

**Spillover of Social Responsibility Associations  
in a Brand Portfolio**

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**Abstract****Spillover of Social Responsibility Associations in a Brand Portfolio**  
Wenling Wang, Ph.D.

Extant research has established that social responsibility (SR) activity can be beneficial to companies by influencing consumers' SR associations with the company and its product brands. However, most studies only look at the outcomes of SR initiatives implemented at the corporate level (i.e., *corporate* social responsibility). This research provides a new and expanded perspective by exploring how SR activity at the product brand level reverberates throughout the full brand portfolio. Based on associative network theory, it is proposed that when consumers are aware of a product brand's SR initiatives, their social responsibility associations with this product brand will spill over to another product brand and the corporate brand through the pre-existing links between brands. This spillover effect is presumed to be stronger for companies using the monolithic rather than endorsed or stand-alone branding strategies. The spillover effect between two product brands is also expected to be influenced by their product category fit. As a result of this spillover of SR associations, consumers are expected to show a heightened purchase intent, positive word of mouth intent, and willingness to pay a higher price for other product brands offered by the company; and they are more likely to identify with the company and talk positively about it to others. Three experiments were conducted and found support for the proposed conceptual model. The findings will help managers make better decisions about which brands (product and corporate level) should be involved in SR activity.

## Chapter 1: Introduction and Overview

### 1. Introduction

#### *Research Gap*

As social responsibility (SR) continues its march into the mainstream (Berger, Cunningham, and Drumwright 2006), it is becoming clear that investments in such activity can provide companies with substantial returns by influencing the cognitive associations that consumers hold about a company and its products as socially responsible. SR associations have been shown to heighten purchase intent (e.g., Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun 2006), word of mouth behaviors (e.g., Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen 2007), willingness to pay (e.g., Trudel and Cotte 2008), and consumer-company identification (e.g., Lichtenstein, Drumwright and Braig 2004; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001).

As a result, companies that wish to realize these benefits are enacting SR activities at both the corporate and product levels. For example, General Mills runs several SR initiatives and donates millions of dollars to charitable organizations each year; meanwhile, it supports children's literacy through Cheerios, a product brand which is endorsed with the General Mills seal (Source: Corporate Social Responsibility Report 2009, <http://www.generalmills.com/corporate/commitment/corp.aspx>). Moreover, Procter & Gamble is committed to improving life for children in need through its various SR initiatives such as the Children's Safe Drinking Water Program (Source: [http://www.pg.com/company/our\\_commitment/social\\_responsibility.shtml](http://www.pg.com/company/our_commitment/social_responsibility.shtml)); and

one of its product brands Tide helps wash clothes for families affected by disasters for free through the Tide Loads of Hope program (Source: <http://www.tide.com/en-US/loads-of-hope/about.aspx>).

For companies like General Mills and P&G with complex brand portfolios, a crucial managerial question is: which brands – including both the corporate and product level brands – should be involved in SR initiatives? In other words, how should a company allocate its scarce SR resources among numerous brands?

Although many studies have been conducted on social responsibility (e.g., Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Brown and Dacin 1997; Creyer and Ross 1997; Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen 2007; Ellen, Mohr, and Webb 2000; Murray and Vogel 1997; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001; Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun 2006), most of them focus on the consequences of SR initiatives implemented at the organizational level (i.e., *corporate* social responsibility). As companies also perform SR activities at the level of specific product brands (Varadarajan and Menon 1988), extant research on CSR only shows a part of the picture. Thus, additional research on SR implemented at the product brand level is necessary, which offers a new perspective to look at SR and a deeper understanding of the effects of SR activities. This new perspective will also help managers make better decisions on which level or brands to invest in SR.

Furthermore, recent research has highlighted the need to examine brands through a broadened perspective, assessing the impact of any marketing activity on the entire portfolio of brands (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000). Although prior research explored

the influence of SR on consumers' reactions to either the company or its products (e.g., Brown and Dacin 1997; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001), it is still not clear whether and how SR investments have repercussions for the whole brand portfolio. There is anecdotal evidence suggesting that such an impact may occur. For example, Business Week notes that "*the Prius hybrid-electric car has given Toyota bragging rights as a clean, green, and tech-savvy company*" (Welch 2005). The promotion of its flagship "green" car may lead consumers to view the company and other Toyota brands (e.g., Camry, Sienna, and Rav4) as more socially responsible than they might otherwise. Thus, it is reasonable to ask whether and how associations of a product brand as socially responsible may influence the corporate brand and other product brands in a company's portfolio.

In sum, two important gaps exist in extant literature of social responsibility. First, there is a lack of research on the effects of SR initiatives implemented at the product brand level. Second, little research has systematically examined the impact of SR activity on the whole brand portfolio including the corporate brand and product brands. Therefore, my dissertation aims to fill in these two gaps by exploring the "spillover" effect of SR activity at the product brand level on the full brand portfolio. The specific research questions are outlined below.

### ***Research Questions***

This paper poses three principal research questions related to the spillover effect of SR activity:

- 1) To what extent do SR associations with one product brand spillover to the corporate brand and other product brands in a brand portfolio?
- 2) Under what conditions is this spillover effect stronger?
- 3) What are the consequences of this spillover effect in terms of a consumer's behavioral intentions to other product brands (e.g., purchase intent) and the company (e.g., consumer-company identification)?

To answer these questions, I reviewed the relevant literature on social responsibility, brand portfolio, associative network theory, and the spillover effect in marketing. Associative network theory (Anderson 1983; Collins and Loftus 1975) is drawn as the main theoretical basis to develop the hypotheses. A brief overview of the conceptual model is provided next.

### ***Overview of Conceptual Model***

Based on insights from associative network theory and extant research on social responsibility and the spillover effect in brand portfolios, a conceptual model is proposed that predicts when and how SR associations will spillover from an origin product brand (A) to another product brand (B) and the corporate brand (C) within a brand portfolio, and how this spreading activation of SR associations results in a number of company-favoring outcomes.

It is proposed that when consumers are exposed to SR information of brand A, the activation of this brand and its SR associations will spread to the related brands (B and C)

through the pre-existing links between brands, and that this spillover of SR associations will lead to heightened purchase intent, positive word of mouth, higher willingness to pay, and greater identification with the company. Furthermore, this spillover effect is presumed to be stronger for companies that use the monolithic (i.e., use a single brand name for the company and product brands; for example, Virgin) rather than endorsed (i.e., the corporate brand appears as an endorser of product brands; for example, Courtyard Hotels by Marriott) or stand-alone (i.e., use distinct names for the company and product brands; for example, P&G) branding strategies. Additionally, the spillover effect between two product brands (A and B) is expected to be stronger when there is a high fit (compared to low fit) between the product categories of the “origin” brand (A) and the “spillover” brand (B).

### ***Overview of Findings***

Three experiments were conducted to test the proposed conceptual model.

Study 1 examined the spillover of SR associations in the context of utilitarian products (frozen yogurt, ice cream, and soft drink). It indicates that SR associations spill over from one product brand (brand A) to another product brand (B) and the corporate brand (C). The spillover effect from brand A to B is shown to be mediated by SR associations with corporate brand C (i.e., CSR associations). Additionally, this spillover effect from brand A to both product brand B and corporate brand C is shown to be stronger when a monolithic branding strategy is used than when an endorsed or stand-alone branding strategy is used. The spillover effect from brand A to B is also shown to

be stronger when product category fit between these two brands is high than when it is low. Furthermore, this study finds evidence that the spillover effect from brand A to corporate brand C leads to greater consumer-company identification and positive word of mouth behaviors for the company.

Study 2 investigated the spillover phenomenon in the context of value-expressive products (running shoes, T-shirt, and watch). The results provide support for the spillover effect of brand A's SR initiatives and the mediating effect of CSR associations, which replicate the findings of study 1. It is also shown that with the consistency of brand positioning and attributes (functional or symbolic), product category fit does not moderate the spillover effect from brand A to B. This finding suggests that for value-expressive products, the similarity of brand positioning/attributes is a more important contributor to the existing link between brands than the similarity of product categories.

Study 3 used different products (mouthwash, toothpaste, and laundry detergent) to replicate study 1 and the findings further validate the spillover of SR associations as well as the mediating role of CSR associations in the spillover from brand A to B. The study also indicates the behavioral consequences of this spillover, including favorable word of mouth and heightened willingness to pay for brand B, stronger consumer-company identification and positive word of mouth for the company.



### ***Contribution***

This paper not only contributes to the academic research on social responsibility but also offers valuable insights for managers seeking the best allocation of resources on SR initiatives.

#### **Theoretical Contribution**

This research offers a new and broader perspective than extant research on social responsibility that focuses mainly on SR initiatives implemented at the corporate brand level (i.e., *corporate* social responsibility). By integrating associative network theory with that of social responsibility, this paper recognizes the direct and indirect effects of SR activity at the product brand level and reveals the psychological mechanism underlying the SR spillover phenomenon. Moreover, this research explores how corporate branding strategy and product category fit impact the degree to which spillover occurs within a brand portfolio.

#### **Managerial Contribution**

Managers will benefit from a deeper understanding of this spillover phenomenon of SR associations, because it will help them make better decisions about how to allocate scarce resources among numerous brands. For companies with large portfolios of brands, this often means making decisions about which brands are involved in SR activity and which are not. This research will inform managers when and how SR associations are

likely to spillover, thereby enabling them to allocate resources to brands that are most likely to contribute to achieving the goals of the company.

If there is a strong existing link between brands (e.g., due to corporate branding strategy, product category fit, or consistency of brand positioning/attributes), a greater spillover effect will occur within the brand portfolio; thus managers will reap the rewards of SR activity regardless of the level at which it is enacted. However, if the relationship between brands is weaker, because of the resulting less spillover effect, managers should precisely outline their marketing objectives and invest in SR activity at the proper level and brands according to their objectives, since the benefits will be more localized. For example, if managers aim to improve the whole company image and reputation, they need to invest in SR at the corporate level. If the objective is to increase word of mouth behaviors or willingness to pay for some specific product brands, they should implement SR initiatives at the product level with these brands rather than at the corporate level.

## **2. Overview of Paper**

This paper will proceed as follows. In the next chapter, the conceptual underpinnings are discussed by reviewing the relevant literatures on social responsibility, brand portfolio, associative network theory, and the spillover effect in marketing (with an emphasis on the spillover effect in brand portfolios). A conceptual model is then proposed to predict when and how SR associations with a product brand will spill over to both product and corporate level brands within a brand portfolio as well as the

consequences of this spillover effect. Following the conceptual framework, three studies are presented, including the overall design and sample, manipulations, procedures, measures, and results. Finally, the findings are summarized and directions for future research are discussed.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

### 1. Social Responsibility (SR)

#### *Introduction*

Social responsibility (SR) has been brought to a strategic important position in business. Companies that engage in SR activities use discretionary business practices and contributions of corporate resources in order to improve societal welfare (Kotler and Lee 2004). Most of the Fortune 500 companies have invested in various SR initiatives (Kotler and Lee 2004; Lichtenstein, Drumwright, and Braig 2004) such as cause-related marketing and donations to charity (Drumwright and Murphy 2001), allocating millions of dollars in numerous cases every year. For example, Target spent \$107.8 million on SR, which accounted for 3.6% of its pretax profits (Berner 2005, p72).

Companies may implement their SR initiatives at the corporate level or product brand level (Varadarajan and Menon 1988). SR implemented at the organizational level is called “*corporate social responsibility*” (CSR). Meanwhile, companies may also perform SR activities at the level of specific product brands, such as the tie-up of Kimberly-Clark’s Huggies brand of diapers with the Children’s Miracle Network Telethon for the benefit of children hospitals in the U.S. (Varadarajan and Menon 1988).

The SR initiatives pursued by companies can be summarized into six domains (Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini & Co. Inc. 1999): 1) community support (e.g., support of arts and health programs, educational and housing initiatives for families with economic difficulties); 2) diversity initiatives (e.g., gender-,

race-, family-, and disability-based diversity initiatives); 3) employee support (e.g., initiatives that aim to improve job security, profit-sharing, and involvement of employees); 4) environmental initiatives (e.g., environmental friendly products, animal testing, pollution control, recycling); 5) non-US operations (e.g., overseas operations in countries with human rights violations); 6) product issues (e.g., product safety).

Furthermore, Kotler and Lee (2004) divide a company's SR initiatives into six categories from another perspective: 1) *cause promotions*: providing funds or other corporate resources to improve the awareness and concern about a social cause or supporting the participation, fundraising, and volunteer recruitment for the cause; 2) *cause-related marketing*: making a contribution or donating a percentage of revenues to a social cause based on the sales of products; 3) *corporate social marketing*: supporting the development and/or implementation of a behavior change campaign which aims to improve public health, safety, environment, or community welfare; 4) *corporate philanthropy*: making the direct contribution to a charity or cause such as cash grants or donations; 5) *community volunteering*: supporting and encouraging the employees, retail partners, and/or franchise members to volunteer for causes or local community organizations; 6) *socially responsible business practices*: adopting and conducting business practices and investments to support the social causes for improving community well-being and protecting the environment.

The two classifications mentioned above divide SR initiatives from different perspectives: one based on the domain of SR issues and the other mainly based on the form and goal of various SR activities. In extant research, the six SR domains

(Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini & Co. Inc. 1999) are more commonly used by researchers than the categories suggested by Kotler and Lee (2004).

### ***SR Associations***

Dacin and Brown (2002) view social responsibility as one of the two major types of “*corporate associations*” that indicate how individuals think and feel about an organization. The first type is corporate ability (CA) associations, which is related to a company’s ability to develop and produce products; the second type is corporate social responsibility (CSR) associations, which is relevant to whether a company is perceived as socially responsible (Dacin and Brown 2002).

As SR initiatives may be implemented at the corporate level or product brand level (Varadarajan and Menon 1988), SR associations could also be related to the whole company (i.e., CSR associations) or the specific product brands. When a product brand becomes involved in SR initiatives, consumers develop SR associations that they integrate into their concept of this brand and what it stands for (Brown and Dacin 1997). Thus, SR associations may be present at either the corporate level or product brand level, indicating whether individuals perceive the organization or its product brands to be socially responsible (Dacin and Brown 2002).

### *Outcomes of SR Associations*

SR associations are consequential to practitioners and scholars because they drive numerous performance related outcomes. Scholars have conducted much research on the outcomes of SR associations. A main stream of this research focuses on the effects of SR on the responses of different stakeholders (e.g., customers, employees, investors) to a company and its products (e.g., Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Brown and Dacin 1997; Creyer and Ross 1997; Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen 2007; Ellen, Mohr, and Webb 2000; Murray and Vogel 1997; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001; Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun 2006).

At the corporate level, SR associations signal the “value system” (Turban and Greening 1997), “soul” (Chappell 1993), or “character” (Brown and Dacin 1997; Keller and Aaker 1992; Sabir 1995; Stone 1992) of the company. If a company’s values or identity are perceived by consumers to overlap with their own values or identities, consumers are likely to identify with this company (c.f., Sen and Bhattacharya 2001), which is called “*consumer-company identification*” (Bhattacharya and Sen 2003). Extant research on organizational identification (e.g., Bergami and Bagozzi 2000) has examined identification in the context of formal organizational membership such as employees of a company. This research shows that people often identify with an organization they belong to and incorporate the favorable attributes of the organization’s identity into their own identities for the purposes of self-consistency and enhancing self-esteem (Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994). Therefore, organizational identification occurs when people perceive themselves and the organization as sharing the same defining attributes

(Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994). Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) further extend this concept to the context of informal organizational membership such as the relationship between consumers and a company. They argue that consumers may also identify with a company even without the formal membership for two reasons. First, based on social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1985), organizational identification research suggests that people are more likely to identify with an organization when its identity is perceived as enduring, distinctive, and capable of self-enhancement. As a company's character reflected by SR associations are relatively more enduring and distinctive than that revealed by CA associations, consumers' identification with a company is more likely to be influenced by their SR associations. Second, identification with a company which is "doing good" can enhance consumers' self-esteem. Thus, SR associations are expected to increase consumers' identification with a company (Sen and Bhattacharya 2001).

As a result of this identification, consumers will feel that they are members of the company and become psychologically attached to it, thus attempting to help the company by engaging in positive word of mouth behaviors and recruiting people from their own social networks to be new customers for the company (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, and Gruen 2005; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Du, Bhattacharya and Sen 2007). It is also shown that consumers who identify with the company tend to ignore and downplay the negative information about the company when such information is of a relatively minor magnitude (Alsop 2002; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003), because identification will lead them to trust this company and make more charitable attributions about its intentions of making minor mistakes (Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Hibbard et al. 2001; Kramer 1991).



SR associations can also produce company-favoring behaviors at the product level. For example, Brown and Dacin (1997) examine the effects of corporate associations on consumers' product responses. They argue that consumers may use CSR associations to establish a corporate context for evaluating new products. As CSR associations may be helpful for increasing the liking or trustworthiness of the company (Aaker 1996b), it is expected that CSR associations will influence product responses through the overall company evaluation, which is supported by their empirical studies. Additionally, it is demonstrated that positive CSR associations (compared with negative ones) enhance product evaluations.

Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) also show that a company's positive SR record (relative to a negative one) leads to greater purchase intent. They point out that consumers' increased purchase and consumption of products is likely to be a key outcome of their identification with the company, especially when consumption is driven at least partially by the motives of self-expression or self-enhancement (Belk 1988; Kleine, Kleine, and Allen 1995), thus consumer-company identification is a mediator in the effect of SR associations on purchase intent. The study of Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun (2006) further supports the positive effect of SR initiatives on consumers' purchase intention for a company's products.

Similar positive effects of SR associations are also found for consumers' willingness to pay. Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) propose that consumers value SR activity enough that they are disposed to pay more for brands they perceive to be socially responsible, especially when such SR activity is cause-related marketing. In other words, consumers

are willing to pay more when they see a direct relationship between this price premium and the SR initiatives. The additional value of benevolence is calculated by Trudel and Cotte (2008). In their experiment, consumers with SR associations were willing to pay a premium for T-shirts and coffee (4% and 16%, respectively) compared to consumers without said associations.

