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Do Brands Invest in the Right Advertising Channels? Development of the Research Tool to Measure the Brand - Media Channel Fit.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction of the research project and motivation behind the research

The world of brand advertising nowadays is as complex as it has never been before. Media environment is at the same time much fractured and extremely dynamic. While consumers become insensitive to the overflow of brand communications, brand managers are struggling to make their marketing efforts accountable and predict the effects of advertisement. Not doubting the power of media planning instruments, marketers often move their efforts to the new media in order to keep up with popular trends, without considering possible backfire effects on brand image. The problematic issue is that still a lack of academic guidance exists about the selection of media channels, which can be appropriate for a particular brand. In this respect brand building effects of media, i.e. communicated brand personality is important. However, the role of media perceptions is often underestimated. In fact, the concept of brand image or personality is well established, while the area of media perception remain vaguely investigated, not to say about the exploration of perceptual fit between brands and media.

In my master's thesis I address the call for future research in the area of brand-media fit, expressed recently by Valette-Florence and De Barnier (2013: 903) that "creating a hybrid personality scale jointly applicable to different areas would be relevant" and could consequently help advertisers create a better match between brand personality profiles and media in which they place their advertising. Although some aspects of such brand-media fit have been covered, e.g. brand-celebrity image congruence and brand fit in sponsorship, there is no widely applied universal framework that could help explicitly measure this intrinsic construct. Therefore, I focus on filling this gap and propose a framework for the measurement of perceived brand-media fit, basing the instrument development on reputable marketing concepts and the findings of the related research.

1.2 Research questions and objectives, paper organization

Many studies were devoted to the aspects of brand personality and some to the effects of media vehicles on the ad perception, but in my opinion none has explicitly incorporated the issue of brand-media fit, although the prerequisites in terms of brand personality frameworks and several media personality investigations already exist. Media like brands create certain associations in the minds of consumers, which may fit or not with the brand personality it is aimed to communicate; thus, enhancing or reducing the effectiveness of marketing in terms of brand image communication. Therefore, my research project is targeting a topical matter in the area of brand manage-

ment and media planning and will deliver valuable insights for academics and practitioners.

From the managerial perspective, the objective of my work is to enrich brand managers' organizational agendas of media planning by introducing a new position. This position is based on the clue that a perceptual fit may exist in the minds of consumers between brand image and media characteristics. In my work I explore whether such brand-media fit can be established and in what way it can be beneficially employed for a successful brand communication, in order to assist marketing managers in their decisions about which media to invest in.

From the theoretical point of view, the value of my work is in extending the current knowledge with regard to more rigorous examination of the connection between the brands and media. Studies suggesting or investigating the influence of media properties on brand image are rather scarce and piecemeal. Although in some areas conceptualizations of brand-media perceived congruence have been advocated, it seems that researchers have not yet agreed about how to assess the degree of such fit. Thus, the generation of a framework and an instrument to measure perceived brand-media fit will contribute to currently existing body of marketing research.

From the perspective of societal value, brand-media perceived fit applied in practice, can help reducing the amount of advertising the consumers are "bombarded" with, without compromising on its efficiency or maybe even improving it. Although this may sound utopic for some, wisely incorporated into brand communication, brand-media fit can possibly build strong and unique brand personalities without overly disturbing consumers.

The paper is organized upon the research questions guiding the way to the development of the research framework and pretesting of the brand-media fit instrument. To start, I investigate the challenges of brand communications that are related to the media environment to identify the unique managerial contribution of perceived brand-media fit framework. Next, I present a thorough review of the marketing contexts, in which the questions of perceived brand fit have been considered previously, in order to derive theoretical propositions with respect to the brand-media fit framework. Based on these theoretical findings, I address the main research question about the most appropriate conceptualization of perceived brand-media fit and methodological approach to its exploration in the fourth part; I continue with the development of the measurement instrument in the form of a survey. Then, I report about the results of the instrument pretest operationalized through an online questionnaire. Lastly, I highlight the limitations of my study, discuss key academic and managerial implications, and offer propositions for the future research.

2. MEDIA RELATED CHALLENGES OF BRAND COMMUNICATION

The emergence of a valuable marketing concept of consumer-based brand equity in the 1980s has raised the significance of the brand as an essential source of company's income. Marketing communications and advertising are considered to have the crucial influential power to create and nurture differential effect of the brand (Keller, 2013: 219), due to the integration of the brand identities and their effect on brand imagery (Keller, 1993). In today's fractured and continuously evolving media environment marketers will invariably employ multiple communications to realize the desired consumer response (Keller, 2013: 221). The literature suggests that effective advertisement does not only require creativity, but also careful planning, where media context and its perception by consumers plays a significant role. Integrated marketing programs, though aimed to achieve advertising synergies, need to account for consumer media behavior, in order to avoid negative effects, such as consumer overstimulation due to an increased number of brand contacts.

2.1 Complex media environment

Several approaches to how media can be classified are available in the literature. That is another evidence of how fractured media environment is. For example, Katz (2014: 53-140) distinguishes paid, owned, and earned media to show how brand experience can be delivered effectively. Kelley, Jugenheimer and Sheehan (2012: 127-195) characterize media landscape by the nature of delivery, describing TV and radio as broadcast media and combining the Internet and mobile into digital media. For Keller (2013: 218) Internet advertisement and social networks represent interactive communication options. Sissors and Baron (2010: 10-14) identify traditional mass media, nontraditional media, online media, and specialized media classes, although they admit that these definition fails to represent the reality due to high convergence of media forms.

Indeed, the examples of media transformation are ubiquitous. For example, most newspapers and magazines today developed themselves into multichannel platforms, i.e. extended their distribution to print, internet and mobile applications (Doyle, 2014), e.g. *Forbes*, *The New York Times*. For a few years now TV is also no longer restricted to the television set, but can be watched on computer, tablet, and mobile phone in numerous locations (Katz, 2014: 66). In the same way, radio can be streamed via mobile phones and tablets, so this typically local medium is transforming into national or even global (Katz, 2014: 75). Furthermore, the recent steep development of mobile technology has increased its usage for targeted marketing communications. For instance,

geotargeting allows marketers to send promotional materials, coupons and discounts to consumers based on their location and activities they are engaging in, as far as they opt in to different mobile services, e.g. *Foursquare*, *Groupon*, *Shopkick* (Marston, 2010; Bender, 2011). Internet advertising has also reached a new level, as advertising messages can be delivered selectively based on consumers' online behavior (websites visits, online purchases, etc.). Thus, marketing on the Web is not only of lower cost, but also offers the higher level of detail, interactivity, degree of customization and accountability (Keller, 2013: 236-37). Social media, such as *Facebook*, *Twitter* or *YouTube*, has become powerful platforms for building brands' relationship with customers (Keller, 2013: 238-39) and facilitate the dissemination of product and brand information, e.g. in the form of viral video ads (Huang et al., 2013).

