE-TEST 2: BRAND FAMILIARITY AND BRAND LIKING

	Product categories*															
	Athletic shoes		**Personal computers**		**Mobile phones**		**Portable audio**		**Coffee**		**Chocolate**		**Toothpaste**		**Chewing gum**	
	Familiarity	*Liking*	*Familiarity*	*Liking*	*Familiarity*	*Liking*	*Familiarity*	*Liking*	*Familiarity*	*Liking*	*Familiarity*	*Liking*	*Familiarity*	*Liking*	*Familiarity*	*Liking*
Strong brand salience	Nike[a]		Apple		Nokia		Apple		Douwe Egberts		Milka		Colgate[a, b]		Sportlife	
	6.9 (.36)	5.0 (1.64)	6.9 (.18)	5.4 (1.73)	7.0 (.18)	5.5 (1.54)	7.0 (.00)	5.6 (1.45)	6.9 (.25)	5.7 (1.44)	7.0 (.18)	5.8 (1.27)	6.6 (.97)	5.0 (1.60)	6.9 (.40)	5.9 (1.39)
	Adidas[b]		Dell[a, b]		Sony-Ericsson		Sony[a, b]		-		Verkade		Prodent[c]		Stimorol	
	7.0 (.18)	5.9 (1.27)	6.7 (1.12)	4.9 (1.77)	6.7 (.74)	5.3 (1.29)	6.4 (1.15)	5.0 (1.21)			6.8 (.46)	6.1 (.86)	6.8 (.62)	5.4 (1.47)	6.8 (.62)	5.4 (1.47)
	Asics[c]		IBM[c, d]		Samsung		Philips[c]		-		Cote d'or[a]		Elmex[d, e, f]		-	
	5.5 (2.06)	4.5 (1.50)	6.1 (1.52)	4.3 (1.47)	6.9 (.43)	5.3 (1.47)	6.4 (1.13)	4.6 (1.60)			6.7 (.94)	5.9 (1.43)	6.1 (1.67)	4.5 (1.59)		
Weak brand salience	Reebok		Compaq[c]		Motorola		Creative[a, c]		Max Havelaar		Nestlé[a]		Zendium[d]		Freedent	
	6.7 (0.53)	4.1 (1.47)	6.3 (1.31)	4.1 (1.37)	6.8 (.56)	4.0 (1.46)	5.9 (2.04)	4.8 (1.56)	6.3 (1.20)	4.4 (1.49)	6.5 (1.25)	5.4 (1.71)	6.2 (1.40)	3.9 (1.55)	6.9 (.40)	4.7 (1.55)
	Puma[a, b]		Toshiba[b, d]		Siemens		Samsung[b]		Nescafé		-		Aquafresh[a, c, e]		Xylifresh	
	6.9 (0.43)	5.4 (1.52)	6.4 (1.1)	4.3 (1.43)	6.6 (.89)	4.3 (1.53)	5.9 (1.82)	4.5 (1.40)	6.6 (1.04)	4.3 (1.83)			6.5 (1.33)	5.2 (1.70)	5.9 (1.85)	4.5 (1.67)
	K-swiss[c]		Sony[a]		-		Archos		-		-		Sensodyne[b, f]		-	
	6.1 (1.34)	3.7 (1.56)	6.6 (.81)	5.0 (1.58)			2.2 (2.0)	3.5 (1.45)					6.3 (1.20)	4.2 (1.69)		

** Numbers presented below each brand represent the mean (standard deviation).*

[a,b,c,d] Brands within product category with similar letters did not differ significantly in both familiarity and liking.

A.10 STUDY 5: STIMULI

Smart Shoe:

[Brand] athletic shoes and [Brand] computers have joined forces to develop the innovative Smart shoe: Athletic footwear with a microprocessor that captures the user's physical activity. A microprocessor built in each shoe measures the amount of energy expended by an individual during an aerobic workout by determining how many and how much force exerted on the shoe by the wearer and transfers this activity to a computer.