The effects of SR associations are not restricted to the domain of consumers. It is indicated that SR may also increase a company's attractiveness to potential employees (Greening and Turban 2000; Turban and Greening 1997). Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun (2006) empirically examine the impact of SR on other stakeholders such as employees and investors, showing that awareness of a company's SR initiatives will lead to a greater intention to seek employment and invest in the company.

Besides the research about the impact of SR on stakeholders' reactions to a company and products, some studies also look at the relationship between SR and a company's financial performance (e.g., Coffey and Fryxell 1991; McGuire, Sundgren, and Schneeweis 1988; Stanwick and Stanwick 1998), which show the conflicting results. Some of these studies indicate the positive effect of SR on financial performance (e.g., Fombrun and Shanley 1990; Soloman and Hansen 1985) and some report negative (e.g., Aupperle, Carroll, and Hatfield 1985; McGuire, Sundgren, and Schneeweis 1988) or no relationship (e.g., Freedman and Jaggi 1982). A recent study of Luo and Bhattacharya (2006) examines the influence of SR on firm market value (Tobin's q and stock return). This study demonstrated that for companies with low corporate abilities (i.e., product quality and innovativeness capability), SR initiatives reduced the level of customer

satisfaction and further negatively influenced the company's market value. Conversely, for companies with high level of abilities, SR had a positive effect on market value.

SR associations can bring benefits not only for the company but also for the SR issue or non-profit partner. Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) indicate that a company's SR initiatives have a positive effect on consumers' donations of both money and time (volunteering) to the cause or non-profit organization aligned with the company. The four studies of Lichtenstein et al. (2004) further demonstrate that consumer-company identification is a mediator in this positive relationship between SR and consumers' donations to corporate-supported nonprofit causes. However, it is also shown that consumers are more likely to donate when a company has a poor historical SR record, because consumers may perceive the donation as "an opportunity to do good" by helping the company change its ways. Additionally, the connectedness of the nonprofit domain to the company's previous negative SR domain is indicated to influence this relationship. If the nonprofit is in the same domain as that of the company's SR record, consumers are more likely to perceive the company's current support for the nonprofit as a sincere effort to do the right things now and thus are more willing to donate.

### ***Moderators***

The outcomes mentioned above do not occur uniformly across all situations and for all consumers. The social responsibility literature has documented a number of moderating variables that influence the strength of the SR associations-outcomes relationship, including both the company-related factors such as a company's overall

business strategy, the SR issue chosen by the company, product quality; and individual-related factors such as consumers' support for the SR initiatives and their attributions regarding the company's motivations of engaging in SR (e.g., Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen 2007; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001; Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun 2006).

Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen (2007) investigate the moderating effect of a brand's SR positioning on consumers' reactions to SR. They argue that if a company integrates the SR initiatives into its core business strategy and takes SR as the essence or "soul" of the brand (e.g., Body Shop, Ben and Jerry's), consumers are more likely to have higher SR awareness levels, form more favorable attributions and SR beliefs and even CA beliefs regarding the company's ability to develop and produce good products. The results of their study indicate that the impact of attributions on the SR awareness-SR beliefs relationship is stronger for a SR-positioned brand than for its competitors. Furthermore, the positive relationship between consumers' SR beliefs and various consequences, including consumer-company identification, brand loyalty, and advocacy behaviors such as positive word-of-mouth and resilience to negative information, is shown to be stronger for a brand with SR positioning than for a brand without this positioning.

Bhattacharya and Sen (2001; 2004) identify other potential moderators, such as product quality, SR domain, consumers' support for the SR issue and their SR-CA beliefs. It is demonstrated that the positive effects of SR associations are magnified when the products offered by the company are of high quality and consumers support the societal issue of SR initiative (Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001). Sen and

Bhattacharya (2001) also argue that certain SR domains may have a direct relationship with consumers' CA associations. Previous research (Drumwright 1996; McGee 1998) implies that a company's strategic CA-relevant SR domains (e.g., product safety and innovation) will lead to both the favorable corporate image and positive CA associations. Thus, it is reasonable to expect that a company's SR initiatives in CA-relevant domains will increase consumers' purchase intention for the products of this company. This expectation is validated in the empirical study of Sen and Bhattacharya (2001). On the other hand, consumers' reactions to SR may also be influenced by their SR-CA beliefs about the company. Specifically, consumers who believe that a company's SR activities reinforce its CA development (win-win SR-CA beliefs) show more positive company evaluation than those who believe that such SR engagement detract the company's resources from its CA improvement (trade-off SR-CA beliefs).

Prior research also suggests that people's attributions for the reason underlying a company's SR activity will influence their reactions to SR (Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Forehand and Grier 2003; Klein and Dawar 2004; Lichtenstein et al. 2004; Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun 2006). A company's motives for SR engagement could be of two kinds: extrinsic and intrinsic (Batson 1998). Extrinsic or self-interested motives refer to those with the ultimate goal of increasing the company's own benefits (e.g., increase sales of products); while intrinsic or selfless motives refer to those with the objective of improving the welfare of society (e.g., contribute to the community). SR activity could be attributed to both intrinsic and extrinsic motives (Ellen, Webb, and Mohr 2006). Attribution research (e.g., Fein 1996) shows that stakeholders will appraise the

motivation of a company's SR activity in terms of its genuine concern for the cause or SR issue (i.e., genuine concern motives). The field experiment of Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun (2006) show that the positive effects of SR are stronger for people who make attributions of genuine concern motives than those who do not. Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) further put forward two factors that may affect attributions: the company's current reputation and the fit between the company and the cause. Specifically, people are more likely to doubt a company's motive if it has a negative reputation and engages in the SR initiative which has a close relationship with its business (e.g., Philip Morris's programs and initiatives to reduce underage tobacco use).

Furthermore, Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) find that a company's reputation, size, and demographics also will influence the outcomes of SR. For example, belonging to certain industries (e.g., oil, tobacco, and alcohol) may decrease the positive effects of SR, as consumers tend to make unfavorable attributions for the motives of these companies to engage in SR. Also, if a company has good reputation, consumers are more likely to be aware of and make favorable attributions for its SR involvement, thus increasing the effects of SR. However, it should be noted that if the company has an extremely good reputation, SR may not contribute much to it because of the ceiling effect.

Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) also indicate that the characteristics of the company's target consumers will have an impact on their responses to SR, such as their disposable income. For example, consumers may have positive attitude toward a company's SR activity but they might not have enough money to purchase the products due to their high prices.

Another important factor that may moderate the SR associations-outcomes relationship is the SR engagement of competitors (Bhattacharya and Sen 2004). If a company's key competitors also involve in the similar SR initiatives, the positive effects of SR will decrease for this company, as consumers tend to take SR for granted rather than as a special advantage of the company. Therefore, distinctiveness of SR activity is also expected to enhance its effects, as it will attract consumers' attentions and make the company stand apart from other competitors.

### *Summary*

Overall, the social responsibility literature points to three main insights. First, SR associations may be observed at multiple levels of the brand portfolio (i.e., the corporate brand or product brand level). Second, SR associations at both the corporate and product brand levels produce various outcomes that may benefit the company (e.g., purchase intent, willingness to pay, consumer-company identification, word of mouth). Third, the effects of SR associations are dependent upon the overall business strategy of the company and other situational factors.

Previous research mainly focuses on the effects of SR initiatives implemented at the level of the whole organization (i.e., CSR). However, companies may choose to perform SR activities at the specific product brands (Varadarajan and Menon 1988), which is a pervasive phenomenon in business world. Thus, it is quite important to look at SR from another perspective – exploring the outcomes of SR at the product brand level. This new perspective will not only offer a deeper understanding of the consequences of SR activity

but also help managers make better decisions on which level or brands should be involved in SR.

Another research gap in extant literature of social responsibility is that little research has systematically examined the influence of a company's SR initiatives on its whole brand portfolio. Although prior studies look at the influence of SR on consumers' reactions to either the company or its products (e.g., Brown and Dacin 1997; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001; Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun 2006), none of them take the full portfolio of brands into consideration and explore whether SR activity reverberates throughout the brand portfolio. This question is especially important for those companies with complex brand portfolios, as it will be more difficult for them to decide how to allocate valuable resources among numerous brands when investing in SR.

The following section provides the relevant conceptual background to better understand the structure of a brand portfolio, the corporate branding strategies used by companies to name its products in the portfolio, and the differences between corporate brand and product brand.

## **2. Brand Portfolio**

### ***Introduction***

In today's competitive business environment, brand extensions, endorsed brands, and subbrands lead to more complex brand portfolios, which have created a new discipline



called “brand architecture” that specifies the roles of brands and the nature of the relationship between these brands in a brand portfolio (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000).

Brand portfolios can be divided into three major types based on the corporate branding strategies used by companies to label their specific products (Laforet and Saunders 1994; Olins 1989). First is the “endorsed” branding strategy, which means labeling a product by the product brand and corporate brand together, such as Simply Home from Campbell’s, or Polo Jeans by Ralph Lauren (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000). The second strategy uses the corporate brand to label all the offerings, which is called the “monolithic” branding strategy. For example, GE and Virgin use the corporate name on all its products and services (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000). The third one is the “stand-alone” branding strategy, which uses distinct product brand names that are not connected to the corporate brand. A good example is Procter & Gamble, which has more than 80 product brands and most of these brands have little relationship to the corporate brand or among themselves (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000).

Besides these three basic branding strategies, Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) also put forward some substrategies such as shadow endorser, linked name, and subbrands. Shadow endorser is a subcategory of stand-alone strategy. A shadow-endorser brand has no visible relationship to the corporate brand but many consumers know about the link, such as Lexus (Toyota) and Saturn (GM). Linked name and subbrands are the two variants of endorsed strategy. A linked brand name with common elements creates an implicit or implied relationship to the corporate brand, such as McMuffin (McDonald’s)

and Nestea (Nestle). Subbrands reinforce or modify the associations of the corporate brand, such as HP DeskJet and Sony Trinitron.

Next, the differences between corporate brand and product brand will be further discussed.

### ***Corporate Brand vs. Product Brand***

Corporate branding can be viewed as a development of traditional product branding, which emphasizes the increasing influence of the organization behind the product brands (Knox and Bickerton 2003). Corporate branding draws on the tradition of product branding with the same objective of creating differentiation and preference in consumers' minds (Knox and Bickerton 2003). But it differs from product branding in two important ways. Firstly, the focus of corporate branding shifts from individual products/services to the entire organization (Gylling and Lindberg-Repo 2006). Corporate branding is more complex than product branding, as the broader scope of corporate brand requires managers to think at the level of organization and take all stakeholder groups into consideration rather than only individual products/services (Gylling and Lindberg-Repo 2006; Knox and Bickerton 2003). Another major difference between corporate branding and product branding is the audiences that the brand relates to in terms of attraction and support (Gylling and Lindberg-Repo 2006). A product brand is related to its consumers, while the audiences for a corporate brand go beyond customers to include all stakeholders including internal (e.g., employees) and external (e.g., customers, distributors, suppliers, stockholders) constituencies (Gylling and Lindberg-Repo 2006;

King 1991). Instead of relating to customers through the products with product brands, organizations use corporate brands to relate to all stakeholders and to the products through their relationships with the organization (Hatch and Schultz 2003).

As the corporate brand has received much attention in both academic and practitioner literatures in recent years (e.g., Bickerton 2000; Gray and Balmer 2001; Ind 2001; Olins 2000), currently a brand portfolio not only includes the product brands but also contains the corporate brand defining the company that produces and stands behind these product brands (Aaker 2004). A corporate brand will potentially include a rich heritage, assets and capabilities, people, values and priorities, local or global orientation, citizenship programs (social responsibility), and company performance and size (Aaker 2004).

Developing and managing a corporate brand at the level of the organization can provide an economic value (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 1999; Fombrun and Van Riel 1997; Greyser 1999) and a sustainable competitive advantage for a company (Balmer and Gray 2003). A strong corporate brand can serve as a differentiation tool in an increasingly competitive business environment, provide credibility and a basis for the customer relationship to augment that of the product brands, facilitate brand management, communicate consistent image and values to stakeholders, and enhance the esteem and loyalty in which the organization is held by its stakeholders (Aaker 2004; Balmer 2001; Gylling and Lindberg-Repo 2006).

### *Summary*

The type of a brand portfolio is determined by the corporate branding strategy used by a company to name its products. Generally there are three basic strategies (Laforet and Saunders 1994; Olins 1989): monolithic, endorsed, and stand-alone. Monolithic branding strategy uses the same name for both the corporate and product brands. Endorsed strategy uses different names for product brands but displays the corporate brand as well, therefore showing a visible link between brands to consumers. Stand-alone strategy that uses the distinct names for different products without showing the corporate brand indicates little or no relationship among brands in the portfolio.

As the corporate brand has received more attention in both academia and business, it becomes an essential part of a company's brand portfolio. The corporate brand defines the whole organization that produces individual products and emphasizes the importance of a company in the process of marketing its products; thus the corporate brand has a much broader range than the product-level brands. Furthermore, the corporate brand can bring a sustainable competitive advantage and other benefits to the company. Much research has examined the influence of a strong corporate brand on the specific product brands (e.g., Aaker 2004). However, do product brands also have any impact on the corporate brand? As a part of this research, I explore this question in the context of social responsibility. Specifically, I examine the influence of a product brand's SR initiatives on consumers' reactions to the corporate brand.

The main theoretical foundation of my approach – associative network theory, and other relevant theories will be explained in the next section.

### **3. Associative Network Theory**

#### ***Introduction***

According to associative network theory (Anderson 1983; Collins and Loftus 1975), information is stored in the brain in a network of cognitive units encoding various facts. Each cognitive unit consists of a node and a set of the associated elements. This cognitive unit can be of any character, such as propositions, words, or images. For example, a proposition is a cognitive unit where the elements are the relations or arguments of this proposition and the node is the proposition itself. A concept can also be represented as a node with its properties as the associated elements with this concept.

The association between a node and an element is strengthened when they are simultaneously activated by external stimuli such as new information or personal experiences. The activation of this node and its associated element will spread to the related nodes in the network through the pre-existing links between these nodes. This spreading activation will activate the related nodes and strengthen their associations with the primed element, which is known as the “spillover” effect.

Moreover, the level of activation of the related nodes in the network reflects the strength of their existing links to the source nodes. For instance, the stronger the existing

relationship between two concepts, the higher level of spreading activation from one to the other can be expected.

Besides associative network theory, other theories such as categorization theory also imply that such a “spillover” may occur among related objects, and are introduced next.

### *Relevant Theories*

Consumer research suggests that people may evaluate a product in one of the two ways: piecemeal or category-based processing (Fiske 1982; Sujan 1985).

With piecemeal processing, evaluation is a function of the inferred product attribute beliefs and their perceived evaluative importance (Anderson 1974, 1981). In this process, consumers combine the pieces of product attribute information to make the overall judgment (Anderson 1974; Fiske 1982). The main principle underlying this approach is information integration theory, which describes the process by which all relevant informational stimuli are combined to form beliefs or attitudes (Anderson 1971, 1981). According to this theory, people form and modify their attitudes or beliefs when they receive, interpret, evaluate, and then integrate the stimuli information with their existing opinions or attitudes. Furthermore, the more salient or accessible their existing attitudes toward an object, the more likely they will access these attitudes when they are exposed to the stimuli associated with this object (Fazio 1986, 1989) and thus will bias their information processing of the stimuli in a direction implied by the valence of their existing attitudes (Fazio and Williams 1986; Houston and Fazio 1989). Similarly, it is

indicated that consumers' evaluations of a product or service are influenced by the perceptual or evaluative characteristics of the material in close proximity to this product or service (Lynch, Chakravarti, and Mitra 1991).

An alternative to the piecemeal approach is category-based processing, whereby the evaluation of a new stimulus is a function of the overall attitude toward the category it belongs to (Cohen 1982; Cohen and Basu 1987; Fiske 1982; Fiske and Pavelchak 1986; Mervis and Rosch 1981; Rosch 1975; Smith and Medin 1981). The theoretical basis of this approach is categorization theory, which suggests that evaluation is guided by the categorization of the product rather than the processing of its individual attributes (Sujan 1985). It is also shown in categorization research that people's general affect can be transferred from one object to another (Gilovich 1981; Read 1983). Based on categorization theory, research of brand extensions (i.e., using an established brand name to enter a new product category) suggest that with category-based processing, if consumers perceive a similarity or "fit" between the product category of the original brand and that of the extension, their attitude toward the original brand will be transferred to the extension (Aaker and Keller 1990).

Affect transfer implied in categorization theory is similar to the spillover effect in associative network theory. Both these two theories propose that people's perceptions or evaluations of one object would influence another related one through some similarities between these objects. However, categorization theory only focuses on the similarity of product category; while the existing links between nodes in an associative network can be formed not only by product category similarity but also by other characteristics such as

name, phonetic, or goal similarity (Ratneshwar, Pechmann, and Shocker 1996). Thus associative network theory provides a more general representation of the relatedness between nodes or objects (Lei, Dawar, and Lemmink 2008).

Another relevant theory is classical conditioning, which refers to the procedure that produces the conditioned responses (Pavlov 1927). Pavlov's conditioning procedure begins with presenting a conditioned stimulus (CS), and then follows by presenting an unconditioned stimulus (US). The US automatically evokes an unconditioned response (UR). After pairing the CS with the US enough times, the CS will be able to elicit a conditioned response (CR) which is similar to but not always identical to the UR. A modern cognitive perspective views this classical conditioning process as the cognitive learning of the associations among events in the environment, which improves the traditional perspective that views conditioning as a simple reflexive and simple-minded learning (e.g., Furedy, Riley, and Fredrikson 1983; Holland 1984; Holyoak, Koh, and Nisbett 1989).