Consequently, investments in mobile advertising are growing (8.8 billion U.S. dollar worldwide in 2012) and are projected to exceed 59 billion U.S. dollar in 2017.¹ Internet advertising spending is forecasted to increase the most (by 16 percent) in 2015 compared to 2014, while TV and radio advertising will only increase by 2.6 and 2 percent, respectively. The investments in print media, such as magazines and newspapers are going to decline by 3.6 percent both in 2015.² Is the effectiveness of traditional media shrinking or does digital “swallow” all other media and marketers must learn to participate in the consumer's world of digital connectivity (Mulhern, 2009)? And are these increased investments in Internet and mobile justified with regard to brand image effects?

Media fragmentation, convergence, transformation and steady technological development, though carries appreciable advantages, as well faces marketers with the difficult task to decide about the distribution of their restricted marketing budgets among media most effectively and efficiently. While some media offer greater coverage and, thus, lower marginal costs (e.g. TV or radio), others are more targeted (e.g. print, Internet or mobile) or provide more space for creativity and consumer engagement (e.g. social media). The following part will deliver the insights about factors influencing media selection strategies and shows the possible vulnerability of commonly applied practices.

2.2 Media planning and qualitative aspects of media selection

Advertising media are crucial for the brand communication, thus proper and efficient use of the

¹ www.statista.com/statistics/280640/mobile-advertising-spending-worldwide/

² www.statista.com/statistics/240679/global-advertising-growth-by-medium/

media can ensure their success while poor media choices can destroy an entire advertising campaign (Kelley, Jugenheimer and Sheehan, 2012: 6). As next I look at the media selection as part of the media planning process and more closely at some qualitative and contextual criteria that media planners are usually concerned about in their media choices.

It is indispensable that marketing communication of brands should reach the target group of consumers to have the desired effect on sales. Therefore, such factors as the number of people reached, how frequently and quickly the target audience can be approached within a certain geographic region or nationally, medium selectivity and seasonality – in other words, quantitative criteria of media mix will not lose their actuality for managers (Leckenby and Kim, 1994; Cheong, De Gregorio and Kim, 2010). However, “recently, more and more media planners have become convinced of the importance of qualitative criteria such as the context, capacity of image building, creativity, etc.” (De Pelsmacker, Geuens, and Van den Bergh, 2010: 290). Consequently, marketing research in this area is extending and brings valuable insights.

In this sense, the prevalent focus of scholars was the impact of media-ad congruency on advertising response, though the studies are scarce and reveal conflicting results (De Pelsmacker, Geuens, and Van den Bergh, 2010: 295-96). According to the research the placement of a brand ad in matching context in TV or print media facilitates more favorable response to the advertisement among consumers. For instance, TV being a passive medium with high emotional impact can lead to more favorable evaluation of the ad by enhancing the positive mood among the viewers, known as affect transfer (Tavassoli, Schultz, and Fitzsimons, 1995) or affective priming (Aylesworth and MacKenzie, 1998). Similarly, priming context effects were registered for print media and show to impact the perception of the advertising messages (e.g. Aaker and Brown, 1972; Yi, 1990, 1993). However, De Pelsmacker, Geuens, and Anckaert (2002) note that active involvement and more rational cognitive processing in print media environment negatively influences brand recall because of lower attention paid to the ad, even in case of congruent ad placement. Thus, context effects may be either more or less pronounced and can depend on the media type.

Due to the significant increase of advertising clutter in most media (Ritson, 2003), competition for consumer reaction to brand communication is enormous. In such emulating media environment brand confusion, i.e. when the communication of one brand is considered by the consumer as a communication for a different brand of the same category (Poiesz and Verhallen,

1989), may be prone to grow. To avoid this false attribution, managers also need to make sure that brand personality is communicated distinctively by the medium and is not mixed up with other brands. Hence, despite the advertising effectiveness in terms of more positive ad attitude in congruent media context, the emphasis of qualitative media evaluation should reflect the choice of a medium, which is the most appropriate to convey a particular brand image. A good example of such approach, where the medium itself is viewed as the message, transferring desired associations and strengthening consumer perceptions of target brand image characteristics was shown recently by Dahlén (2005). The author's empirical study confirms: congruent brand-media combinations ensure that brand associations are indirectly primed by the medium and, as a result, are communicated implicitly. Further motivation for the existence of perceived brand-media fit is offered by Bart, Stephen and Sarvary (2014), who found that particular product characteristics, such as high versus low product involvement and utilitarian versus hedonic product type, are likely to matter for the effectiveness of mobile display advertising campaigns. Thus, media types - traditional or new, informative or evocative – may not be equally effective for all products and brands.

Besides the challenges of qualitative media selection, the phenomenon of media multiplexing behavior among consumers is discussed and investigated in several recent studies. Such media behavior appears, when people rapidly switch or simultaneously consume often incomplete “chunks” of several media forms (Pilotta and Schultz, 2005). This multimedia consumption is additional evidence that consumer orientation is crucial to media planning (Pilotta et al., 2004; Lin, Venkataraman, and Jap, 2013). In this regard, the effectiveness of integrated marketing communication plans, designed to beneficially employ diverse media characteristics and increase audience reach, may suffer as consumer attention to advertising messages decreases, when they are confronted with brand communications over and over again. More promising at that point is the effect of brand-media congruence, considering the reported ability of the medium to communicate brand associations indirectly.

To summarize, the importance of qualitative aspects of media selection have raised and research in the area is increasing. Still, not enough structured guidance is offered to managers with respect to which media class is capable to better communicate brand image characteristics. Therefore, current research is aimed at yielding further insights about the way brand image-building selection of media can be improved by the means of perceived brand-media fit concept.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF PERCEIVED BRAND FIT

In order to address the core research question, theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of perceived brand-media fit need to be established. In the resulting literature review I aim to accomplish the following tasks:

- (1) to scrutinize the role of perceived fit in consumer marketing, with the purpose to identify in which areas of marketing research and practice perceived fit is considered to be an important factor of brand marketing effectiveness and what its influence is in particular;
- (2) to dig into the theoretical and conceptual foundation of perceived fit, with an eye on appropriate theoretical concepts that can deliver grounded explanation of the investigated perceived brand-media fit question;
- (3) to compare possible methodological approaches with respect to investigation and measurement of perceived fit, in order to derive suitable for my investigation research design;

The first two tasks will help me to find the basis for conceptualization of the perceived brand-media fit; the last task will assist me in drafting an appropriate research framework.