Virtual Reality Goggles:

[Brand] athletic shoes and [Brand] computers have joined forces to develop the innovative Virtual Reality (VR) Goggles. VR Goggles can be used by people while they are training in a gym and want to feel that they are in a natural environment of their choice. These goggles can also be used by athletes (e.g., skiers or golfers), providing them a virtual reality training.

A.11 STUDY 5: MEDIATION ANALYSIS

Baron and Kenny's (1986) framework of mediation was used to examine whether a difference in new-product-brand-fit mediated the effect of a difference in category relatedness on perceived brand dominance. The framework states that mediation is present when three tests are valid: 1) the effect of the independent variable (i.e., a difference in category relatedness) on the dependent variable (i.e., perceived brand dominance) is significant without incorporating the mediator, 2) the effect of the independent variable on the mediating variable (i.e., a difference in new-product-brand-fit) is significant, and 3) when the mediator is added to the original analysis as a covariate, the effect of the covariate on the dependent variable is significant and the effect of the independent variable is either non-significant (i.e., perfect mediation) or reduced (i.e., partial mediation).

A difference in category relatedness between the new co-branded product and the existing products of one of the brands influenced perceptions of brand dominance ($F(1, 240) = 11.06$, $p < .01$), and when the difference in new-product-brand-fit measure was added

($F(1, 240) = 23.27$, $p < .001$), the difference in category relatedness between the new co-branded product and the existing products of one of the brands no longer influenced perceptions of dominance ($F(1, 240) = 1.42$, *ns*), supporting test 1 and 3. Furthermore, an ANOVA was conducted with the difference in category relatedness and brand salience as the independent variables and the difference score of in new-product-brand-fit as the dependent variable. The difference score of new-product-brand-fit ($R^2_{adj} = .15$) was influenced by the difference in category relatedness ($F(1, 240) = 38.56$, $p < .001$) and the difference in brand salience ($F(1, 240) = 2.27$, $p = .08$), supporting test 2.

A.12 STUDY 6 - PRE-TEST 2: IMPORTANT DESIGN ELEMENTS OF THE PRODUCTS OF CLEARASIL (LEFT) AND NIVEA (RIGHT)

CURRICULUM VITAE

Date of birth: November 14th, 1979
Place of birth: Capelle aan den IJssel, The Netherlands

Lisanne Bouten is a researcher in 'Identity Marketing' at the department of Marketing and International Management at the Saxion University of Applied Sciences in Enschede, The Netherlands. She received her Master Degree with honors in Innovation Management at the Delft University of Technology in 2004 and was awarded as the Best Graduate Student of the Faculty in the academic year 2004-2005. After obtaining her Master Degree, she continued her research on consumer perceptions of new co-branded products within a Ph.D. project. She presented her research at several international conferences on psychology, marketing, and consumer behavior, and published in the Journal of Product Innovation Management as well as in several peer-reviewed conference proceedings.

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

Bouten, L. M. (2007). Co-branding: het managen van verwachtingen door het gebruik van twee merken (in Dutch) / Co-branding: managing expectations by using two brands. *Merk & Reputatie*, 13, 40-41.

Bouten, L. M., & Hultink, E. J. (2009). *What you see is what you get?: The influence of visual and textual information on perceived dominance in co-branded products*. Paper presented at the 38th EMAC conference, Nantes, France.

Bouten, L. M., Hultink, E. J., de Bont, C., & van Leeuwen, N. (2007). The impact of fit measures on the evaluation of a new product: An application to co-branding and brand extension. In P. S. Gopalakrishnan (Ed.), *Brand Alliances: New Models of Networking* (pp. 87-100). Hyderabad, India: The Icfac University Press.

Bouten, L. M., Hultink, E. J., & Snelders, D. (2006). *A chip off two old blocks: The influence of fit on the evaluation of a co-branded product*. Paper presented at the 35th EMAC conference, Athens, Greece.

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