The implications of classical conditioning for consumer behavior have attracted much attention from consumer researchers. For example, Nord and Peter (1980) argued that classical conditioning might increase consumers' preferences for the product in television advertising, because the positive feeling (UR) evoked by a pleasant US (e.g., music, famous characters) could become a CR to the CS (i.e., product) through pairing it with the US in the advertisement. Similarly, Shimp (1981) used this classical conditioning perspective to explain the reasoning behind the transfer of consumers' attitude toward an advertisement to their attitude toward the advertised brand.



Overall, there are two important features of classical conditioning that distinguish it from other theories: 1) it is a procedure (and the resultant learning process) to build a relationship between two stimuli; 2) this relation is established through enough trials of pairing the stimuli together (usually the CS precedes the US). Affect transfer in categorization theory and “spillover” in associative network theory occur based on the existing relationship between different related objects which is formed by their similarities in terms of category membership or other characteristics. However, in classical conditioning, the response to the CS is elicited through creating a link between the CS and the US, which could be completely unrelated objects before the conditioning procedure such as bell (CS) and food (US) used by Pavlov (1927).

### *Summary*

Associative network theory (Anderson 1983; Collins and Loftus 1975) suggests that the activation of one node and its associated element can spread to other related nodes in the network through the preexisting links between these nodes, leading to the activation of the related nodes and strengthening their associations with the primed element. This process of spreading activation reveals the psychological mechanism underlying the “spillover” effect.

Other theories also imply that such a “spillover” may occur from one object to the related ones. For example, categorization theory points to a transfer of affect in category-based processing, which suggests that people’s attitude toward one object could be transferred to another if they perceive a similarity of product categories between these

objects. Similarly, information integration theory implies that people's evaluations of a new stimulus will be influenced by their existing attitudes toward the objects that are associated with this stimulus. However, classical conditioning is quite different from these theories, which is about creating the association between two stimuli.

The basic reasoning underlying the affect transfer in categorization theory is similar to that of the spillover effect in associative network theory. Both argue that "spillover" occurs based on the similarities of related objects or nodes. However, associative network theory offers a more complete picture than categorization theory. The former reflects the spillover effect that is driven by the relatedness through the similarity of both product category and other characteristics, while the latter only indicates the spillover caused by product category similarity.

The following section will provide a deeper understanding of the spillover effect in marketing, especially that occurred in brand portfolios.

#### **4. Spillover Effect**

##### ***Introduction***

Based on associative network theory (Anderson 1983; Collins and Loftus 1975), spillover effect refers to the influence of the activation of one node and its associated elements on the related nodes through the existing relationship between the source node and the destination nodes. Thus, spillover effect arises among the related nodes or objects.

For example, consumers' attitude toward a brand can be transferred to its extension through their similarity or "fit" in product categories (Aaker and Keller 1990).

"*Halo effect*" seems similar to spillover effect and may be easily confused with the latter by researchers. For example, Ahluwalia et al. (2001) take the influence of a message communicating some attributes of a brand on consumers' beliefs of other attributes not mentioned in the message as a "spillover" effect, which actually is a "halo" effect. Halo effect refers to a cognitive bias whereby people's perception of an object's individual traits is influenced by their former perception of other attributes of this object (Thorndike 1920). Thorndike (1920) indicates that people tend to rate a person on some attributes biased by their previous perceptions of other attributes of the same person. Consumer researchers also demonstrate this halo effect in product or brand evaluation (e.g., Beckwith and Lehmann 1975; Han 1989; Holbrook 1983), showing that consumers' overall evaluation is usually biased by their ratings on some specific attributes.

Therefore, the main difference between "halo" and "spillover" effect is that the latter takes place between different objects, while the former reflects the perceptual distortion occurring on one object.

### ***Spillover Effect in Marketing***

Prior research indicate that the spillover effect may occur in various marketing activities, such as unexpected changes in price or quality of products, advertising, sales

promotion, or brand alliances (e.g., Balachander and Ghose 2003; Erdem and Sun 2002; Janakiraman et al. 2006; Simonin and Ruth 1998).

Janakiraman et al. (2006) explore the spillover effect of unexpected changes in the marketing mix of an essential good on consumers' demand for other discretionary products in a retail setting. They argue that retailers could enhance consumers' overall spending levels through unexpected changes in the selling features of a single product (e.g., price drops or quality improvements) based on three potential psychological mechanisms: 1) generalized affect – by inducing the general positive affect of consumers (Heilman et al. 2002; Lerner et al. 2004); 2) attribution theory – by triggering consumers' specific affective responses attributed directly to the retailer such as gratitude which leads consumers to reward the retailer (Morales 2005; Weiner 1974, 2000); 3) mental accounting – by increasing the perceived affordability of other products (Heath and Soll 1996; Thaler 1985). The results of two shopping experiments verify the proposed spillover effect of unexpected positive or negative changes in price or quality of a product, indicating that positive surprises increase consumers' total spending and negative shocks reduce the purchases of other products. It is also shown that attribution theory provides the best explanation for this spillover effect.

Erdem and Sun (2002) investigate the spillover effects of marketing mix in umbrella branding, indicating that advertising, price, coupon availability, and display of the umbrella brand in one product category could influence the sales in another product category. They also find that advertising spillover effect occurs because advertising in one category can reduce consumer uncertainty for another category.

Furthermore, the research of Balachander and Ghose (2003) focuses on the reciprocal advertising spillover effect of the brand extensions on the parent brand choice. They distinguish between the “*forward*” spillover effect which is from the parent brand to its extensions and the “*reciprocal*” spillover effect that is from the extensions to the parent brand. A reciprocal advertising spillover effect is anticipated based on two theories. First, the information economies theory suggests that economies of information can be realized in advertising when an umbrella brand is used for different products (Aaker 1996b; Morein 1975), thereby decreasing the advertising expenditures for each product (Smith 1992). Second, according to associative network theory (Anderson 1983), the activation of the brand extension node when exposed to its advertising will spread to the parent brand node through the existing link between these nodes. The results from the scanner panel data of two product categories support this expected reciprocal spillover effect and further demonstrate that this effect is stronger than the forward spillover effect, especially for the recently introduced extensions.

Simonin and Ruth (1998) examine the spillover effects of brand alliances that involve the combination of two or more individual brands or products (Rao and Ruekert 1994). Based on information integration theory, they propose that consumers’ prior attitudes toward the partner brands will influence their attitudes toward the brand alliance and the brand alliance evaluation will further influence their subsequent attitudes toward the partner brands. Moreover, consumers’ familiarity with the partner brands is expected to have an impact on the strength of these spillover effects. For a familiar brand, as brand-related experiences and associations are extensive (Bettman and Sujan 1987),

consumers' existing attitude toward this brand is more stable and accessible. Conversely, for a relatively unfamiliar brand, consumers' existing attitude may be either unformed or weak in terms of the attitude strength and accessibility (Fazio 1986, 1989). Therefore, Simonin and Ruth (1998) predict that the partner brand with higher level of familiarity exerts a greater influence on the brand alliance; while the attitude toward brand alliance has a stronger spillover effect on the partner brand with lower level of familiarity. The findings of their empirical studies support these expectations.

### ***Spillover Effect in Brand Portfolios***

The spillover effect also has been shown to occur in brand portfolios (Lei, Dawar, and Lemmink 2008). As brand knowledge can be viewed as containing a brand node associated with various elements such as brand attributes and brand evaluation (Keller 1993; Morrin 1999), a brand portfolio can be conceptualized as an associative network consisting of the interrelated brand nodes and their associated elements (Lei, Dawar, and Lemmink 2008). Figure 1 illustrates an example of an associative brand network consisting of three brand nodes (A, B, and C) and their associated elements such as “innovative” and “fashionable”.

The spillover effect in a brand portfolio may include the retrieval and updating of the related brand nodes in this associative brand network (Lei, Dawar, and Lemmink 2008). When a brand node (“origin brand”) and its associated elements are primed by external stimuli, the activation of this origin brand and its associations will spread to the related brand nodes (“destination brand”) in the network through the existing link between the

origin brand and the destination brand, which leads to the retrieval and activation of the latter (Lei, Dawar, and Lemmink 2008). Moreover, an updating of the destination brand occurs when people are exposed to the valenced information of the origin brand (e.g., Olson and Zanna 1993). For example, Lei, Dawar, and Lemmink (2008) examine the negative spillover effect in brand portfolios and indicate that people develop a negative evaluation of the destination brand when they are exposed to information about a product-harm crisis of the origin brand.

Furthermore, it is shown in previous research that the magnitude of spillover effect is influenced by the strength of the existing relationship between the origin brand and destination brand (e.g., Roehm and Tybout 2006). Lei et al. (2008) further explore the impact of the directional strength of the existing link between brands on the spillover effect in a brand portfolio as well as the antecedents of this relationship asymmetry. They argue that the relationship between brands can point in both directions and such directional strength is a critical predictor of the pattern of spillover effects. For example, they expect that the spillover effect from subbrand to parent brand is influenced by the subbrand-parent brand link rather than the parent brand-subbrand link. And the spillover effect from subbrand A to B is proposed to be stronger than that from A to C when the A-B link is stronger than the A-C link. As expected, the results of their experiments show that the magnitude of the spillover effect is a function of both the strength and directionality of the brand relationship. Moreover, they indicate that the directional strength of the brand relationship is influenced by the number and salience of brand

associations. Specifically, the link from a brand with salient or fewer associations to another brand with weak or more associations is stronger than the reciprocal link.

### *Summary*

The spillover effect differs from the halo effect in that “spillover” occurs among different related objects while the latter reflects the perceptual bias when evaluating a single object. In particular, halo effect arises when people’s evaluation of some attributes of an object is influenced by their previous perception of other attributes of this object (Thorndike 1920). However, spillover effect is generated from one object to the related ones based on the existing link between these objects (Anderson 1983; Collins and Loftus 1975).

The spillover effect occurs in a brand portfolio which can be viewed as an associative network including the related brand nodes and their associated elements such as brand attributes (Lei, Dawar, and Lemmink 2008). The spreading activation of one brand node and its associations results in the activation and updating of the related brand nodes in this network. Furthermore, it is demonstrated that this spillover effect is affected by the strength of the existing link between the origin brand and the destination brands (e.g., Roehm and Tybout 2006).



## **Chapter 3: Conceptual Model**

### **1. Introduction**

Based on insights from associative network theory and extant research on social responsibility and the spillover effect in brand portfolios, a conceptual model (see Figure 2) is proposed, predicting when and how SR associations will spillover from an origin product brand (A) to another product brand (B) and the corporate brand (C), and how this spreading activation of SR associations will result in a number of company-favoring outcomes. In short, it is proposed that SR associations with a brand node will spill over to other related brand nodes in the portfolio through the existing links between these brands, which are influenced by a company's branding strategy and the product category fit between the two product brands.

### **2. Spillover Effect of a Product Brand's SR Initiatives**

As mentioned before, consumers may have various associations with a brand, thus a brand node is usually associated with a set of elements such as brand attributes and consumers' overall evaluation of the brand (Keller 1993). According to prior research on social responsibility, consumers' awareness of SR initiatives is an antecedent of their SR associations (e.g., Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen 2007; Klein and Dawar 2004; Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun 2006). This occurs because the exposure to information about a brand's SR initiatives will simultaneously activate both the brand node and the element "socially responsible," strengthening the association

between them (shown as line  $i$  in Figure 1). Therefore, it is presumed that consumers who become aware of product brand A's SR initiatives will view this brand as more socially responsible than consumers who are not exposed to such information.

The social responsibility associations with brand A can be expected to spillover to other brands within a brand portfolio. This is because – as proposed by associative network theory – when SR information of brand A is presented to a consumer, the activation of this brand node and its SR associations will spread to the related brand nodes B and C through the existing links between A and these destination brands (lines marked as  $j$  in Figure 1). This spreading activation of the origin brand A and its SR associations will lead to the activation of the destination brands B and C and strengthen their associations with social responsibility (lines marked as  $k$  in Figure 1). Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

**H1:** Social responsibility associations with another product brand of the company (B) will be stronger for consumers who are aware of a product brand (A)'s social responsibility initiatives than consumers who are unaware.

**H2:** Social responsibility associations with the corporate brand (C) will be stronger for consumers who are aware of a product brand (A)'s social responsibility initiatives than consumers who are unaware.

### 3. Moderators Affecting the Spillover Effect

Having established the reasoning for SR associations to spillover from brand A to other related brands in the portfolio, the second research question is: under what conditions is the magnitude of this spillover effect stronger?

According to associative network theory (Anderson 1983; Collins and Loftus 1975), the activation level of the destination node is driven by the strength of its existing link to the source node. The more characteristics two nodes have in common, the more closely related are these two nodes through these similarities and the stronger the relationship between the nodes. In a brand portfolio, the stronger link between brands (lines marked as  $j$  in Figure 1) makes the information of the origin brand more important and diagnostic at the destination brand (Chapman and Aylesworth 1999), thus a greater spillover effect can be expected. It is also shown in previous research that the magnitude of the spillover effect is a function of the strength of the preexisting relationship between brands. For example, Roehm and Tybout (2006) find that the more perceived similarity between the attributes of a brand and its competing brand, the stronger the spillover effect of the former's scandal to the latter.

Besides the shared attributes, the existing link between brands can also be formed by other ways such as brand name and product category similarity, which haven't been examined in prior research of spillover effect. Therefore, two potential moderators affecting the magnitude of SR spillover effect are proposed here – corporate branding strategy and product category fit between two product brands, which are discussed next.

### ***Moderating Influence of Corporate Branding Strategy***

As inference of the brand relatedness can be made through the use of common or similar brand names (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000), corporate branding strategy is an important contributor to the existing link between brands.

As reviewed before, there are three generic branding strategies used by companies to label their specific products: stand-alone, monolithic, and endorsed (Laforet and Saunders 1994; Olins 1989). In the *monolithic branding strategy*, products are branded with the name of the company, thus all brands in the portfolio are sharing the same name. For example, BMW and Virgin each use the corporate brand to market all products and services making the company indistinguishable from its products to consumers (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000). The *endorsed branding strategy* uses distinct brand names for products, but with the corporate brand displayed as well. Examples include Toyota Camry and Courtyard by Marriott. In the *stand-alone branding strategy*, products are sold with distinct names that are completely unrelated to the corporate brand and each other. Examples of companies using this strategy include General Motors, which operates the Saturn, Chevy and Hummer brands, and Procter & Gamble, which has more than 80 product brands (e.g., Tide, Crest) that historically have little relationship to each other and the corporate brand (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000).

These branding strategies differ by the degree to which brands are related to one another through their brand names; monolithic has the strongest link, endorsed has moderate link, and stand-alone has weak or no link. Thus I expect the greatest spillover

for companies using the monolithic strategy and the weakest (little or no) spillover for those using the stand-alone strategy.

**H3a:** The spillover effect from a product brand (A)'s social responsibility initiatives to another product brand of the company (B) will be moderated by corporate branding strategy, such that: monolithic > endorsed > stand-alone.

**H3b:** The spillover effect from a product brand (A)'s social responsibility initiatives to the corporate brand (C) will be moderated by corporate branding strategy, such that: monolithic > endorsed > stand-alone.

### ***Moderating Influence of Product Category Fit***

Inference of the link between two product brands can also be made through the similarity of their product categories (e.g., Aaker and Keller 1990; Keller and Aaker 1992). In research of brand extensions, the similarity between the product category of the extension and that of the original brand is called "*product category fit*" (Bhat and Reddy 1997). Aaker and Keller (1990) identify three dimensions of product category fit: the extent to which consumers view two products as complements or substitutes, and the degree to which the perceived ability of the company in producing the original product overlaps with the ability of producing the extension. It is demonstrated that product category fit influences the affect transfer from the original brand to its extension; in the condition of low "fit", consumers' attitude toward the original brand may not be transferred to the extension (Aaker and Keller 1990; Dacin and Smith 1994; Park, Milberg, and Lawson 1991).

Based on prior research, it is reasonable to expect a stronger spillover effect from product brand A to B if there is a high “fit” between the product categories of these two brands. In contrast, when the “fit” is low, the link between A and B through product category membership is weaker and thus may decrease the spillover effect.

**H4:** The spillover effect from a product brand (A)’s social responsibility initiatives to another product brand of the company (B) will be stronger when product category fit between these two product brands is high than when it is low.

#### **4. Outcomes of the Spillover Effect**

The effects proposed above are interesting, but ultimately inconsequential unless they result in behaviors on the part of consumers. I now turn to explore the third research question: what are the outcomes of the spillover effect of brand A’s SR initiatives on consumers’ reactions to brand B and C? First I look at the consequences of the spillover effect from product brand A to B and then the outcomes of spillover to corporate brand C.

##### ***Outcomes of the Spillover Effect from A to B***

As reviewed previously, extant research shows that SR associations drive consumer behaviors related to purchase of a company’s products. For example, Sen et al. (2006) find that awareness of SR initiatives will lead to increased purchase intent and this effect is mediated by SR associations. Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) also indicate that a company’s positive SR record will result in greater purchase intent of the products

offered by this company. Furthermore, Du et al. (2007) find that a host of relational behaviors, such as positive word of mouth, are a function of SR associations. Positive effects of SR associations are also found for willingness to pay. For instance, Trudel and Cotte (2008) show that consumers with SR associations are willing to pay more, especially for those who strongly support the same SR issue that the company supports.

Based on these findings, it is reasonable to predict that the spillover of SR associations to other product brands will produce similar results. In other words, when consumers are aware of brand A's SR initiatives, due to the spillover effect from A to B, they will be more willing to purchase, speak positively about brand B to others, and be willing to pay a higher price for brand B.

**H5:** The spillover effect from a product brand (A)'s social responsibility initiatives to another product brand of the company (B) will be positively related to consumers' purchase intent of the latter.

**H6:** The spillover effect from a product brand (A)'s social responsibility initiatives to another product brand of the company (B) will be positively related to consumers' positive word of mouth for the latter.