3.1 Perceived brand fit in marketing

Examination of the corresponding literature reveals at least seven marketing areas, where perceived fit (congruence or match) is investigated to explain differentiated consumer response. These areas were reviewed below, key theoretical learnings are summarized separately in part 3.2 and their application to my research is discussed.

3.1.1 Perceived fit in brand extensions

Brand extensions are a very broad and productive area of marketing, because of the recognized potential to effectively capitalize on the leveraging of the existing brand image, knowledge and familiarity. The researchers' primary focus has been on the factors that influence or determine brand extension success. Recent investigation of real extensions confirms that perceived fit is among the most important success drivers (Völckner and Sattler, 2006, 2007).

In the fundamental study of Aaker and Keller (1990) perceived fit in brand extensions is conceptualized on three dimensions: product complementarity and substitutability, and transferability of manufacturer's skills and assets. The results show that more favorable attitudes toward extensions are generated mainly when company's competence in the original product class perceived to be relevant for making the extension into the new category (i.e. transfer). The

complementary relationship of product usage was also a good predictor of extension success, whereas the effect of substitution was found fairly unimportant. Additionally, Keller and Aaker (1992) report that in contrast to average quality brands, extensions of high quality brands are less affected by the degree of similarity, pointing toward greater extension opportunities. However, as recognized later cross-cultural effects with respect to relative importance of quality and fit factors for the extension success should be considered (Bottomley and Holden, 2001).

Boush and Loken (1991) apply their conceptualization of perceived fit in terms of extension typicality (i.e. high similarity) or atypicality (i.e. low similarity). Alike, the authors demonstrate that the higher the perceived similarity, the more positive is the evaluation of brand extensions; though the degree of perceived typicality is moderated by the range of current brand offering. For specialized brands, the extension needs to fit more to be successful, whereas brands with broader product portfolio may still benefit even from moderately similar extensions. This reduced importance of fit also found to be mediated by quality: given the parent brands maintain a high degree of quality consistency across diverse product categories the impact of perceived extension fit on consumer evaluations decreases (Dacin and Smith, 1994).

Park, Milberg, and Lawson (1991) argue that perceived fit in brand extensions should not be limited to product similarity judgements; rather it is comprised from two components – product similarity and brand concept consistency. The authors demonstrate that whether high or low similarity, extensions are more positively evaluated when brand concept consistency is high; particularly prestige-oriented brands have much higher extension potential even to dissimilar product classes, which are congruent with their luxury concept. Results' generalizability should be taken cautiously though, as only one product category was studied. Broniarczyk and Alba (1994) continued to investigate in this direction and concentrated on brand-related effects, which were over-looked. The authors found that brand-specific associations (i.e. brand attributes or benefits) moderated the role of product category similarity in brand extension evaluations. Even for functional brands, “brand extension was more preferred in a dissimilar category that valued its association than in a similar category that did not value its association” (p.227), though only for consumers knowledgeable about the brand. Extension judgements for consumers with low brand knowledge were mainly motivated by brand affect.

Instead of prompting to high fit, several researchers examined the negative impact of low fit, such as negative feedback on the parent brand or the dilution of parent brand beliefs. In general the

findings in this area appear to be inconsistent and greatly impacted by the research design. Loken and John (1993) reported the dilution of brand beliefs occurred only with respect to distinctive attributes (e.g. gentleness) but not for overall quality evaluation, and only when brand beliefs were measured prior to participants' rating of extension typicality. Similarly, Keller and Aaker (1992) and Romeo (1991) did not find any evidence of dilution of brand attitudes as a result of low fit or failed brand extensions. Morrin (1999) further concluded that non-dominant in the category brands appear to be more vulnerable to low fit extensions in terms of brand information retrieval (recall and awareness), than dominant brands.

Interestingly, the choice of extension categories for brands does not need to be constrained to the obvious fit. Rather, non-salient dimensions of similarity can be emphasized by communication. For example, Chakravarti, MacInnis, and Nakamoto (1990) noted that providing a cue to a non-salient similarity enhanced the evaluation of extensions in the absence of other salient bases. They conclude that weaker brands with less pronounced associations may profit more from creating external cues through advertisement, than prototypical to the category well-known brands. Further, Bridges, Keller, and Sood (2000) found that communication strategies that add the credibility to explanatory links of brand-to-extension relationship improve perceptions of fit for both attribute-based and association-based extensions. The effect of communication is then improved by repeated exposure to well-constructed advertisement (Lane, 2000), as the positive impact of the attitude toward the extension ad on extension evaluation increases, the lower is the congruency of extension (Nan, 2006). Klink and Smith (2001) provide further support that the perception of similarity advances with the higher exposure to extension, thus the effect of natural fit on extension evaluations diminishes when more information is available for consumers.

Whether natural or created through appropriate communication, perceived extension fit and quality of the parent brand should not be considered as the only determinants of success. Völckner and Sattler (2006) distinguish five most relevant success factors: fit, marketing support, retailer acceptance, parent-brand conviction and parent-brand experience, varying in their overall relative importance. Furthermore, consumer perception of fit and response to different degrees of fit can be moderated by involvement (e.g. Nkwocha et al., 2005), the degree of differentiation of brand extension from the extensions of similar brands (Maoz and Tybout, 2002), brand attachment (Fedorikhin, Park, and Thomson, 2008), consumers' ability to use more abstract mental models (Kim and John, 2008) or consumer innovativeness (e.g. Klink and Smith, 2001).

3.1.2 Fit in strategic brand alliances

As research and practice has shown, strategic brand alliances require not only synergetic combination of companies' resources and capabilities. To achieve desired marketing outcomes allied brands need to appear sound and logical for consumers.

In overall, partner brand attitudes are impacted by brand alliance evaluations. In turn, brand alliance evaluations are influenced not only by prior brand attitudes, but as well by the perception of product and brand fit. For brand alliances, product fit is described as the relatedness of product categories implied by the alliance and brand fit - as the consistence in images and associations of jointly presented brands. (Simonin and Ruth, 1998)

Research findings advocate that product fit is essential when brand alliance is associated with the creation of a new product or an inclusion of a new attribute. As demonstrated by James (2005) the stronger the perceived fit between two allied brands and between the brands and the new product category, the more favorable is the evaluation of brand alliance. In the study matching brand combinations were related to as having a good mix of complementary skills that result in a new high quality product. In ingredient co-branding, functional complementarity that leads to high fit with an extension category is also favorable (Park, Jun, and Shocker, 1996). Desai and Keller (2002) found that the more dissimilar the new expansion attribute is to the original product, the more should a cobranded ingredient be preferred to a self-branded ingredient.

Ahn and Sung (2012) note that the effect of symbolic meanings of brands on consumer evaluations should not be underestimated, as it overweighs the functional fit in some conditions. For instance, James, Lyman, and Foreman (2006) reported, increased purchase intentions for composite brands that match more on abstract, emotional dimensions. Van der Lans, Van den Bergh, and Dieleman (2014) examined the role of fit between allied brands according to brand personalities and found that for favorable alliance evaluations congruence in extrinsic dimensions (sophistication and ruggedness) is more significant, than the similarity in intrinsic dimensions (sincerity and competence), and exciting brand combinations are always favorable.

In case of cross-border brand alliances, when a brand is novel and less familiar to consumers, brand fit cues play less of a role in predicting consumer attitudes due to limited available knowledge (Bluemelhuber, Carter, and Lambe, 2007). In such situations, consumers relate to secondary information, such as country of origin (COO), and base their alliance evaluations on COO fit against brand fit. Lee, Lee, and Lee (2013) recognize high COO fit when each product

involved in the alliance is manufactured in a country that is perceived to have high expertise for it (e.g. Germany - for cars, Japan - for electronics) and that by following the guidelines of COO fit in cross-border alliances, companies can significantly improve attitudes toward their brands.

3.1.3 Endorser-brand fit

Various research reveal the importance and the need for endorser-product congruence for the effectiveness of celebrity advertisement (i.e. persuasion power, credibility, believability) and other brand measures, such as recall, attitude, purchase intention, etc. The degree of endorser-brand fit may vary from general features, e.g. an attractive celebrity for attractiveness-related products, to specific image characteristics, such as status and personality.

According to Kahle and Homer's (1985) matchup hypothesis a positive impact upon product and advertisement evaluations is expected when a physically attractive celebrity is linked with an attractiveness-related product. They also introduced an idea that effective match might be either between the endorser and the ad message or between the endorser and the product. This relationship was empirically tested by Kamins (1990), who suggests "that the message conveyed by the image of the celebrity and the image of the product should converge in effective advertisements" (p.5). In his study the use of an attractive celebrity for particular attractiveness-related product categories (e.g. luxury cars, facial crème) was observed to significantly enhance measures of spokesperson credibility and attitude toward the ad, but at the same time had no effect for products not related to attractiveness (e.g. home computers). However, when three factors were manipulated – attractiveness, trustworthiness and expertise – only the perceived celebrity expertise for the endorsed product was significant in explaining the purchase intention (Ohanian, 1991), although only low involvement products were studied. Similarly, Till and Busler (2000) indicated that "expertise, rather than attractiveness, may be more appropriate for matching products with celebrities" (p.11). However, they noted that misleading findings about the role of physical attractiveness in theirs and previous research may be attributed to methodological idiosyncrasies with respect to which product was considered attractiveness-related. Bower and Landreth (2001) extended this area of research and found that normally attractive model appears to be the more congruent choice for problem-solving attractiveness products and highly attractive models – for products enhancing attractiveness.

Misra and Beatty (1990) conceptualize endorser congruence as entire image matching, when "the highly relevant characteristics of the spokesperson are consistent with the highly relevant

attributes of the brand” (p.161). Celebrity-brand congruence was found to enhance advertising effectiveness with respect to recall, affect transfer from spokesperson to brand and brand affect. The experimental study of Kamins and Gupta (1994) also showed that when the matchup is viewed more globally – at the level of endorser and brand image – the benefits of celebrity advertising increase. So, enhanced by improved congruence spokesperson’s believability and attractiveness favorably impact attitude toward the product and purchase intention, however only for celebrity endorser when compared to noncelebrity.

The effect of increased source credibility in case of matchup between spokesperson’s characteristics and product attributes is well explained by using the schema theory. Lynch and Schuler (1994) demonstrated that consumer product schemas embed certain cultural stereotypes about the image of a person who would know about the product (e.g. a muscular man would possess more knowledge about masculinity products). Kirmani and Shiv (1998) further examined under which conditions accessible endorser and brand associations interact to influence brand beliefs and attitudes. The authors define source congruity as the degree of match between accessible endorser and brand associations. The results of three experiments, in which celebrities’ congruity was manipulated, supported that congruity enhances brand attitudes and perceptions of relevant brand attributes (e.g. toughness, power or user-friendliness) only when issue-relevant elaboration is high. Thus, congruent endorsers may serve as persuasive arguments. Although not explicitly integrating celebrity-product fit in their study, Batra and Homer (2004) establish that personality associations of celebrity endorsers can indeed strengthen equivalent consumer brand beliefs (e.g. fun and classiness), if these are a part of related consumer product schemas.

Recently, Fleck, Korchia, and Le Roy (2012) found that the effect of congruence is stronger, than that of endorser likability; however the attitude toward the endorser showed to influence the perceived congruence, suggesting that affective evaluation of celebrity has an impact on cognitive processing of brand-celebrity fit. Building on the importance of celebrity-target audience match, Choi and Rifon (2012) added the congruence between ideal self-image and celebrity image to their model of celebrity endorser effects. As a result, higher celebrity-consumer congruence lead to more favorable ad ratings and greater purchase intentions, while celebrity-product congruence – just to more favorable ad attitude. Thus, celebrity image should be considered with respect to target audience’ self-image as well as to the brand image, yet the relevant and salient image dimensions that constitute the perceived fit need to be defined.

3.1.4 Event-sponsor fit

Particular researchers' interest in perceived fit in sponsorship activities is justified by the need for synergy that is sought between the event and company values when consumers can directly link the event to the product (McDonald, 1991). Not only product relevance may be important for the creation of sponsorship effect, rather many companies concentrate their efforts on the advantage of image transfer from event to the sponsor. For instance, socio-sponsorship is advantageous for changing brands' social benefit associations and overall brand attitudes (e.g. Dean, 2000; Simmons and Becker-Olsen, 2006); professional sports mainly improve brand image as long as the links to specific brand benefits and attributes are integrated (e.g. Gwinner and Eaton, 1999).