**H7:** The spillover effect from a product brand (A)'s social responsibility initiatives to another product brand of the company (B) will be positively related to the price consumers are willing to pay for the latter.

### *Outcomes of the Spillover Effect from A to C*

At the corporate level, SR associations indicate the underlying values (Turban and Greening 1997) or “character” (Brown and Dacin 1997; Keller and Aaker 1992; Sabir 1995; Stone 1992) that define a company for consumers. When a consumer’s sense of the company overlaps with his or her sense of self, the consumer will identify as a member of the company (Belch and Belch 1987; Dacin and Brown 2002). As identification with a company involving in SR activities could enhance consumers’ self-esteem, it is expected that SR associations will increase consumers’ identification with the company. This positive effect of SR associations on consumer-company identification has been established empirically in many studies (c.f., Sen and Bhattacharya 2001).

Moreover, SR associations are shown to elicit positive word of mouth behaviors about the company for two reasons (Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen 2007). First, consumers want to publicize their relationship with the company because it provides the individual with a source of prestige due to the social desirability of SR. Second, consumers will strive to support the company’s ability to continue their good works by encouraging others to provide it with additional revenues.

Overall, the spillover effect from product brand A to corporate brand C can be expected to result in increased consumer-company identification and positive word of mouth about the company. Therefore, I formulate the following hypotheses:



**H8:** The spillover effect from a product brand (A)'s social responsibility initiatives to the corporate brand (C) will be positively related to consumers' identification with the company.

**H9:** The spillover effect from a product brand (A)'s social responsibility initiatives to the corporate brand (C) will be positively related to consumers' positive word of mouth for the company.

## 5. Summary

According to the proposed conceptual model, when consumers are aware of product brand A's SR initiatives, the activation of brand A and its SR associations will spread to another product brand B and corporate brand C in the portfolio through the pre-existing links between brand A and the destination brands (B and C), thus consumers will have stronger SR associations with B and C than those who are unaware. Furthermore, as the existing brand relationship can be engendered by the similarity of either brand name or product category, it is anticipated that these spillover effects will be stronger for the companies using the monolithic branding strategy than those using the endorsed or stand-alone strategies; and the spillover effect between two product brands will be stronger in the condition of high (vs. low) product category fit. The spillover of SR associations is also expected to produce several company-favoring outcomes, including greater purchase intent, positive word of mouth, and higher willingness to pay for product brand B as well as the enhanced consumer-company identification and positive word of mouth behaviors for corporate brand C.

## Chapter 4: Method and Findings

### 1. Overview

Three studies with a 2<sup>3</sup> between-subjects experimental design were conducted to test the proposed conceptual model. The undergraduate students at a large private university in the Northeastern United States participated in these studies. As a motivation to participate, students were rewarded 1/2 extra-credit point over their final grades of the respective course. In each experiment, they first read a scenario and then answered a paper-and-pencil questionnaire.

The first study examined the conceptual model in the context of utilitarian products (frozen yogurt, ice cream, and soft drink) and found support for the hypotheses about the spillover effect of product brand A's SR initiatives, the moderators affecting this spillover effect (i.e., corporate branding strategy and product category fit), and the outcomes of the spillover effect from brand A to corporate brand C (i.e., greater consumer-company identification and positive word of mouth for the company). The second study investigated the spillover effect of brand A's SR initiatives and the moderating influence of product category fit in the setting of value-expressive products (running shoes, T-shirt, and watch). This study confirmed the spillover effect from brand A to both product brand B and corporate brand C, but indicated no significant moderating influence of product category fit when the two product brands (A and B) shared the same brand positioning/attributes (symbolic or functional). The third study used different utilitarian products (mouthwash, toothpaste, and laundry detergent) to replicate the first

experiment and further validated the spillover of SR associations and its behavioral outcomes including positive word of mouth intent and higher willingness to pay for brand B as well as heightened c-c identification and positive word of mouth for the company.

Each study will be discussed next, which includes the design and sample, manipulations, procedure, measures, and results.

## 2. Study 1

### *Method*

#### **Design and Sample**

One hundred and twenty one subjects (48% male; age 19-29) were randomly assigned to one of the eight conditions based on a 2<sup>3</sup> between-subjects experimental design: *description of SR initiatives* for brand A: present or absent; *corporate branding strategy*: monolithic or endorsed strategy; and *product category fit* between brand A and B: high or low fit. For stand-alone branding strategy, a fictitious competing brand was included in the instrument to represent the stand-alone brand. As mentioned before, the sample consists of undergraduate students at a large university in the Northeastern United States.

#### **Stimuli**

In the condition of SR awareness (present SR description), brand A was described as being “*committed to bettering the world through its social responsibility initiatives,*”

which supports a nation-wide nutrition program that aims to enhance awareness of good nutrition and promote a healthy and active lifestyle among young people. In the condition of no SR awareness (absent SR description), this information was not included in the scenario.

To manipulate corporate branding strategy, the company name (“*Meadow’s*”) was used to name its two product brands in the monolithic branding strategy condition; while in the condition of endorsed branding strategy, the company name was included after the names of brand A (“*Riverfield*”) and brand B (“*Brookside*”) with the word “by” (Berens, Riel, and Bruggen 2005).

As *product category fit* can be operationalized as the extent to which consumers view two products as complements or substitutes (Aaker and Keller 1990), substitute products were used in the high fit condition in this experiment, and complementary products were used in the next study. A pretest with a sample of 52 subjects was conducted to determine the product stimuli. In the pretest, subjects indicated their perceived product category fit between frozen yogurt and ice cream as well as soft drink, which is measured by four items adapted from Bhat and Reddy (2001) (see Appendix A for the specific measures). According to the results of this pretest, frozen yogurt (brand A) and ice cream (brand B) were used as the product stimuli in the high fit condition, while soft drink was used as the product for brand B in the low fit condition ( $F(1, 49) = 91.92$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $M_{\text{high}} = 4.57$  vs.  $M_{\text{low}} = 1.71$ ).

The specific scenario in each condition is presented in the Appendix B.

## **Procedure**

After reading a scenario describing a fictitious company and its two product brands (A and B), subjects first indicated their purchase intent, word of mouth intent, and the price they were willing to pay for brand B as well as their identification with the company and intended word of mouth behaviors for the company. They then indicated their social responsibility associations with each brand (two product brands and the corporate brand C) in the portfolio as well as a competing fictitious brand representing the stand-alone brand. Then subjects responded to the manipulation check items for product category fit between two product brands along with several control measures including the perceived quality of brand B, product involvement, and their support for the SR initiatives of brand A. They also answered an open-ended question that asked them to write down all thoughts when reading the scenario, regardless of whether the thoughts refer to the company or its products or something else unrelated to the scenario.

## **Measures**

All measures are adapted from previous research. Seven-point scales were used, except for the item of willingness to pay and the visual item of consumer-company identification. A full set of items is available in the Appendix A.

### **A. Dependent Variables**

For product brand B, the outcome variables include purchase intent, word of mouth intent, and willingness to pay. Purchase intent was measured with a three-item scale based on previous studies (c.f., Grewal, Monroe, and Krishnan 1998; Petroschius and

Monroe 1987). A four-item scale was used to measure word of mouth intent (c.f., Aaker 1996a; Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1996). A single item was used to record the price subjects are willing to pay (Grewal, Monroe, and Krishnan 1998). As different products (ice cream and soft drink) were used for brand B in high and low product category fit conditions, prices were standardized in each condition.

For corporate brand C, the outcome variables include consumer-company identification and intended word of mouth for the company. Bergami and Bagozzi (2000)'s two-item scale has been validated and widely used to assess consumer-company identification (e.g., Ahearne, Bhattacharya, and Gruen 2005; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen 2007). One item asked the degree to which subjects agree or disagree with the statement, "The values of [company] match my own values." The second item is a scale based on a series of Venn diagrams that pictorially depict the overlap between the subject's self-concept and their concept of the company. As these two items use different point scales (7 and 8 point scale respectively), I used the mean of their standardized values (Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Lichtenstein et al. 2004; Sen et al. 2006). Word of mouth for the company was measured by four items adapted from scales used by Aaker (1996a) and Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996) as well as one item proposed by Bhattacharya and Sen (2003).

Social responsibility associations with the product brands and the corporate brand were measured by three items adapted from prior research (Berens, Riel, and Bruggen 2005; Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen 2007; Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun 2006).

## **B. Control Variables**

Prior research shows that outcomes of SR associations are influenced by factors such as product quality and consumers' support for the SR issue (e.g., Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001). Therefore, the perceived quality of brand B and consumers' support for the SR initiatives of brand A were measured as control variables. Moreover, product involvement was included as a covariate, which is shown to have an impact on consumers' product evaluations (e.g., Berens, Riel, and Bruggen 2005).

To measure the perceived product quality, subjects were asked to assess three statements (Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal 1991; Grewal, Monroe, and Krishnan 1998). Consumers' support for the SR issue was measured by three items (Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen 2007; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001). And four items were used to measure product involvement (Jain and Srinivasan 1990; Zaichkowsky 1985).

## ***Results***

The analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were used to analyze the data and the specific results are discussed below.

### **Manipulation Check**

The manipulation of product category fit is shown to be successful. Product category fit between frozen yogurt and ice cream was viewed as significantly higher than that between frozen yogurt and soft drink ( $F(1, 119) = 93.17, p < .001; M_{\text{high}} = 4.69$  vs.  $M_{\text{low}} = 2.57$ ).

In order to check subjects' awareness of brand A's SR initiatives, I compared their SR associations with brand A in the condition of SR description vs. no such description and found that subjects had stronger SR associations with this brand when they were exposed to its SR initiatives ( $F(1, 119) = 48.59, p < .001; M_{SR} = 5.51$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 4.07$ ).

### **Spillover Effect of Brand A's SR Initiatives**

H1 and H2 predict that social responsibility associations will spill over from brand A to another product brand B (H1) and corporate brand C (H2). Subjects who were aware of brand A's SR activity are shown to have stronger SR associations with product brand B ( $F(1, 119) = 45.18, p < .001; M_{SR} = 4.97$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 3.58$ ) and corporate brand C ( $F(1, 119) = 65.13, p < .001; M_{SR} = 5.45$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 3.94$ ) than those who were not aware, which supports H1 and H2 (See Figure 3).

Moreover, I did a mediation analysis using the procedure of Baron and Kenny (1986). As shown above, the awareness of brand A's SR initiatives leads to stronger SR associations with both brands B and C. When I included SR associations with corporate brand C (i.e., CSR associations) as a covariate, the effect of brand A's SR awareness on SR associations with product brand B was rendered insignificant ( $F(1, 118) = 1.96, p > .05$ ). This finding indicates that the spillover effect from brand A to B was mediated by CSR associations.



### **Moderators Affecting the Spillover Effect**

H3 predicts the moderating influence of corporate branding strategy on the spillover effect from brand A to product brand B (H3a) and corporate brand C (H3b). As expected in H3a, the spillover effect from A to B is shown to be stronger in the condition of monolithic branding strategy than that in the endorsed strategy condition ( $F(1, 117) = 7.15, p < .01$ ) (see Figure 4). No significant spillover is found from brand A to the stand-alone brand ( $F(1, 119) = .51, p > .05$ ;  $M_{SR} = 3.77$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 3.63$ ). The Spillover effect from brand A to corporate brand C is also stronger for a company using the monolithic branding strategy than that using the endorsed branding strategy ( $F(1, 117) = 5.26, p < .05$ ), which supports H3b (see Figure 4). The descriptive statistics in each condition are presented in Table 1.

H4 predicts the moderating influence of product category fit on the spillover effect from brand A to B. This spillover effect is shown to be stronger when product category fit between these two product brands is perceived as high versus low ( $F(1, 117) = 6.77, p < .05$ ), which supports H4 (see Figure 5). The descriptive statistics in each cell are shown in Table 2.

### **Outcomes of the Spillover Effect**

H5, H6, and H7 predict that the spillover effect from brand A to B will lead to consumers' heightened purchase intent (H5), positive word of mouth (H6), and higher willingness to pay (H7) for brand B. However, no significant results were found for these behavioral outcomes (see Table 3). This may be due to the fact that these outcomes are

influenced by other product-related factors such as quality, ingredients, flavors, etc. These additional factors have been identified as contributors to the outcomes of SR associations in prior research (e.g., Bhattacharya and Sen 2004). Additionally, in the open-ended question, some respondents indeed mentioned that they would need to know more information about the product such as specific flavors and ingredients, and also need to try it before deciding whether to purchase the brand or recommend it to others.

H8 and H9 predict the outcomes of the spillover effect from brand A to corporate brand C, including greater consumer-company identification (H8) and positive word of mouth for the company (H9). Subjects who were exposed to brand A's SR initiatives indicated higher identification with the company ( $F(1, 119) = 16.13, p < .001; M_{SR} = .28$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = -.30$ ) and positive word of mouth behaviors for the company ( $F(1, 118) = 6.32, p < .05; M_{SR} = 4.52$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 3.99$ ), which supports H8 and H9.

### ***Discussion***

This study indicates that when exposed to brand A's SR activity, consumers' SR associations with this focal brand spill over to product brand B and corporate brand C. SR associations with corporate brand C (i.e., CSR associations) fully mediate the spillover effect from brand A to B. Moreover, the spillover of SR associations is shown to be moderated by corporate branding strategy and product category fit between two product brands. In addition, the spillover effect from brand A to C leads to greater consumer-company identification and positive word of mouth intent for the company. A summary of these findings is shown in Figure 6.

A potential limitation of this study is that it investigated the spillover phenomenon in the context of utilitarian products (food and drink). However, the moderating influence of product category fit may differ for different types of products. For value-expressive products that are used to express the user's image (e.g., apparel, shoes, and watches), the similarity or consistency of brand image/attributes may be more important than product category similarity when consumers consider the link between two product brands; thus product category fit is likely to be less diagnostic in consumers' inferences of brand relationship. Therefore, I conducted the second study to examine the spillover effect and the moderating role of product category fit in the context of value-expressive products.

Furthermore, an interesting finding of this study is that the spillover effect from brand A to B was mediated by CSR associations, which suggests that there may exist a hierarchy of brand nodes in an associative brand network. Specifically, corporate brand C may be stored as a super-ordinate node and its two product brands may be stored as subordinate nodes. Therefore, when one subordinate node (product brand A) is activated, it may first spread to the super-ordinate node (corporate brand C) before spreading to another subordinate node (product brand B). However, there is one possibility that this mediating effect is due to the order of brands presented in the scenario – I introduced the company first and then described its two product brands, which may have established this hierarchy in subjects' minds. Thus, in the second study I would describe the two product brands first, and then present the company to see whether this mediating effect still holds.

### 3. Study 2

#### *Method*

##### **Design and Sample**

As brands of value-expressive products can be positioned as functional- or symbolic (Bhat and Reddy 1998), I included these two positioning in the experimental design. A total of 130 undergraduate students (59% male; age 19-50) were randomly assigned to one of the eight conditions in a 2 (*description of SR initiatives* for brand A: present or absent)  $\times$  2 (*product category fit* between brand A and B: high or low fit)  $\times$  2 (*brand positioning* of brand A and B: symbolic or functional) between-subjects design.

The endorsed branding strategy was used in all conditions. This is because when the monolithic branding strategy is used, the link between two product brands through sharing the same name is much more salient and visible than that formed by product category fit. The same brand name could serve as a heuristic cue of the inferred brand relationship with less cognitive processing effort required; thus is more easily to recall from the memory and accessible (Maheswaran, Mackie, and Chaiken 1992). In such a case, consumers are less likely to think about the link between two brands in terms of their product category similarity, as people only use the minimum information needed (Lynch, Marmorstein, and Weigold 1988). However, if the endorsed branding strategy is used, as the two product brands are using different names, the link through brand name is weaker and less accessible; thus consumers are more likely to consider other contributors to the brand relationship such as product category fit. As a major objective of this study is

to investigate the moderating influence of product category fit, in order to better examine this effect, I chose the endorsed branding strategy for all conditions.

### **Stimuli**

In order to improve the generalization of findings, I used a different SR initiative from study 1. In this experiment, brand A was described as supporting a program that aims to promote fitness and wellness among children and young people, including *“health assessments, individualized fitness plans, and a structured exercise plan and wellness education.”*

Two pretests were conducted to determine the product stimuli and brand attributes for symbolic and functional positioning. In the first pretest, participants (109 subjects) were asked to indicate their perceived product category fit between shoes and apparel as well as watches. According to the results of this pretest, product category fit between shoes and apparel was considered as significantly higher than that between shoes and watches ( $M_{\text{high}} = 4.56$  vs.  $M_{\text{low}} = 2.40$ ;  $t = 19.04$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Thus, I chose running shoes (brand A) and T-shirt (brand B) in the condition of high product category fit and watch to replace T-shirt in the low fit condition.

The second pretest was then conducted to determine the symbolic and functional brand attributes for these products. 40 students participated in this pretest and they were asked two questions. One question asked them to briefly describe a brand of running shoes/watch/T-shirt that would most closely express who they are and specify the brand's personality attributes. The other question asked them to list all factors, aside from price,

that are most important to them when purchasing these products. Based on their responses to these two questions (see Table 4), in the symbolic positioning condition, I described the brand attributes such as cool, fashionable, confident, and energetic; while in the functional condition, I described the brand attributes such as durability, comfort, color, and size. The same brand positioning/attributes was described for brand A and B.

The specific scenarios for the various conditions appear in the Appendix C.

### **Procedure**

Similar to study 1, subjects first read the scenario of a fictitious company and its two product brands (A and B) and then answered the questions that follow. As aforementioned, I described the two product brands first and then described the company in this study in order to check whether the mediating effect of CSR associations still holds. Four manipulation check items were added to check the symbolic vs. functional brand positioning. In addition, in order to examine the influence of different brand positioning on the spillover effect between two product brands, I included a question to measure subjects' SR associations with another product brand D which is produced by the same company but has different positioning from the two product brands (A and B) in the scenario. For example, in the symbolic and low product category fit condition, brand A (running shoes) and brand B (watch) are symbolic-positioned but brand D (T-shirt) is functional-positioned.