Gwinner (1997) argued that the benefits of event to sponsor image transfer are highly influenced by the degree of similarity between the event and the brand, i.e. image or functional links should exist in consumer minds. Smith (2004) further extended the domain of perceived event-sponsor fit and discussed several levels of associations, on which the fit may occur. These associations include product attributes, user imagery and brand personality, functional, experiential and symbolic benefits; the similarity may appear simultaneously on some or all levels.

Much of empirical research provided support for the important role of even-sponsor fit on consumer evaluations of brand image. For instance, the link between the sponsor and the event had a positive impact on the perceptions of image improvement in short commercial sponsorships, but marginal impact was registered for philanthropic events, where the brand image was perceived as high in general (d'Astous and Bitz, 1995). The findings of Gwinner and Eaton (1999) indicated that the stronger the match between the event and the product (expressed thorough congruence of their images), the more pronounced is the resulting image transfer. However, Grohs and Reisinger (2014) found that higher levels of sponsorship exposure reduce the positive image transfer, especially if event-sponsor fit is low or the event is highly commercialized.

Jarge, Watson and Watson (2001) highlighted that the impact on reaching other communication objectives than image transfer, such as brand recall or brand attitude should not be overlooked. Their theoretical framework proposes that sponsor events which are extremely inconsistent (low fit) will result in higher recall rates but less favorable brand evaluations compared. Importantly, moderate incongruity may be regarded as interesting and positively valued, so sponsoring of moderately inconsistent events will produce significantly higher attitudes and more favorable evaluations than in either high or low fit conditions; this was regarded as surprise effect. Notably,

the advantageous results of event-sponsor fit are not equally enjoyable for high and low equity brands. This prominence bias implies more marked sponsorship benefits (e.g. recognition, positive brand image) for high-equity sponsors of similar events (Pham and Johar, 2001) and causes higher perceived brand-event congruence of high-equity brands sponsoring major events (Roy and Cornwell, 2003).

3.1.5 Fit in cause related marketing

The idea of perceived fit to be a relevant factor of cause related marketing (CRM) effectiveness was first suggested by Strahilevitz and Myers (1998), who considered a possible influence of product-charity complementarity on their findings. Till and Novak (2000) further indicated the importance of belongingness and appropriate match between a brand and a specific cause to induce emotional and behavioral response from consumers. It was shown by Pracejus and Olsen (2004) that highly congruent charity initiative facilitates consumer choice behavior, compared to low-fit donations. Lafferty, Goldsmith, and Hult (2004) found that the fit between the brand and the cause, i.e. how logical the cause partnership is given particular brand associations (e.g. Avon and Breast Cancer Research), is a necessary antecedent for a successful cause-brand campaign. However, consumers did not show the ability to elaborate on product-category cues, i.e. how logical the cause partnership is for the product category (e.g. eating fiber can prevent certain forms of cancer), making such fit an insignificant factor. Gupta and Pirsch (2006) emphasized that while the fit between the company and the cause is the driver of CRM success, having the cause that is relevant to company's target customers maximizes the CRM effectiveness in terms of consumer intent to participate and purchase intentions.

Later, Barone, Norman, and Miyazaki (2007) argued that good and poor company-cause fit may lead to unfavorable evaluations as long as consumers are skeptical about the company's altruistic motivation to support the cause. Moreover, when the cause itself is evaluated positively by target customers, the issue of fit becomes less important. Similarly, Lafferty (2007) after failing to find an interaction effect of brand-cause fit and company credibility suggested that consumers' strong affect with the cause may "resolve" slight incongruities and still result in effective CRM.

The influence of cause familiarity on consumer evaluations is also noteworthy. Zdravkovic, Magnusson, and Stanley (2010) report that the more known the cause, the stronger is the effect of fit on brand attitudes; at the same time, when cause familiarity is high, consumers care less about the source of support, thus the support initiative from any company is favorable and the fit

becomes unimportant. These findings are consistent with Lafferty's (2009) results that the importance of the cause, but not necessarily the logical fit, have an effect on attitudes and purchase intent and, curiously, rather for unfamiliar than for familiar brands.

3.1.6 Product-premium fit

Premium promotions are a widely applied promotion tactic which has evoked substantial researchers' attention to their effectiveness. A premium is a product or a service offered free or at a relatively low price in return to the purchase (d'Astous and Jacob, 2002). Despite some important premium characteristics (e.g. premium attractiveness, immediacy, monetary value), according to some authors one crucial concern is how well the premium is integrated with the brand marketing strategy and positioning (e.g. Rossiter and Percy, 1997; Hiam, 2000). d'Astous and Landreville (2003) applied this perspective and introduced perceived product-premium congruity. Their findings suggest that fit encourages positive consumer reaction to the promotional offer in case of unattractive premium and decreases consumer perception of manipulation intent. Also, Palazon and Delgado-Ballester's (2013) results advocate for the moderating role of fit on premium type effectiveness: in case of good perceived fit utilitarian and hedonic premiums are equally effective, but when the offered premium is (or cannot) be congruent with the functionality of the main product a hedonic premium should be favored.

3.1.7 Perceived fit of brands in virtual environment

With a steep development of digital technology, brand managers strive for new, more interactive and experiential advertising formats, e.g. advergames or virtual worlds. Goh and Ping's (2014) study sheds light on the impact of brand-advergame fit, i.e. the extent to which the context and design of an advergame matches with the theme or image of the advertised brand. The results of experiments reveal that high fit should always be a primary concern for the advertisers as it enhances attitude toward the game, which transfers to the more positive brand attitude. The effect of fit can be further increased by the high interactivity of the game and the novelty of game play elements (low expectancy). Barnes and Mattsson's (2011) exploratory model of brand fit to the virtual world (i.e. Second Life) suggests that managers should strongly consider how well the real-life brand offerings fit this innovative channel before extending their brand-building activities to this and similar channels (e.g. social media), because the evaluation of perceived fit strongly determines extension attitude. However, a suggestion about how brand's presence and value in the virtual channel transfer to the real-life brand value and attitudes was not provided.

3.2 Key theoretical learnings and their application to my research

To summarize shortly, perceived fit is included as cognitive element in different areas of marketing research and practice. This fact tremendously emphasizes its importance and value for achieving more positive outcomes from various marketing decisions. The decisions, in which perceived fit is advised to be accounted for, range from typically tactical, or short-term, such as the choice of suitable product premiums or appropriate brand endorser, to typically strategic, or long-term, such as which kind of product extension to introduce or alliance partner to prefer.