## Measures

All measures of the dependent variables, manipulation check for product category fit, and control variables were the same as in study 1 (see Appendix A).

Four items adapted from Bhat and Reddy (1998) and Ryu, Park, and Feick (2006) were used to check the manipulation of brand positioning. Subjects were asked the extent to which they agree or disagree with four statements representing brand symbolism: 1) “[Brands] tell others about the user’s personality.” 2) “People use [brands] as a way of expressing themselves.” 3) “[Brands] show the user’s image to others.” 4) “Using [brands] says something about the kind of person the user is.” ( $\alpha=.93$ ,  $M=4.81$ ,  $SD=1.25$ )

## Results

### Manipulation Check

The perceived product category fit between running shoes and T-shirts is significantly higher than that between running shoes and watches ( $F(1, 128) = 41.50$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $M_{\text{high}} = 4.32$  vs.  $M_{\text{low}} = 2.85$ ), which indicates that the manipulation of product category fit was successful.

The manipulation of brand positioning was also successful. Subjects in the symbolic condition viewed a stronger brand symbolism for brand A and B than those in the functional condition ( $F(1, 128) = 5.76$ ,  $p < .05$ ;  $M_{\text{symbolic}} = 5.08$  vs.  $M_{\text{functional}} = 4.56$ ).

Moreover, subjects who were exposed to brand A's SR initiatives showed stronger SR associations with this brand than those who were not exposed to SR description ( $F(1, 128) = 28.27, p < .001; M_{SR} = 5.10$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 4.14$ ), which shows that the manipulation of SR awareness was successful.

### **Spillover Effect of Brand A's SR Initiatives**

A significant spillover effect is shown from brand A to both product brand B ( $F(1, 128) = 18.50, p < .001; M_{SR} = 4.84$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 4.03$ ) and corporate brand C ( $F(1, 128) = 23.61, p < .001; M_{SR} = 5.06$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 4.23$ ), which is consistent with the finding of study 1 (See Figure 7).

However, no significant spillover effect is found from brand A to brand D ( $F(1, 128) = .03, p > .05; M_{SR} = 4.39$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 4.36$ ), which indicates that there is no or weak spillover between two product brands with different brand positioning/attributes, using the endorsed branding strategy.

In addition, when I included CSR associations as a covariate, the spillover effect from brand A to B became insignificant ( $F(1, 127) = 1.71, p > .05$ ), which shows that the spillover effect between two product brands was mediated by SR associations with corporate brand C (Baron and Kenny 1986). As this mediating effect still holds when the two product brands were described before the company in this study, the possibility that the mediating effect of CSR associations found in study 1 was due to the order of presenting the company before the product brands could be ruled out.



### **Moderating Influence of Product Category Fit**

No significant moderating influence of product category fit is found on the spillover effect from brand A to B ( $F(1, 126) = .68, p > .05$ ) (see Table 5 for the descriptive statistics in each condition). This finding may implicate that for value-expressive products, with the consistency of brand positioning/attributes, product category fit will not moderate the spillover effect between two product brands. In other words, for these products, the similarity or consistency of brand positioning/attributes is a more important contributor to consumers' inferences of the link between product brands than the similarity of product categories.

In order to verify this implication, I analyzed the spillover effect from brand A to both brand B and brand D in the condition of low product category fit. A significant spillover effect is shown from brand A to B (with the same brand positioning/attributes) even if their product category fit (running shoes and watches) is perceived as low ( $F(1, 60) = 14.30, p < .001; M_{SR} = 4.91$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 3.95$ ). However, no significant spillover effect is found from brand A to D (with different brand positioning/attributes) although their product category fit (running shoes and T-shirts) is perceived as high ( $F(1, 60) = 1.80, p > .05; M_{SR} = 4.54$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 4.17$ ).

### **Outcomes of the Spillover Effect**

I found no significant results for the outcomes of the spillover effect from brand A to B (i.e., purchase intent, word of mouth, and willingness to pay) (see Table 6). Many subjects mentioned that for T-shirt and watch, they will consider other factors such as

quality, fabric, materials, design, etc. and need to try the product before they decide to purchase or recommend it to others. These findings are consistent with study 1, which suggest that the behavioral outcomes of SR associations with product brands are influenced by other product-related factors.

I also did not find significant results for the outcomes of the spillover effect from brand A to corporate brand C (i.e., consumer-company identification and word of mouth for the company) (see Table 6). Based on the subjects' responses to the open-ended question, there are three possible reasons for this finding. First, for a company producing value-expressive products such as shoes, apparel, and watches, besides the company's values indicated by SR initiatives, consumers' identification with the company will also be influenced by the image or symbolic attribute associations of its product brands. Second, consumers show more concern on product quality when deciding whether to talk positively about the company to others. Third, many undergraduate students have their own favorite brands for running shoes, T-shirts, and watches. Thus they already established a strong identification with some well-known companies such as Nike or Adidas, so they were reluctant to identify with another unknown company or recommend it to others by only reading the description of its product brand's SR activity.

### ***Discussion***

Both study 1 and study 2 indicate that SR associations spill over from brand A to product brand B and corporate brand C. In addition, these two studies show the mediating role of CSR associations in the spillover effect from brand A to B, which suggests that a

hierarchy of brand nodes exists in an associative brand network. Specifically, the corporate brand is stored as a super-ordinate node in consumers' minds and the product brands are stored as subordinate nodes. When a subordinate node (product brand A) is activated, it first spreads to the super-ordinate node (corporate brand C) before spreading to another subordinate node (product brand B).

This study did not find the moderating influence of product category fit. When two product brands share the same brand positioning/attributes (symbolic or functional), the spillover effect between them is shown not to be influenced by their product category fit. This finding suggests that for value-expressive products, the similarity of brand positioning/attributes is more important than product category similarity when consumers consider the link between product brands. This finding is also consistent with the previous research which shows a more prominent role of the similarity of brand attributes than product category fit on consumer's evaluation of brand extensions (Bhat and Reddy 2001).

Furthermore, no significant behavioral outcomes of the spillover effect were found for product brand B and corporate brand C in this study. This result suggests that for the products like running shoes, T-shirts, and watches, there are many other factors (e.g., design, quality, brand preference, etc.) that influence the consequences of SR associations; thus only awareness of brand A's SR initiatives cannot lead to the expected outcomes. However, this raises an additional question: for products with few physical differences among different brands (e.g., toothpastes and laundry detergents), will the spillover of SR associations play a more significant role in influencing consumers' behavioral outcomes?

In other words, will this spillover effect lead to the expected outcomes for product brand B and corporate brand C? In order to address this question and to improve the confidence in the proposed conceptual model, I conducted the third experiment in a different product setting to replicate study 1.

#### 4. Study 3

##### *Method*

##### **Design and Sample**

A total of 126 undergraduate students (48% male; age 18-35) were randomly assigned to one of the eight conditions in a 2 (*description of SR initiatives* for brand A: present or absent)  $\times$  2 (*corporate branding strategy*: monolithic or endorsed strategy)  $\times$  2 (*product category fit* between brand A and B: high or low fit) between-subjects design.

##### **Stimuli**

Environmental protection was used as the SR initiative of brand A, which is different from previous two studies in order to increase the generalization of this research. The scenario described that in order to protect the environment, brand A “*uses 100% renewable or recycled materials for its packaging*” and supports a nation-wide education program that aims to promote environmental responsibility and consumer conservation education.

The manipulation of corporate branding strategy was the same as in study 1. I used the same name for the company (“*Meadow’s*”), but interchanged the names of two product brands (“*Brookside*” for brand A and “*Riverfield*” for brand B) in the endorsed strategy condition in order to control the potential impact of the subject’s preference to any product brand name.

To manipulate product category fit, I chose mouthwash (brand A) and toothpaste (brand B) as product stimuli in the high fit condition and laundry detergent to replace toothpaste in the low fit condition.

The scenarios are shown in the Appendix D.

### **Procedure and Measures**

I used the same procedure as in study 1. The only difference is that I presented brand B before brand A in this study in order to control the potential impact of the exposure order of two product brands in the scenario. All measures were the same as in study 1 (see Appendix A).

## ***Results***

### **Manipulation Check**

The perceived product category fit between mouthwash and toothpaste is shown to be significantly higher than that between mouthwash and laundry detergent ( $F(1, 124) =$

194.50,  $p < .001$ ;  $M_{\text{high}} = 5.42$  vs.  $M_{\text{low}} = 2.74$ ), which shows that this manipulation was successful.

Subjects who were exposed to brand A's SR initiatives indicated stronger SR associations with this brand than those who were not exposed to such SR description ( $F(1, 124) = 57.73$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $M_{\text{SR}} = 5.48$  vs.  $M_{\text{non-SR}} = 4.02$ ), which shows that the manipulation of brand A's SR awareness was also successful.

### **Spillover Effect of Brand A's SR Initiatives**

A significant spillover effect is found from brand A to product brand B ( $F(1, 124) = 34.04$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $M_{\text{SR}} = 5.05$  vs.  $M_{\text{non-SR}} = 3.85$ ) and corporate brand C ( $F(1, 124) = 57.43$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $M_{\text{SR}} = 5.38$  vs.  $M_{\text{non-SR}} = 4.00$ ) (See Figure 8). No significant spillover is found from brand A to the stand-alone brand ( $F(1, 124) = .21$ ,  $p > .05$ ;  $M_{\text{SR}} = 4.04$  vs.  $M_{\text{non-SR}} = 3.96$ ). Additionally, when SR associations with corporate brand C were included as a covariate, the spillover effect from brand A to B was rendered insignificant ( $F(1, 123) = .24$ ,  $p > .05$ ), which indicates that the spillover effect from brand A to B is fully mediated by CSR associations (Baron and Kenny 1986). These findings are consistent with the results of the prior two studies, which further confirm the spillover effect of brand A's SR initiatives and the mediating role of CSR associations in the spillover effect from brand A to B.

### **Moderators Affecting the Spillover Effect**

Corporate branding strategy is shown not to moderate the spillover effect from brand A to both product brand B ( $F(1, 122) = .39, p > .05$ ) and corporate brand C ( $F(1, 122) = .35, p > .05$ ) (See Table 7 for the descriptive statistics). I also did not find the significant moderating influence of product category fit on the spillover effect from brand A to B ( $F(1, 122) = .04, p > .05$ ) (See Table 8 for the descriptive statistics).

These findings may be due to the strong “fit” of brand A’s SR initiatives with the company and its other products. In this study, brand A was described as an environmental friendly product which uses renewable or recycled materials for its packaging and also supports an environmental protection education program. This SR initiative fits well with a consumer goods company and its other products. Subjects may assume that the company is supporting environmental responsibility and its products are all environmental friendly. Some subjects indeed mentioned this assumption in their responses to the open-ended question. With this strong “fit” of brand A’s SR initiatives with the company and product brand B, the spillover effect may not be significantly influenced by corporate branding strategy and product category fit between brand A and B. However, in the first experiment, the SR initiative of brand A (frozen yogurt) is a nutrition program which aims to enhance awareness of good nutrition and promote a healthy lifestyle. This SR initiative did not fit with brand B which is an unhealthy product (ice cream or soft drink), which was also mentioned by some subjects in the study. Thus in this situation, product category fit and corporate branding strategy played a key role in influencing the spillover strength.

### **Outcomes of the Spillover Effect**

When subjects were aware of brand A's SR initiatives, they were more likely to talk positively about brand B to others ( $F(1, 121) = 8.87, p < .01; M_{SR} = 3.93$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 3.25$ ) and were willing to pay a higher price for it ( $F(1, 116) = 4.26, p < .05; M_{SR} = .18$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = -.19$ ), supporting H6 (positive word of mouth) and H7 (higher willingness to pay). However, no significant result is found for purchase intent of brand B (See Table 9), not supporting H5 (heightened purchase intent). Similar to the previous two studies, some subjects mentioned that they still need to try the product before deciding whether they want to buy it.

I also found the outcomes of the spillover effect from brand A to corporate brand C, which is consistent with the findings of study 1. Subjects who were exposed to brand A's SR activity indicated stronger consumer-company identification ( $F(1, 124) = 16.81, p < .001; M_{SR} = .29$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = -.30$ ) and positive word of mouth intent for the company ( $F(1, 124) = 22.70, p < .001; M_{SR} = 4.59$  vs.  $M_{non-SR} = 3.71$ ).

### ***Discussion***

This study further validated the spillover of SR associations from product brand A to another product brand B and corporate brand C as well as the mediating effect of CSR associations on the spillover from brand A to B. Additionally, it found the expected outcomes of this spillover effect (i.e., positive word of mouth and higher willingness to pay for brand B, greater consumer-company identification and positive word of mouth



for the company), which suggests that for products with little physical difference among brands (e.g., toothpastes and laundry detergents), SR initiative is a good way to differentiate the company and its product brands from competitors.

However, no significant moderating influence of both corporate branding strategy and product category fit were found in this study, which may be caused by the strong “fit” between brand A’s SR initiatives (environmental initiatives) with the company and product brand B. This finding suggests that besides the two moderators proposed in the conceptual model, spillover phenomenon is also influenced by other situational factors, which are worthwhile to be examined in future research. It still needs further exploration that whether the “fit” between brand A’s SR initiatives with the company and its other products indeed has an important impact on the spillover effect.

## Chapter 5: Summary and Future Research

Three studies all indicate that SR associations spill over from product brand A to another product brand B and corporate brand C. In addition, the spillover effect from brand A to B is shown to be mediated by SR associations with corporate brand C (i.e., CSR associations), which suggests a hierarchy of brand nodes in an associative brand network. Specifically, the corporate brand is stored as a super-ordinate node and the product brands are subordinate nodes in this network. When consumers are exposed to brand A's SR initiatives, the activation of this brand node and its SR associations first spreads to corporate brand C before spreading to product brand B.

In terms of the moderators affecting the spillover effect of brand A's SR initiatives, in the context of utilitarian products (frozen yogurts, ice creams, and soft drinks), study 1 shows that this spillover effect was influenced by corporate branding strategy and product category fit between two product brands. The spillover effect from brand A to both product brand B and corporate brand C is shown to be stronger when the company uses the monolithic branding strategy than when it uses the endorsed strategy. No significant spillover was found from brand A to the stand-alone brand. Furthermore, the spillover effect from brand A to B is shown to be stronger when their product category fit is perceived as high (vs. low). However, this moderating influence of product category fit was not found in study 2 in the context of value-expressive products (running shoes, T-shirts, and watches) when brands A and B have the consistent brand positioning/attributes (functional or symbolic), which suggests that for value-expressive products the consistency or similarity of brand positioning/attributes contributes more than product

category fit to consumers' inferences of the link between two product brands. Study 3 also did not find the significant influence of two moderators (i.e., corporate branding strategy and product category fit) on the spillover effect, which may be due to the strong "fit" between brand A's environmental SR initiatives with the company and product brand B. These inconsistent findings in the three studies suggest that the moderating effects of corporate branding strategy and product category fit are influenced by other situational factors such as the similarity of brand positioning/attributes for value-expressive product brands and the perceived fit between the SR initiatives of the origin brand (A) and the destination brands (B and C), which could be further explored in future research.

For the outcomes of the spillover effect from brand A to B (i.e., heightened purchase intent, positive word of mouth, and higher willingness to pay for brand B), the first two studies did not find any significant results, which suggest that other product-related factors (e.g., quality, design, etc.) have a great impact on the behavioral outcomes of SR associations with product brands. Study 3 found that for products with few physical differences among competitive brands (e.g., toothpastes and laundry detergents), the spillover of SR associations from brand A to B leads to positive word of mouth intent and heightened willingness to pay for brand B; but purchase intent of brand B is still largely influenced by other product-related factors. For the outcomes of the spillover effect from brand A to corporate brand C, both study 1 and study 3 indicate that this spillover results in greater consumer-company identification and positive word of mouth behaviors for the company; while in the context of value-expressive products, study 2 did not find the

significant results due to other factors influencing these outcomes such as symbolic associations of the product brands, consumers' current brand preferences or established identification with other companies. Overall, these findings suggest that the outcomes of the spillover effect of brand A's SR initiatives still depend on the product or company-related factors, which are consistent with the previous research on the factors influencing the outcomes of SR associations (e.g., Bhattacharya and Sen 2004; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001).

The findings of this research (See Table 10 for a summary of the results) offer a new perspective to look at the consequences of SR activity and reveal a larger picture than extant research on corporate social responsibility by indicating the impact of a product brand's SR initiatives on the whole brand portfolio. To extend this broadened view, future research can examine the spillover effect of a product brand's SR initiatives to a competing brand and the spillover from the corporate-level SR initiatives to the product brands.

This research still has some limitations. A fictitious company and its product brands were used in all experiments, which limit somewhat the generalization of the findings. Future research may wish to study the spillover phenomenon in a real brand portfolio. Moreover, I only investigated the moderating influence of corporate branding strategy and product category fit. Since there are many other ways through which brands can be linked in a brand portfolio, such as the similarity of advertising (Rajagopal and Sanchez 2004) and goal congruency (Ratneshwar, Pechmann, and Shocker 1996), researchers might explore the influence of these potential moderators in the future.

**Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the Moderating Influence of Corporate Branding Strategy in Study 1**

	Monolithic branding strategy				Endorsed branding strategy			
	No SR awareness (N= 30)		SR awareness (N= 31)		No SR awareness (N= 29)		SR awareness (N= 31)	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>SR associations with product brand B</b>	<b>3.53</b>	1.25	<b>5.46</b>	.92	<b>3.62</b>	.99	<b>4.48</b>	1.19
<b>SR associations with corporate brand C</b>	<b>3.71</b>	1.25	<b>5.65</b>	.90	<b>4.17</b>	.96	<b>5.26</b>	.93

**Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for the Moderating Influence of Product Category Fit in Study 1**

	High product category fit				Low product category fit			
	No SR awareness (N= 30)		SR awareness (N= 31)		No SR awareness (N= 29)		SR awareness (N= 31)	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>SR associations with product brand B</b>	<b>3.42</b>	1.33	<b>5.34</b>	1.01	<b>3.74</b>	.84	<b>4.60</b>	1.20

**Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for the Outcomes in Study 1**

<b>Outcome variables</b>	<b>No SR awareness (N= 59)</b>		<b>SR awareness (N= 62)</b>	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>Purchase intent of brand B*</b>	<b>4.06</b>	1.04	<b>4.17</b>	1.25
<b>Word of mouth for brand B*</b>	<b>3.69</b>	1.04	<b>4.02</b>	1.18
<b>Willingness to pay for brand B*</b>	<b>-.11</b>	.87	<b>.11</b>	1.11
<b>Consumer-company identification**</b>	<b>-.30</b>	.84	<b>.28</b>	.74
<b>Word of mouth for the company***</b>	<b>3.99</b>	1.04	<b>4.52</b>	1.12

\* $p > .1$ \*\* $p < .001$ \*\*\* $p < .05$

**Table 4: Results of Pretest 2 for Study 2**

<b>Products</b>	<b>Functional attributes</b>	<b>Symbolic attributes</b>
<b>Running shoes</b>	durability, comfort, look (design), size, color	energetic, confident, young, fashionable
<b>T-shirts</b>	durability, color, texture/fabric, look (print/design), comfort, size	young, fashionable, confident, cool, creative
<b>Watches</b>	durability, look (design), color, band/strap material, size	adventurous, energetic, fashionable, cool



**Table 5: Descriptive Statistics for the Moderating Influence of Product Category Fit in Study 2**

	High product category fit				Low product category fit			
	No SR awareness (N= 34)		SR awareness (N= 34)		No SR awareness (N= 31)		SR awareness (N= 31)	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>SR associations with product brand B</b>	<b>4.11</b>	.98	<b>4.76</b>	1.26	<b>3.95</b>	1.07	<b>4.91</b>	.94

**Table 6: Descriptive Statistics for the Outcomes in Study 2**

<b>Outcome variables</b>	<b>No SR awareness (N= 65)</b>		<b>SR awareness (N= 65)</b>	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>Purchase intent of brand B*</b>	<b>3.72</b>	1.34	<b>4.05</b>	1.19
<b>Word of mouth for brand B*</b>	<b>3.76</b>	1.17	<b>3.91</b>	.96
<b>Willingness to pay for brand B*</b>	<b>-.06</b>	1.02	<b>.05</b>	.97
<b>Consumer-company identification*</b>	<b>-.02</b>	.88	<b>.02</b>	.86
<b>Word of mouth for the company*</b>	<b>4.33</b>	.89	<b>4.40</b>	1.08

\* $p > .1$

**Table 7: Descriptive Statistics for the Moderating Influence of Corporate Branding Strategy in Study 3**

	Monolithic branding strategy				Endorsed branding strategy			
	No SR awareness (N= 32)		SR awareness (N= 32)		No SR awareness (N= 30)		SR awareness (N= 32)	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>SR associations with product brand B</b>	<b>4.03</b>	.91	<b>5.35</b>	1.28	<b>3.67</b>	1.25	<b>4.74</b>	1.04
<b>SR associations with corporate brand C</b>	<b>4.05</b>	.95	<b>5.54</b>	.87	<b>3.94</b>	1.16	<b>5.22</b>	1.09

**Table 8: Descriptive Statistics for the Moderating Influence of Product Category Fit in Study 3**

	High product category fit				Low product category fit			
	No SR awareness (N= 32)		SR awareness (N= 33)		No SR awareness (N= 30)		SR awareness (N= 31)	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>SR associations with product brand B</b>	<b>4.18</b>	1.02	<b>5.33</b>	1.12	<b>3.51</b>	1.08	<b>4.74</b>	1.22

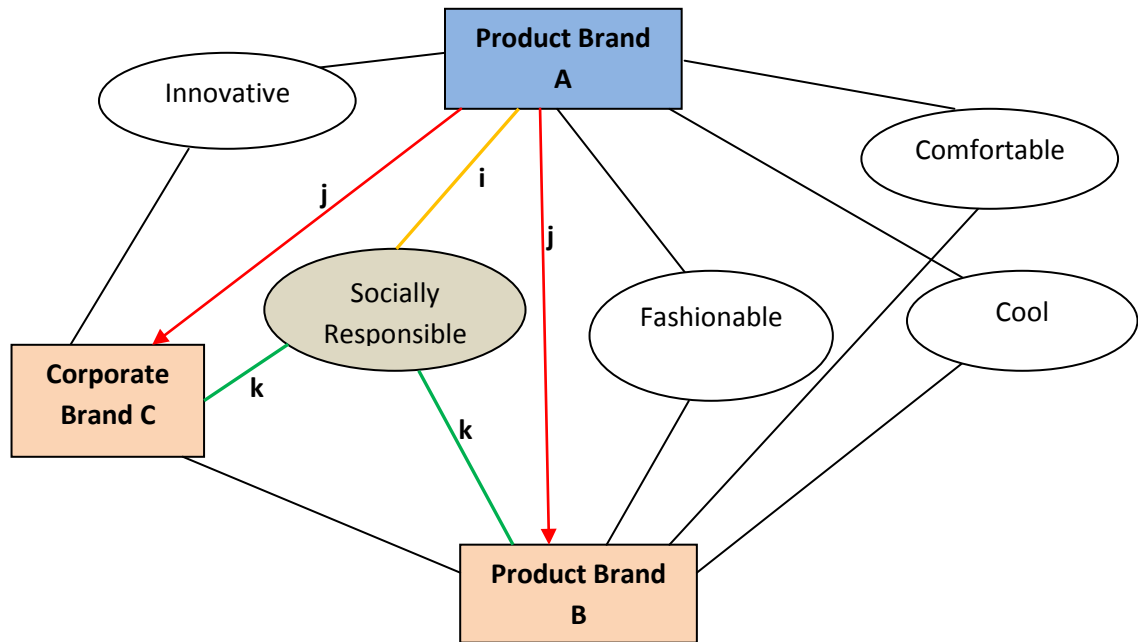
**Table 9: Descriptive Statistics for the Outcomes in Study 3**

<b>Outcome variables</b>	<b>No SR awareness (N= 62)</b>		<b>SR awareness (N= 64)</b>	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>Purchase intent of brand B*</b>	<b>3.56</b>	1.22	<b>3.93</b>	1.34
<b>Word of mouth for brand B**</b>	<b>3.25</b>	1.20	<b>3.93</b>	1.10
<b>Willingness to pay for brand B***</b>	<b>-.19</b>	.96	<b>.18</b>	1.00
<b>Consumer-company identification****</b>	<b>-.30</b>	.78	<b>.29</b>	.85
<b>Word of mouth for the company****</b>	<b>3.71</b>	1.16	<b>4.59</b>	.89

\* $p > .1$ \*\* $p < .01$ \*\*\* $p < .05$ \*\*\*\* $p < .001$

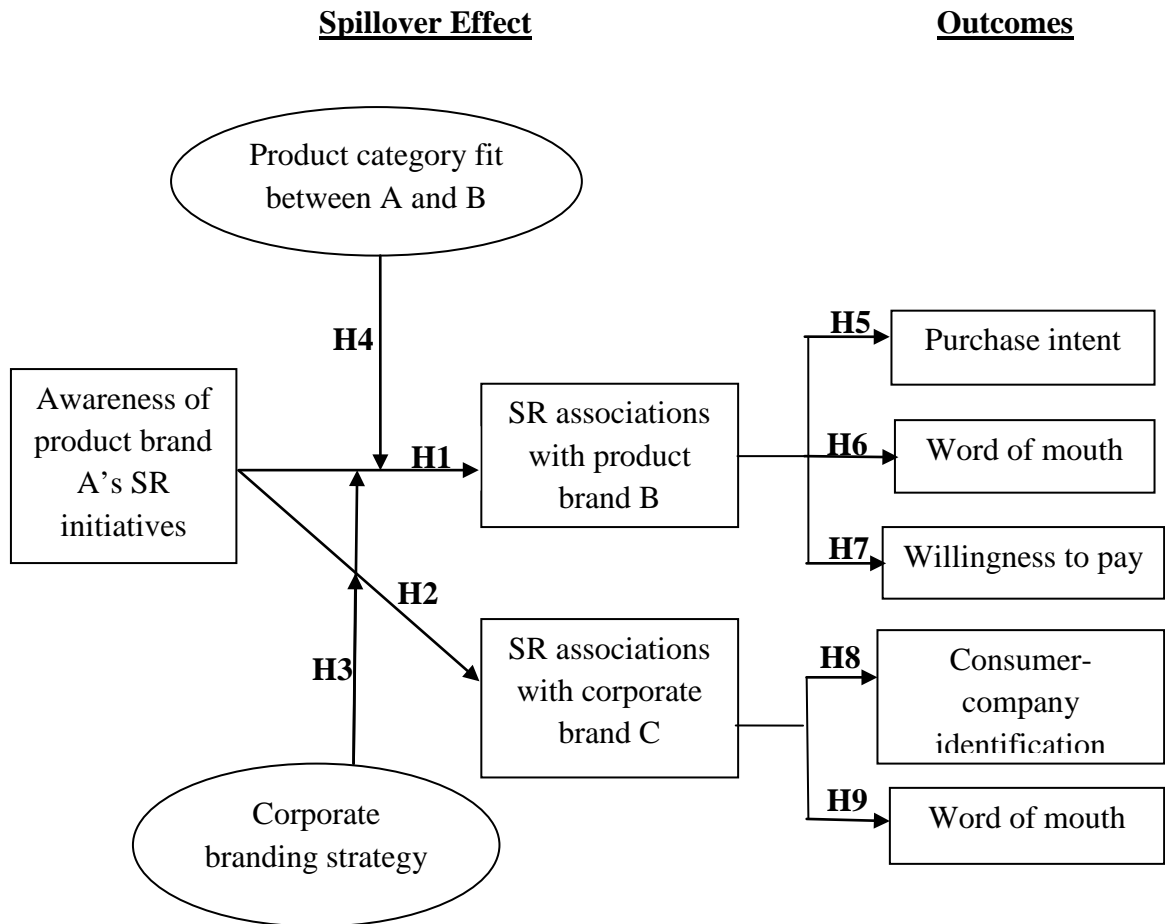
**Table 10: Summary of Hypotheses Test Results**

<b>Hypotheses</b>	<b>Study 1</b>	<b>Study 2</b>	<b>Study 3</b>
<b>H1:</b> Spillover effect from product brand A to another product brand B	Supported	Supported	Supported
<b>H2:</b> Spillover effect from product brand A to corporate brand C	Supported	Supported	Supported
<b>H3:</b> Moderating influence of corporate branding strategy	Supported	Not tested	Not supported
<b>H4:</b> Moderating influence of product category fit	Supported	Not supported	Not supported
<b>H5:</b> Purchase intent of brand B	Not supported	Not supported	Not supported
<b>H6:</b> Word of mouth for brand B	Not supported	Not supported	Supported
<b>H7:</b> Willingness to pay for brand B	Not supported	Not supported	Supported
<b>H8:</b> Consumer-company identification	Supported	Not supported	Supported
<b>H9:</b> Word of mouth for the company	Supported	Not supported	Supported



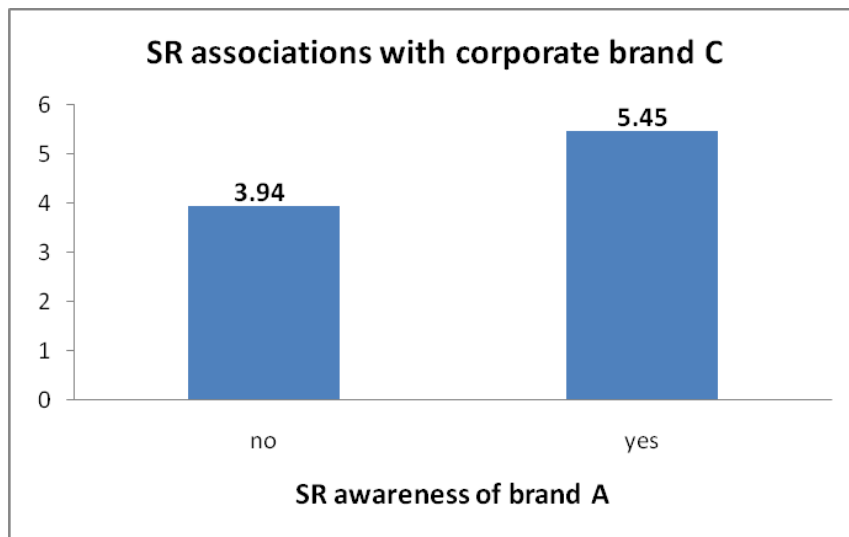
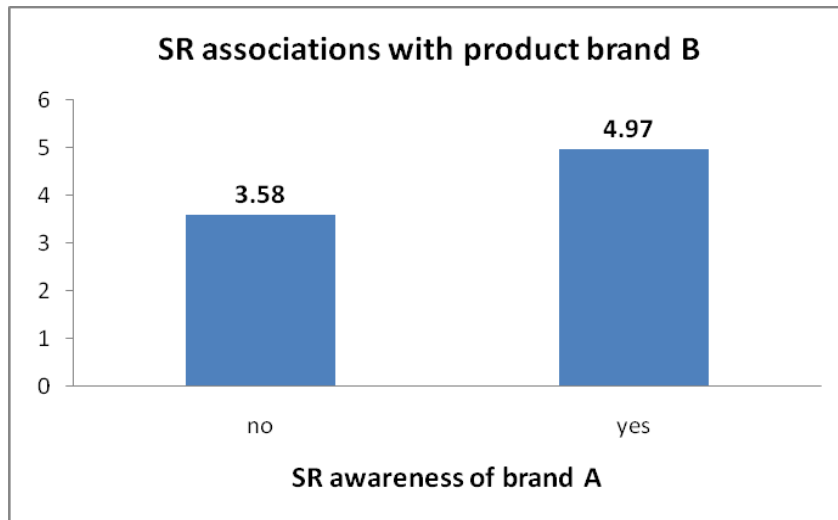
**Figure 1: An Example of Associative Brand Network**

Note: Rectangular boxes represent the brand nodes, among which “product brand A” is the origin brand and “product brand B” and “corporate brand C” are the destination brands. Oval circles such as “innovative” and “socially responsible” represent the elements associated with these brand nodes.

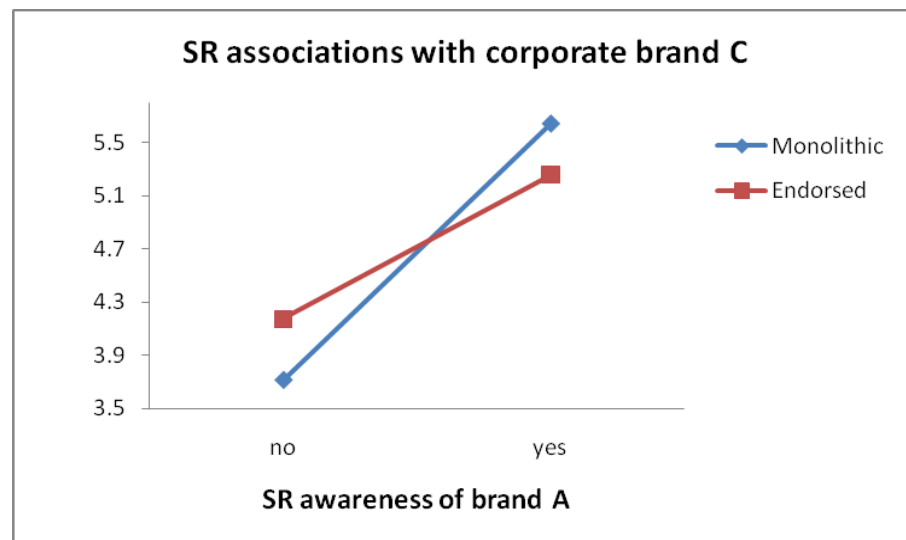
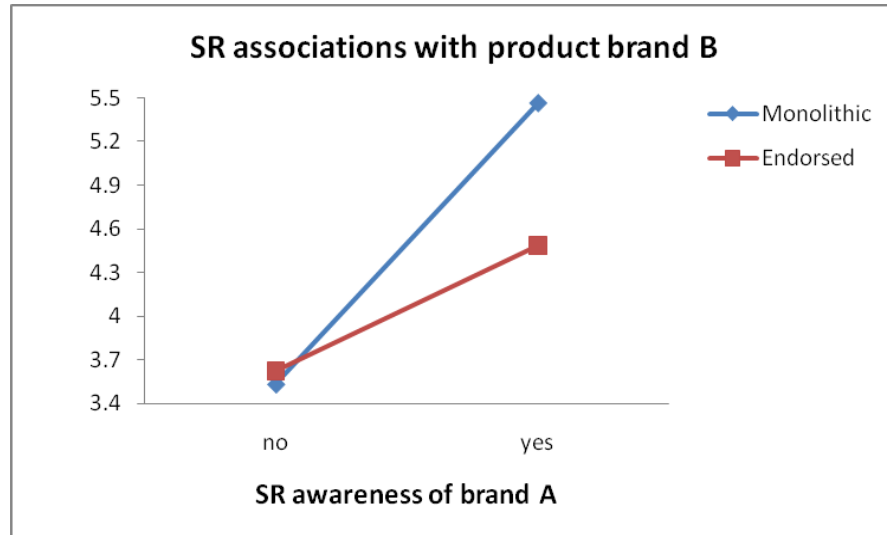