Although decisions on media or communication investments are characteristically short-term (i.e. media plans are drafted for a year or less and are usually flexible to changes and adaptation), they often fall into line with certain strategic focus, e.g. to move the communication more to the Internet and mobile channels; and this strategic focus should be weighed against the perceived brand-media fit.

According to the review of the relevant literature two primary techniques to conceptualize the perceived fit can be recognized. First conceptualization is related to product- or category-level similarity. This dimension refers to the functional attributes associated with brands, such as functional features of the product or category as well as certain manufacturing skills and expertise of the company. This formulation of fit received quite a share of attention in the research on brand extensions and brand alliances. The second conceptualization of fit is attributed to the role of the brand as a carrier of symbolic associations, derived from brand image, brand concept or brand personality. This stream of perceived fit has found its greatest applicability in the areas, where the power of abstract associations and emotions is substantial, namely celebrity endorsement, event sponsorship, or cause related marketing (CRM). This is not to say that these two perceived fit concepts are mutually exclusive or not interactive. On the contrary, the relevance of product-level similarity does not eliminate the further elaboration on brand image attributes, and vice versa. However, in the absence of visible functional cues, abstract imagery cues tend to become more salient. In particular situations when brands have a very pronounced hedonic, symbolic or prestige value, the strength of abstract associations dominates, making the functional fit relatively unimportant.

Since brands and media types do not normally share salient physical characteristics (with an exception of sponsorship, where this connection is possible to establish, e.g. Adidas sponsoring a football team), the conceptualization of perceived fit on the level of brand associations shows a decent potential to be effectively applied to my research topic.

In different areas of marketing research perceived fit is found to facilitate positive effects: favorable evaluations of brand extensions and brand alliances, attitudes toward advertisement and brand beliefs in celebrity endorsements, image transfer in sponsorships, and image improvement and consumer choice in CRM. So, the perceived fit was confirmed to influence consumer acceptance and response, hence, the success and effectiveness of intended marketing actions. When these findings are reflected in the light of brand-media relationship in general, it can be argued that congruent with certain brand associations media enables these associations to appear more pronounced because of the presence of high perceived fit. This assumption appears quite logical, given that in several areas, e.g. product extensions or sponsorship, marketing communications and advertising are seen as powerful instruments to create explanatory links and contribute to increasing the degree of fit perception; whereas in particular forms of communication, e.g. celebrity endorsement, the main advertising element, the celebrity, when chosen appropriately is proven to enhance particular brand image beliefs through the fit.

Advertising of brands in fitting media may improve relevant brand image dimensions.

From the theoretical perspective media is viewed as a source; and the influence of specific media characteristics are source effects. Most closely related to my project is the research on celebrity endorsement and event sponsorship, thus useful theoretical insights can be obtained therefrom. In both research fields the matchup hypothesis is applied. Many authors argue that when certain characteristics of the source, e.g. image of a celebrity, match with image characteristics of the brand, source credibility, believability, and expertise, as perceived by consumers, increases. This leads to more effective advertisement in terms of resulting brand attitude, brand recall and purchase intentions. The arguments why the matchup hypothesis has its effect are based on the schema theory. In simple words, when consumer stereotypes (or schemas) about products, persons or other objects, match well on certain characteristics, they are perceived as a part of one schema. This congruency may be used to alter brand perceptions via a spokesperson's image (e.g. Lynch and Schuler, 1994) or to facilitate affect and image transfer from an event to the brand (e.g. Gwinner and Eaton, 1999). These claims seem fairly plausible to be applied to my research: when brands and media match on some characteristics, the congruent information will be encoded and the incongruent information will be "filtered out" (Misra and Beatty, 1990), which

speaks in favor of using congruent media in order to effectively communicate brand image.

Matchup hypothesis and schema theory bring useful insights in explaining the brand-media fit effect. A medium congruent with a brand on some attributes is most likely to effectively communicate intended brand image.

However, several researchers pointed out, that the motto “good fit is always better” should be taken with caution for two reasons. First, some studies demonstrated that moderate fit can be regarded as surprise effect, may be viewed by consumers as interesting and produce significantly higher attitudes and more favorable evaluations, than either high or low fit conditions; whereas low congruence can be employed when the objective is to facilitate brand recall and awareness (Jarge, Watson and Watson, 2001; Fleck and Quester, 2007). Hence,

High brand-media fit may not always be seen as the primary concern. If a brand is new on the market or unfamiliar, unexpected brand-media combinations may ensure higher brand recall.

Second, not at all times perceived fit is the only merit of success. Indeed, consumer brand knowledge was reported to influence the ability to relate to associative cues and less knowledgeable consumers tended to base their judgements on brand affect, rather than on perceived fit (e.g. Broniarczyk and Alba, 1994). More, consumer perception of fit and response to different degrees of fit can be moderated by involvement (e.g. Maoz and Tybout, 2002; Nkwocha et al., 2005) or brand attachment (e.g. Fedorikhin, Park, and Thomson, 2008); for more prominent brands the benefits of perceived sponsor-event congruence are markedly higher (Roy and Cornwell, 2003). Besides, in the brand-endorser relationship, higher consumer self-identification with celebrity leads to more favorable advertisement ratings and greater purchase intentions, rather than perceived celebrity-product congruence (Choi and Rifon, 2012). In CRM familiarity with the cause (Zdravkovic, Magnusson, and Stanley, 2010) may advance the effect of fit on brand attitudes, while the cause importance may overstate the effect of logical fit (Lafferty, 2009). Thus,

Factors that may moderate or mediate the brand-media relationship should be taken into account. Consumer involvement and brand familiarity seem to have importance from the brand's side. What are the factors that may contribute from the media side? Media usage may be an equivalent of involvement or familiarity in the media context, media enjoyment – be a measure of media attitude or affect.

Next, I would like to turn to the methodological aspects of my research – the research design. For this purpose I will compare possible approaches to the investigation and measurement of perceived fit available in the literature and derive one most appropriate in the context of my research.

3.3 Methodological approaches to the measurement of perceived fit

This part of the thesis contains the review of methodological approaches applied in research to measure the perceived fit. Despite the variety of existing methods, the decent classification of techniques can still be made. In Table 1 three ways of how the measurement of perceived fit is realized by marketing researchers can be identified: global similarity, functional and image similarity, and analytically derived measures of fit.