**Figure 2: Conceptual Model**





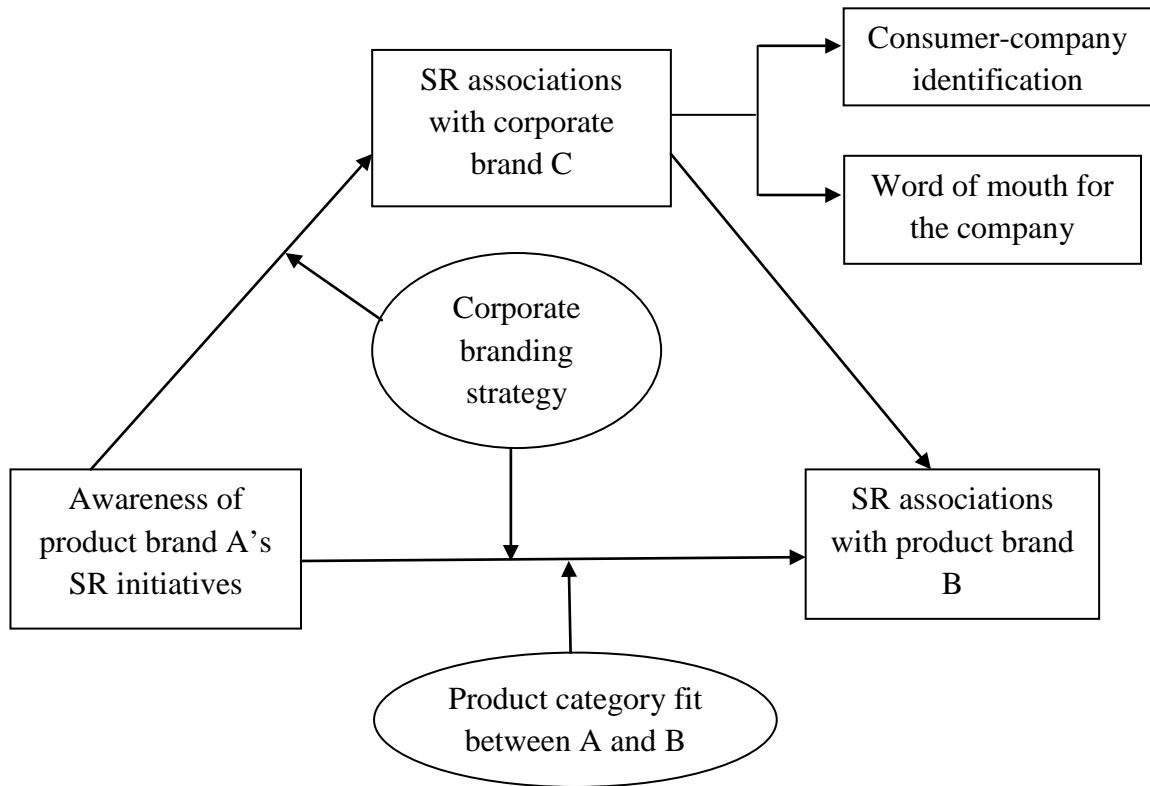
**Figure 3: Spillover Effect of Brand A's SR initiatives in Study 1**



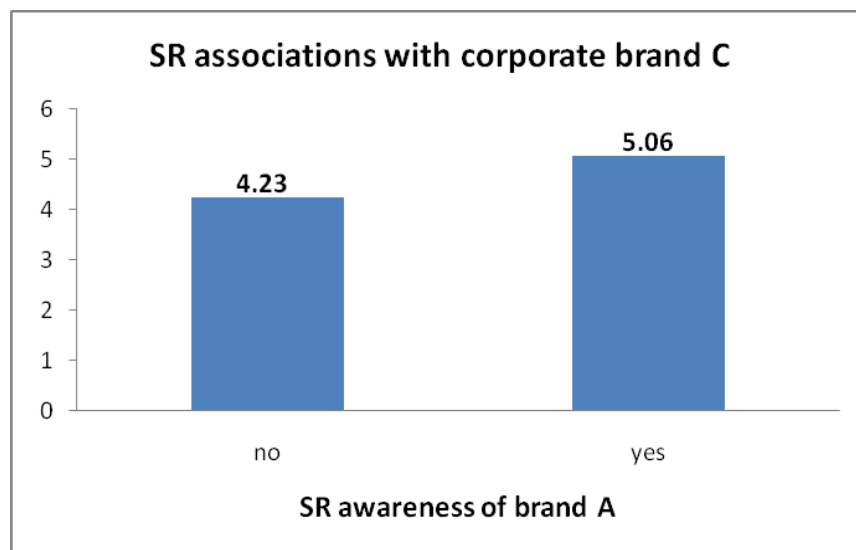
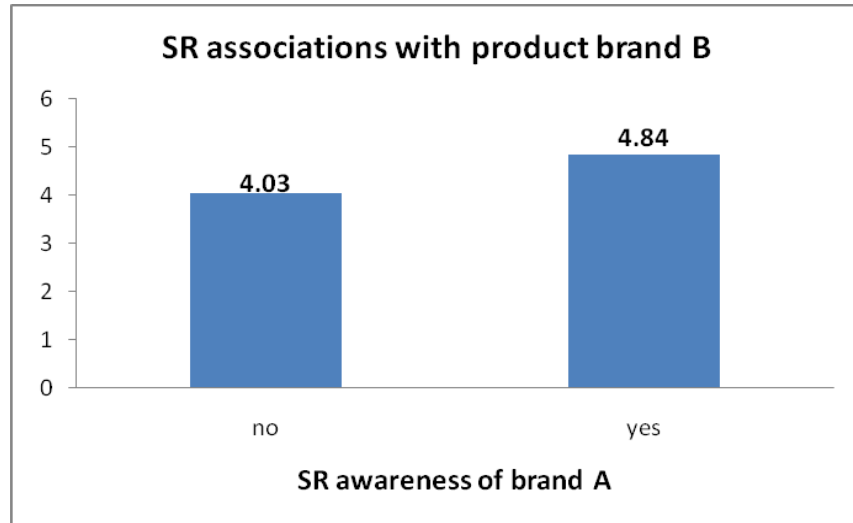
**Figure 4: Moderating Influence of Corporate Branding Strategy in Study 1**



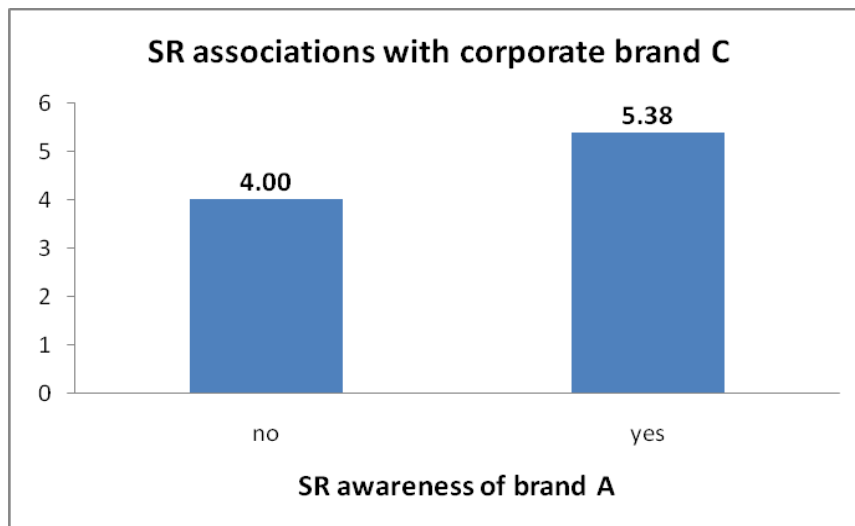
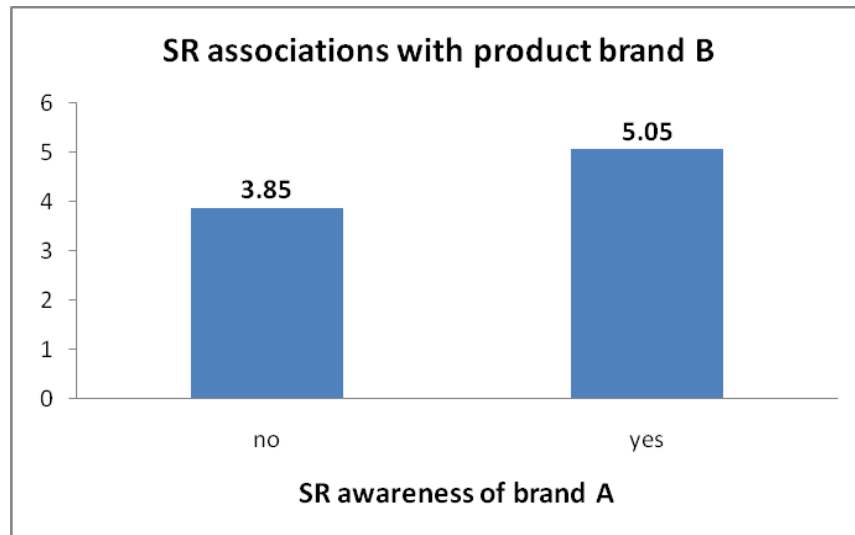
**Figure 5: Moderating Influence of Product Category Fit in Study 1**



**Figure 6: Findings of Study 1**  
(All paths are statistically significant)



**Figure 7: Spillover Effect of Brand A's SR initiatives in Study 2**



**Figure 8: Spillover Effect of Brand A's SR initiatives in Study 3**

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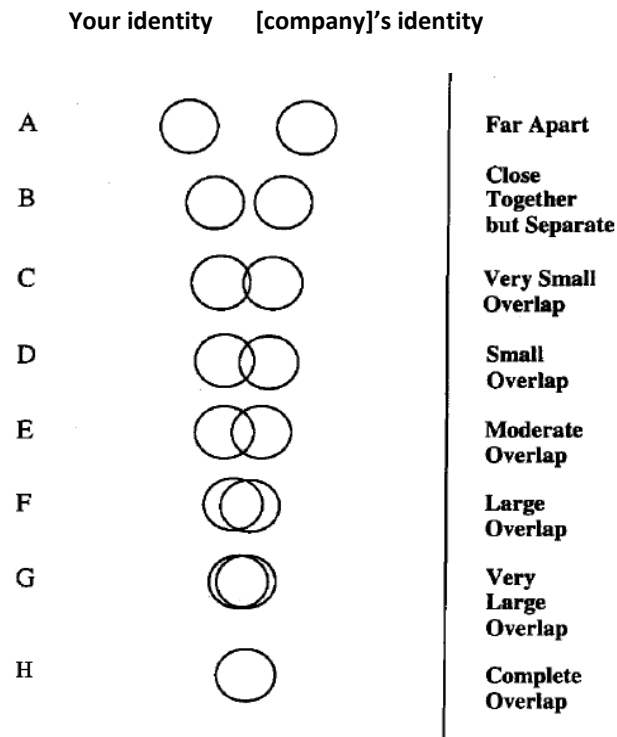
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## Appendix A: Measures

### Dependent variables

- **Purchase intent** (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)  $\alpha=.74$ ,  $M=4.12$ ,  $SD=1.15$ 
  - 1) I would like to try [brand B].
  - 2) I would consider buying [brand B] for my next [product] purchase.
  - 3) I would go out of my way to look for stores that sell [brand B].
  
- **Word of mouth for brand B** (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)  $\alpha=.89$ ,  
 $M=3.86$ ,  $SD=1.13$ 
  - 1) I would talk favorably about [brand B] to friends and family.
  - 2) I would recommend [brand B] to others.
  - 3) I would say positive things about [brand B] to others.
  - 4) If a friend were looking for [product], I would like to advise him/her to try [brand B].
  
- **Willingness to pay:** What price would you pay for [brand B]? \$\_\_\_\_\_  $M=.00$ ,  
 $SD=.10$
  
- **Consumer-company identification**  $corr=.67$ ,  $M=.00$ ,  $SD=.84$ 
  - 1) The values of [company] match my own values. (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)
  - 2) Imagine that the circles at the left in each row represent your own self-definition or identity and the other circle at the right represents the identity of [company]. Please circle the letter (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, or H) that best describes the level of overlap between your own and [company]'s identities.



- **Word of mouth for the company** (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)  $\alpha=.93$ ,  $M=4.26$ ,  $SD=1.11$ 
  - 1) I would talk favorably about [company] to my friends and family.
  - 2) I would recommend [company] to others.
  - 3) I would encourage my friends and family to do business with [company].
  - 4) I would say positive things about [company] to others.
  
- **Social responsibility associations** (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)  $\alpha=.91$ 
  - 1) [Brand/company] is a socially responsible brand/company.
  - 2) [Brand/company] is a highly ethical brand/company.
  - 3) [Brand/company] cares about its role in society.

**Manipulation check**

- **Product category fit** (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)  $\alpha=.89$ ,  $M=3.64$ ,  $SD=1.61$ 
  - 1) [Product A] and [product B] are similar types of products.
  - 2) I consider [product A] and [product B] to be in the same product category.
  - 3) I would expect a company that sells [product A] to also sell [product B].
  - 4) [Product A] and [product B] are closely related products.

**Control variables**

- **Support for SR initiatives** (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)  $\alpha=.87$ ,  $M=5.25$ ,  $SD=1.21$ 
  - 1) I care more than most about [SR initiative].
  - 2) If I see a news story about [SR initiative], I always pay close attention to it.
  - 3) [SR initiative] is an extremely important issue to me.

- **Perceived product quality** (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)  $\alpha=.88$ ,  $M=4.71$ ,  $SD=1.11$ 
  - 1) [Brand B] appears to be of good quality.
  - 2) [Brand B] uses good ingredients.
  - 3) [Brand B] makes good [product].

- **Product involvement**  $\alpha=.92$ ,  $M=4.84$ ,  $SD=1.59$

- 1) [Product B] play a big role in my life. (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)
- 2) Now we'd like to know about your interest in [Product B]. For you, [Product B] is:

Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Important
Useless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Useful
Nonessential	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Essential

## Appendix B: Scenarios of Study 1

### Condition of SR awareness & endorsed branding strategy & high product category fit

#### About Meadow's Corporation

*Meadow's Corporation* is dedicated to meeting the everyday needs of people and offering a variety of products such as *Riverfield* frozen yogurt and *Brookside* ice cream.

*Meadow's* has become one of the fastest-growing consumer goods companies in the United States and is expanding into Pennsylvania and other states.

#### Products of Meadow's Corporation

- **Riverfield** <sup>by Meadow's</sup> **frozen yogurt:** *Riverfield* uses delicious ingredients to bring you extraordinary taste. *Riverfield* offers numerous flavors of frozen yogurts, so it has the right taste for you whether you are seeking a bold taste experience or looking to reduce calories.

*Riverfield* is committed to bettering the world through its **social responsibility initiatives**. *Riverfield* supports a nation-wide nutrition program called Healthy Youth™, which aims to enhance awareness of good nutrition and promote a healthy and active lifestyle among young people. *Riverfield* donates 10% of its profits to this program.



- **Brookside** <sup>by Meadow's</sup> **ice cream:** *Brookside* uses excellent ingredients to make delicious ice creams. *Brookside* ice creams come in many flavors, bringing you an exceptional taste experience and a refreshing break whenever you need it.

**Condition of SR awareness & monolithic branding strategy & low product category fit**

**About Meadow's Corporation**

*Meadow's Corporation* is dedicated to meeting the everyday needs of people and offering a variety of products such as frozen yogurt and soft drink. *Meadow's* has become one of the fastest-growing consumer goods companies in the United States and is expanding into Pennsylvania and other states.

**Products of Meadow's Corporation**

- **Meadow's frozen yogurt:** *Meadow's frozen yogurt* uses delicious ingredients to bring you extraordinary taste. *Meadow's* offers numerous flavors of frozen yogurts, so it has the right taste for you whether you are seeking a bold taste experience or looking to reduce calories.

*Meadow's frozen yogurt* is committed to bettering the world through its **social responsibility initiatives**.

*Meadow's frozen yogurt* supports a nation-wide nutrition program called Healthy Youth™, which aims to enhance awareness of good nutrition and promote a healthy and active lifestyle among young people. *Meadow's frozen yogurt* donates 10% of its profits to this program.



- **Meadow's soft drink:** *Meadow's soft drink* uses excellent ingredients to make delicious soft drinks. *Meadow's* soft drinks come in many flavors, bringing you an exceptional taste experience and a refreshing break whenever you need it.



## Appendix C: Scenarios of Study 2

### Product brand A

- **Functional positioning**

**R**<sup>by Wellington</sup> is a new brand of **running shoes**, which uses new technology to bring you improved comfort and lightweight cushioning for running and other sports. **R**<sup>by Wellington</sup> running shoes feature attractive designs with durable performance, offering any colors and sizes you want.

- **Symbolic positioning**

**R**<sup>by Wellington</sup> is a new brand of **running shoes**, which is cool and fashionable. People wearing **R**<sup>by Wellington</sup> running shoes are confident, energetic, and have a great passion for life. They love freedom, follow their hearts, and always pursue a happier life. They like sports, adventure, travelling and other exciting activities. **R**<sup>by Wellington</sup> running shoes best *express who they are*.

- **SR initiatives**

**R**<sup>by Wellington</sup> is committed to bettering the world through its *social responsibility initiatives*. **R**<sup>by Wellington</sup> supports a nation-wide program called *Get Fit*<sup>TM</sup>, which aims to promote fitness and wellness among children and young people. This program includes health assessments, individualized fitness plans, and a structured exercise plan and wellness education. **R**<sup>by Wellington</sup> donates up to 30% of its profits to this program every year.



### Product brand B

- **Functional positioning & high product category fit with brand A**

J<sup>by Wellington</sup> is a new brand of **T-shirt**, which offers a large variety of T-shirts with appealing designs, coming in numerous colors and sizes. J<sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts use quality fabric to bring you comfort and durability.