Global congruency measures of perceived fit are widely applied (Table 1: I). In general, such approach is based on the implementation of one or several questions (items), concerning the similarity, compatibility, congruency or logical connection between two studied objects (e.g. brands, brands and events, brands and celebrities, etc.). In case of several items being employed (e.g. compatible/not compatible, good fit/bad fit, relevant/irrelevant, good match/bad match), they are usually analyzed to ensure the high loadings on one dimension, and then composite value is used for further analysis to represent the fit score. Notably, such global measure allows capturing a wide range of cognitive bases for perceived fit that may appear in the minds of consumers, instead of focusing on specific aspects of fit (Nan and Heo, 2007). The method carries, however, serious disadvantages once the insight into the aspects that constitute the perceived fit are considered. For example, in Völckner and Sattler's (2007) generalizability study, the authors had to exclude the brand concept consistency measure from the further analysis due to high correlation with global similarity measure, although these variables were meant to capture different aspects of fit. More, recent research in event sponsorship shows that consumers' overall fit perceptions between a sponsor and an event are shaped by some logical thoughts related to at least three aspects: the degree the sponsor's products are used by participants, the match between the sponsor's target market and event audience, and attitude similarities (Olson and Thjømmøe, 2011). With respect to my research, the logical connection should lay in specific media and brand associations and the comprehension about underlying fit dimensions is valuable, thus, the global similarity measurement approach is not particularly suitable.

Building on important claims from brand extensions research that perceived similarity occurs on

Table 1: Classification of methodological approaches to the measurement of perceived fit

I. Global fit/similarity/congruency		II. Functional and image fit	
Single-item measure of fit	Sources	Functional fit	Sources
[not very similar/very similar]	Boush and Loken (1991); Keller and Aaker (1992); Völckner and Sattler (2006, 2007);	product category similarity (e.g. dissimilar/similar, unlike/like, low/high)	Bhat and Reddy (2001); Chakravarti, MacInnis, and Nakamoto (1990);
[congruent/ incongruent]	Kamins and Gupta (1994);	similarity assessments in terms of: product features, product functions, usage situations, satisfied needs (dissimilar/similar), manufacturing skills (not at all helpful/very helpful)	Aaker and Keller (1990); Bottomley and Doyle (1996); Klink and Smith (2001); Völckner and Sattler (2006); Spiggle, Nguyen, and Caravella, (2012);
[not compatible at all/very compatible] or [very low fit/very high fit]	Lafferty (2007, 2009); Samu and Wymer (2009); Pracejus and Olsen (2004); Gupta and Pirsch (2006);	items related to the usage of the sponsor product during the event (strongly disagree/strongly agree)	Gwinner and Eaton (1999);
[the link/logical connection (very weak/very strong)]	d'Astous and Bitz (1995); Gwinner, Larson and Swanson (2009); Zdravkovic and Till (2012);		
Composite measure of fit	Sources	Image fit	Sources
[consistent/inconsistent, similar/different, representative/unrepresentative, and typical/atypical (good fit/bad fit)]	Loken and John (1993); John, Loken, and Joiner (1998); Lane (2000); Spiggle, Nguyen and Caravella (2012);	image similarity, conveying of similar impressions (dissimilar/similar), (strongly disagree/strongly agree)	Bhat and Reddy (2001); Gwinner and Eaton (1999); Speed and Thompson (2000);
[does not make sense/makes sense, not at all logical/logical] or [not at all logical/logical, not at all appropriate/appropriate]	Dawar (1996); Nan (2006); Desai and Keller (2002);	the extent to which parent-brand-specific associations/benefits are relevant in the extension category (not at all relevant/very relevant)	Broniarczyk and Alba (1994); Völckner and Sattler (2006, 2007); Spiggle, Nguyen, and Caravella (2012);
[is consistent/is not consistent, is complementary/is not complementary]	Simonin and Ruth (1998); Bluemelhuber, Carter, and Lambe (2007); Lee, Lee, and Lee (2013);	a dominant association of an object (e.g. celebrity, sponsoring event or partner brand) is identified to create the pairs of high, moderate and low congruency with relevant brand image attribute	Kirman and Shiv (1998); Lee and Cho (2009); Ahn and Sung (2012);
[compatible/not compatible, good fit/bad fit, relevant/irrelevant, good match/bad match]	Till and Busler (2000); Fleck, Korchia, and Le Roy (2012); Choi and Rifon (2012); Kelting and Rice (2013);		

III. Analytically derived measures of fit		
Brand extensions		Sources
Brand personality fit is between a brand and an extension is measured as a function of the absolute difference between the perceived brand personality dimensions (sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, ruggedness; Aaker, 1997). Only salient (i.e. which received the highest scores) brand personality dimensions for each brand were considered for measuring brand personality fit. The absolute difference in each personality dimension was standardized to a scale of 1 to 5 and then aggregated to produce a measure for brand personality fit.		Lau and Phau (2007);
Brands' personality data (according to Aaker's (1997) brand personality framework) is collected for three categories of brands. With the help of Bayesian factor analysis model, categories' personality scores are derived from brands' evaluations. The fit of a brand with an extension category is the root square error (or euclidean distance) between brand personality and category personality. Similarly, the euclidean distance is used to derive co-branding opportunities between the brands from different categories. Later the other survey, in which another set of respondents filled in three tables identifying the good "partners" for each of the brand in one category with brands from another category, confirm the predicted by the model co-branding options.		Batra, Lenk, and Wedel (2010);
Brand alliances		Sources
The brand personality fit in brand alliances is examined using trait theory a list of bi-polar pairs of personality traits from Batra, Lehmann and Singh (1993). The matching (lowest distance) personality traits of allied brands demonstrated the highest correlation with overall attitude to the alliance. The authors also employed euclidean distance and multi-dimensional scaling techniques to gain further insights into the personality ratings' effect on brand alliances.		James, Lyman, and Foreman (2006);
To assess the effect of similarity in partner brands' personalities on alliance evaluation, brand personality ratings on five personality dimensions (Aaker, 1997) are collected. According to their framework, the authors calculate the overall dissimilarity measure between the brand personalities (euclidean distance) as well as similarity measures for each personality dimension (absolute difference). The results suggest that similarity on personality dimensions impacts the evaluations of alliances differently, i.e. high similarity on some dimensions and moderate similarity on others may result in more favorable evaluations.		van der Lans, Van den Bergh, and Dieleman (2014);