- **Symbolic positioning & low product category fit with brand A**

J<sup>by Wellington</sup> is a new brand of **watch**, which is cool and fashionable. People wearing J<sup>by Wellington</sup> watches are confident and active, with a great passion for life. They love sports, adventure and other exciting activities, always seeking a happier life. J<sup>by Wellington</sup> watches clearly *show their image and personality to others*.

### Company

- **Functional positioning & high product category fit**

Wellington Corporation makes a variety of products such as running shoes and T-shirts. The company has a broad line of products so that you can choose your favorite ones to *satisfy functional needs*. Wellington has grown considerably over the past few years and is expanding into Pennsylvania and other states.

- **Symbolic positioning & low product category fit**

Wellington Corporation makes a variety of products such as running shoes and watches. The company has a broad line of products so that you can choose your favorite ones to *express yourself*. Wellington has grown considerably over the past few years and is expanding into Pennsylvania and other states.

## Appendix D: Scenarios of Study 3

### Condition of SR awareness & endorsed branding strategy & high product category fit

#### *About Meadow's Corporation*

*Meadow's Corporation* is dedicated to meeting the everyday needs of people and offering a variety of products such as *Riverfield* toothpaste and *Brookside* mouthwash. *Meadow's* has become one of the fastest-growing consumer goods companies in the United States and is expanding into Pennsylvania and other states.

#### *Products of Meadow's Corporation*

- **Riverfield<sup>by Meadow's</sup> toothpaste:** *Riverfield* provides a cool and refreshing brushing experience as well as good protection for your teeth. *Riverfield* toothpaste fights cavities, whitens teeth, and brings you long-lasting fresh breath with various flavors.
- **Brookside<sup>by Meadow's</sup> mouthwash:** *Brookside* mouthwash kills germs that cause bad breath, giving you a long-lasting refreshing sensation that lasts throughout the day. *Brookside* also removes surface stains on teeth for a more confident smile.

*Brookside<sup>by Meadow's</sup>* is committed to bettering the world through its **social responsibility initiatives**. In order to protect the environment, *Brookside* uses 100% renewable or recycled materials for its packaging. Moreover, *Brookside* supports a nation-wide education program called Friendly Future™, which aims to promote environmental responsibility and consumer conservation education. This program will teach consumers how to save water, waste and energy at home. *Brookside* donates 20% of its profits to this program every year.

*Condition of SR awareness & monolithic branding strategy & low product category fit*

*About Meadow's Corporation*

*Meadow's Corporation* is dedicated to meeting the everyday needs of people and offering a variety of products such as laundry detergent and mouthwash. *Meadow's* has become one of the fastest-growing consumer goods companies in the United States and is expanding into Pennsylvania and other states.

*Products of Meadow's Corporation*

- **Meadow's laundry detergent:** *Meadow's laundry detergent* keeps clothes clean with a touch of softness. *Meadow's laundry detergent* lifts off stains with ease and comes in a variety of scents.
- **Meadow's mouthwash:** *Meadow's mouthwash* kills germs that cause bad breath, giving you a long-lasting refreshing sensation that lasts throughout the day. *Meadow's mouthwash* also removes surface stains on teeth for a more confident smile.

*Meadow's mouthwash* is committed to bettering the world through its **social responsibility initiatives**. In order to protect the environment, *Meadow's mouthwash* uses 100% renewable or recycled materials for its packaging. Moreover, *Meadow's mouthwash* supports a nation-wide education program called Friendly Future™, which aims to promote environmental responsibility and consumer conservation education. This program will teach consumers how to save water, waste and energy at home. *Meadow's mouthwash* donates 20% of its profits to this program every year.

## Appendix E: Study Instruments

### Study 1

*Please read the following description carefully before answering any questions.*

#### About Meadow's Corporation

*Meadow's Corporation* is dedicated to meeting the everyday needs of people and offering a variety of products such as *Riverfield* frozen yogurt and *Brookside* soft drink.

*Meadow's* has become one of the fastest-growing consumer goods companies in the United States and is expanding into Pennsylvania and other states.

#### Products of Meadow's Corporation

- **Riverfield** <sup>by Meadow's</sup> **frozen yogurt:** *Riverfield* uses delicious ingredients to bring you extraordinary taste. *Riverfield* offers numerous flavors of frozen yogurts, so it has the right taste for you whether you are seeking a bold taste experience or looking to reduce calories.

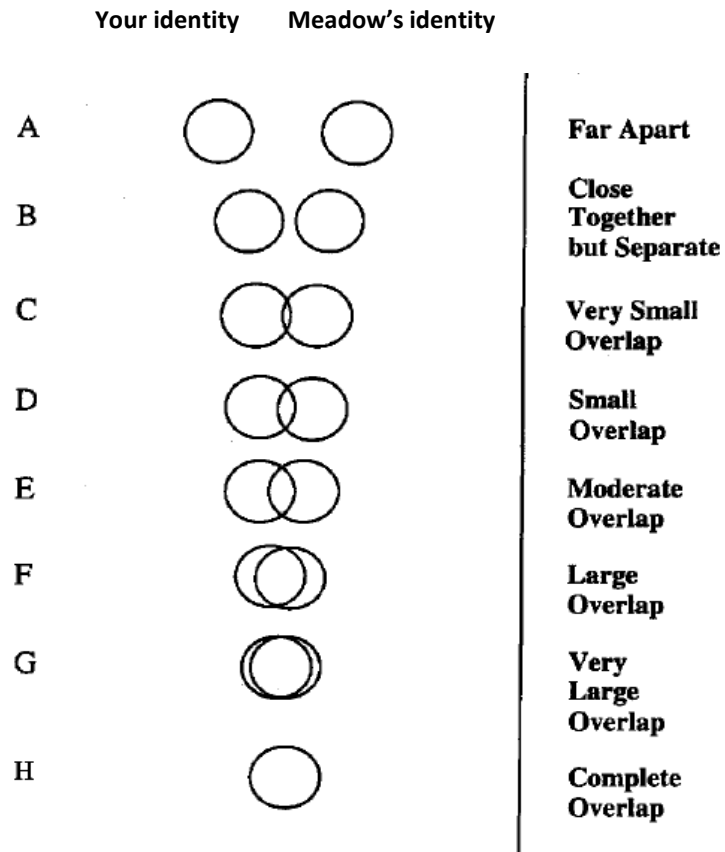
*Riverfield* is committed to bettering the world through its **social responsibility initiatives**. *Riverfield* supports a nation-wide nutrition program called Healthy Youth™, which aims to enhance awareness of good nutrition and promote a healthy and active lifestyle among young people. *Riverfield* donates 10% of its profits to this program.



- **Brookside** <sup>by Meadow's</sup> **soft drink:** *Brookside* uses excellent ingredients to make delicious soft drinks. *Brookside* soft drinks come in many flavors, bringing you an exceptional taste experience and a refreshing break whenever you need it.



3. Imagine that the circles at the left in each row represent *your own self-definition or identity* and the other circle at the right represents *the identity of Meadow's Corporation*. Please circle the letter (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, or H) that best describes the level of overlap between your own and Meadow's identities:











## Study 2

*Please read the following description of a company and its brands carefully before answering any questions.*

### **Products of Wellington Corporation:**

- **R<sup>by Wellington</sup>** is a new brand of **running shoes**, which is cool and fashionable. People wearing R<sup>by Wellington</sup> running shoes are confident, energetic, and have a great passion for life. They love freedom, follow their hearts, and always pursue a happier life. They like sports, adventure, travelling and other exciting activities. R<sup>by Wellington</sup> running shoes best *express who they are*.

R<sup>by Wellington</sup> is committed to bettering the world through its *social responsibility*

*initiatives*. R<sup>by Wellington</sup> supports a nation-wide program called *Get Fit<sup>TM</sup>*, which aims to promote fitness and wellness among children and young people. This program includes health assessments, individualized fitness plans, and a structured exercise plan and wellness education. R<sup>by Wellington</sup> donates up to 30% of its profits to this program every year.



- **J<sup>by Wellington</sup>** is a new brand of **T-shirt**, which is cool and fashionable. People wearing J<sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts are confident and active, with a great passion for life. They love sports, adventure and other exciting activities, always seeking a happier life. J<sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts clearly *show their image and personality to others*.

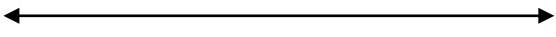
**About Wellington Corporation:**

Wellington Corporation makes a variety of products such as running shoes and T-shirts. The company has a broad line of products so that you can choose your favorite ones to *express yourself*. Wellington has grown considerably over the past few years and is expanding into Pennsylvania and other states.

*Now that you have learned a bit about Wellington Corporation and its brands, please respond to the following questions. We are interested in your opinions and there is no right or wrong answer.*

- 1. Please write all thoughts that you had while reading the information on Wellington Corporation and its brands. Write all these thoughts regardless of whether they refer to the company or brands, or something else unrelated to the given information.**

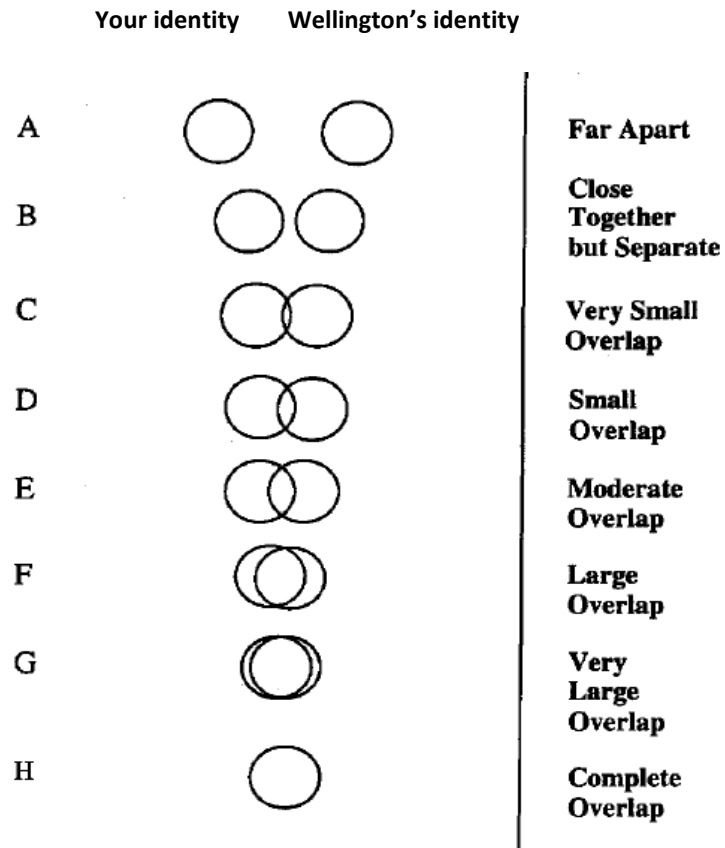
**2. Circle the number that best represents the extent to which you agree with the following statements about J<sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts.**

	Strongly disagree <span style="float: right;">Strongly agree</span> 						
I would like to try J <sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would consider buying J <sup>by Wellington</sup> brand for my next T-shirt purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would go out of my way to look for stores that sell J <sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would talk favorably about J <sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts to friends and family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would recommend J <sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would say positive things about J <sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If a friend were looking for T-shirts, I would like to advise him/her to try J <sup>by Wellington</sup> brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
J <sup>by Wellington</sup> is a socially responsible brand of T-shirt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
J <sup>by Wellington</sup> is a highly ethical brand of T-shirt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The J <sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirt brand cares about its role in society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
J <sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts appear to be of good quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
J <sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirts use good fabric.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
J <sup>by Wellington</sup> makes good T-shirts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. What price would you pay for a J<sup>by Wellington</sup> T-shirt?

\$ \_\_\_\_\_

4. Imagine that the circles at the left in each row represent *your own self-definition or identity* and the other circle at the right represents *the identity of Wellington Corporation*. Please circle the letter (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, or H) that best describes the level of overlap between your own and Wellington's identities:











**12. *G<sup>by Wellington</sup>* is a new brand of watch produced by Wellington Corporation. *G<sup>by Wellington</sup>* offers a large variety of watches with appealing designs to young people, coming in numerous colors and sizes. *G<sup>by Wellington</sup>* watches use quality band materials to bring you comfort and durability.**

**To what extent do you think are the following statements likely to be true?**

	Extremely unlikely						Extremely likely
	←—————→						
<i>G<sup>by Wellington</sup></i> is a socially responsible brand of watch.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>G<sup>by Wellington</sup></i> is a highly ethical brand of watch.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The <i>G<sup>by Wellington</sup></i> watch brand cares about its role in society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### Study 3

*Please read the following description carefully before answering any questions.*

#### **About Meadow's Corporation**

*Meadow's Corporation* is dedicated to meeting the everyday needs of people and offering a variety of products such as toothpaste and mouthwash. *Meadow's* has become one of the fastest-growing consumer goods companies in the United States and is expanding into Pennsylvania and other states.

#### **Products of Meadow's Corporation**

- **Meadow's toothpaste:** *Meadow's toothpaste* provides a cool and refreshing brushing experience as well as good protection for your teeth. *Meadow's toothpaste* fights cavities, whitens teeth, and brings you long-lasting fresh breath with various flavors.
- **Meadow's mouthwash:** *Meadow's mouthwash* kills germs that cause bad breath, giving you a long-lasting refreshing sensation that lasts throughout the day. *Meadow's mouthwash* also removes surface stains on teeth for a more confident smile.

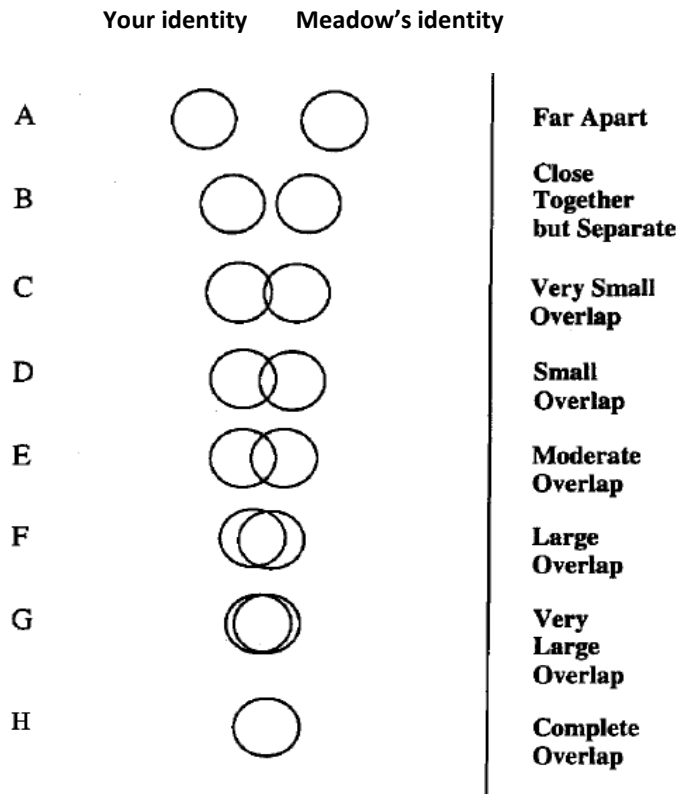
*Meadow's mouthwash* is committed to bettering the world through its **social responsibility initiatives**. In order to protect the environment, *Meadow's mouthwash* uses 100% renewable or recycled materials for its packaging. Moreover, *Meadow's mouthwash* supports a nation-wide education program called Friendly Future™, which aims to promote environmental responsibility and consumer conservation education. This program will teach consumers how to save water, waste and energy at home. *Meadow's mouthwash* donates 20% of its profits to this program every year.







4. Imagine that the circles at the left in each row represent *your own self-definition or identity* and the other circle at the right represents *the identity of Meadow's Corporation*. Please circle the letter (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, or H) that best describes the level of overlap between your own and Meadow's identities:



5. Based on the description of *Meadow's Corporation* and its products, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
	←—————→						
The values of <i>Meadow's Corporation</i> match my own values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would talk favorably about <i>Meadow's Corporation</i> to my friends and family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7









## Vita

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**Education:**

2011, PhD, *Marketing*, Drexel University (United States)

2004, MSc, *International Marketing Management*, University of Leeds (United Kingdom)

**Conference Proceedings:**

Suri, Rajneesh, Prabakar Kotahandaraman, Monil Chheda, and Wenling Wang (2011),  
 “‘Shades of Green’: Impact of Product’s Greenness on Consumers’ Willingness to Pay,” Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Academy of Marketing Science.

Korschun, Daniel and Wenling Wang (2010), “Being Different at Making a Difference: Distinctive Corporate Social Responsibility Activity, Company Innovativeness, and Consumer Need for Uniqueness,” Corporate Identity and Associations Research Group (CIARG) 2010 Conference Proceedings.

Wang, Wenling and Daniel Korschun (2009), “Spillover of Social Responsibility Associations in a Brand Portfolio,” Proceedings of AMA Summer Marketing Educators' Conference: Chicago, IL Aug 2009, Vol.20, p254.

Wang, Wenling (2008), “Effects of Self Congruity and Functional Congruity on Brand Trust: Relative Review and a Research Model,” Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol.XXXI, p118.

Wang, Wenling (2008), “Managing Channel Conflict in the Age of E-Commerce: External and Internal Factors,” Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol.XXXI, p164.

**Teaching Experience:**

Fall 2007 – Spring 2009      Introduction to Marketing Management (Recitation)

Winter 2010 – Spring 2010    Advertising & Advertising Management (Lecture)

Winter 2011 – Spring 2011    New Product Development (Lecture)

**Professional Experience:**

June 2005 – June 2006, Research Executive in *Consumer Insight Research Company* (Shanghai, China), responsible for doing marketing research projects for clients such as Intel, Sony, IKEA

November 2004 – May 2005, Account Executive at *Betterway China Solutions Ltd.* (Shanghai, China), responsible for writing Marketing Communications Proposals for clients