product as well as on brand level (Broniarczyk and Alba, 1994), many researchers made attempts to implement this distinction explicitly. Therefore, items related solely to functional fit and to image fit emerged (Table 1: II). Although functional congruence is possible to be measured in some brand-media combinations (e.g. an endorser wears/uses a product, a product is used by participants during an event), the applicability of this construct to other types of media is very limited if not nonsense. The approach with general image fit items, while more promising, does

not shed light on which specific media associations are (in)congruent with which specific brand associations. When the media associations are considered on pretest stage, i.e. to build experimental manipulations (e.g. which celebrity endorsers which brand; Kirmani and Shiv, 1998), artificial experimental conditions (e.g. posters or advertisement video) need to be created for each media type to test the assumed relationships. There are three main concerns about such approach: first, it may be rather costly; second, it may not deliver reliable results for every kind of media due to laboratory conditions; and third, the impact of advertisement design cannot be easily detached. Due to the fact, that one of the main purposes of this paper is to develop an instrument which can (ideally) be used with respect to multiple media types and measure solely the impact of media, neither of existing approaches to the measurement of functional fit nor those to measure image fit can satisfy the demands of this challenge.

Fortunately, the last group of methods, in which proximity measures are extracted analytically, offers valuable ideas. Mentioned in Table 1 (III) researchers let the respondents rate the studied brands on personality traits independently from one another. The obtained through evaluation multi-dimensional personality scores of brands are then compared against each other by computing the overall distance measures that are in fact the measures of brands' (dis)similarity. The lower the "distance" between brands' personalities, the more similar they are considered in terms of image associations. Such indirect approach to establishing the perceived fit effectively operationalizes the dimensions of fit, i.e. associations. It also does not threaten the reliability and validity of the final measure in comparison to direct question about brands and media fit, which could evoke misunderstanding. Thus, with this analytical approach I can work in the domain of brands and media associations and arrive at reliable and valid fit measures. However, in order to implement this approach, some abstract imagery attributes, which characterize both brands and media types equally well, are yet to be defined. The consumer ratings of brands and media according to these attributes will then serve as the basis for testing the effect of perceived fit.

An indirect approach to arrive at brand-media fit measures through particular shared associations is going to deliver valuable insights into fit dimensions. Also analytically extracted proximity measures are reliable and valid, because they are not prone to response bias due to respondents' misunderstanding or inability to find logical connection between two rather distinct categories – brands and media – as it could happen when they are faced with the direct similarity question. Still, the abstract associations that characterize brands and media need to be generated from the findings of related research.

4. CONCEPTUALIZATION, RESEARCH HYPOTHESES AND INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT

In today's highly fractured and complex media environment with increased advertising clutter marketing managers are faced with a difficult choice of appropriate media channels for their brand communications. Whereas quantitative criteria of media mix selection remain vital and practical, qualitative aspects of media choice gain their significance. Brand image, and specifically, brand personality, is formed by consumers, after all, through their perceptions of brand communications. Given that the image-building capability of media has long been recognized, the managers' judgements about it are to a certain extent intuitive, because the research devoted to this subject is limited and unstructured. While the conceptualization of perceived brand-media fit in some areas, e.g. celebrity endorsement and event sponsorship, is merely established with the help of the matchup hypothesis and the notion of image congruency, the conventional methodological tool to measure such fit is yet missing. Therefore, the purpose of my research is, first, to develop a universal instrument that can be applied to various media contexts in order to measure the perceived brand-media congruency and, second, to test the applicability of the tool and its performance with respect to predicting expected outcomes. And last but not least, the key implications for academic research and for managerial practice need to be discussed.

4.1 Conceptual foundation of perceived fit between brands and media

To achieve superior image-building outcomes of brand communication, strategic components of media mix selection should be weighed against perceived brand-media fit. In general, the notion of perceived fit in marketing is widely applied in many areas of brand development and promotion, e.g. with respect to brand extensions, brand alliances, brand endorsement, event sponsorship, cause related marketing, product premiums and brand placement in gaming and virtual environments. Conceptually, the perceived congruence is viewed as similarity in either functional (product-related) or abstract (image-related) attributes. The prevalence of the latter conceptualization based on shared associations in media-related context such as the choice of a celebrity endorser or an event to sponsor, is explained by the fact that imagery cues tend to become more salient when visibility of functional cues is impeded (e.g. Kirmani and Shiv, 1998; Gwinner and Eaton, 1999), which is especially true in case of pronounced symbolic value of a brand (Park, Milberg, and Lawson, 1991; Batra, Lenk, and Wedel, 2010). Therefore, in my research I take the position that the perceived brand-media fit is to be established on the level of

brands and media image characteristics. Such congruence on abstract associations will further develop the idea of indirect priming and implicit communication of brand image by the medium as demonstrated by Dahlén (2005).

My definition of brand-media congruency relies on the presence of accessible brand-related and media related associations in memory. The notion of abstract brand associations is well-grounded in the literature, among all, through the extended body of brand personality research (see also Geuens, Weijters, and De Wulf, 2009 for review). On the contrary, the conception of media associations is vaguely defined. Nevertheless, Sissors and Baron (2010: 45-46) argue that many consumers tend to develop strong or weak feelings about a medium, thus forming certain media images on the basis of feelings, attitudes, opinions, and facts about it. In this regard Malthouse, Calder, and Tamhane (2007: 8) claim that “media experiences”, captured by “qualitative thoughts and feelings people have about media”, can be generalized across different media vehicles of a media class (e.g. print media) and, thus, characterize the effect of media. Because through their experience of media usage people cultivate their attitudes toward different media (Stewart and Pavlou, 2009), it is reasonable to speak about specific media associations that result from these attitudes and usage situations. Additionally, advocate in this direction Danaher and Rossiter (2011), who investigate consumer perceptions of different media channels, and recently emerged research on media personalities, e.g. of print media (Valette-Florence and De Barnier, 2013) or websites (Chen and Rodgers, 2006).

Further, in terms of the matchup hypothesis when the media associations converge with the associations of a brand, brand image is communicated more effectively (Kahle and Homer, 1985; Gwinner and Eaton, 1999). Thus, higher perceived brand-media fit will potentially reinforce the elaboration on brand attributes and increase advertising effectiveness with respect to brand image building.

4.2 Methodological approach to measure the perceived brand – media fit

As discussed in part 3.3, an indirect approach to the measurement of perceived brand-media fit with analytically derived distances of (dis)similarity offers particular advantages: (1) it delivers valuable insights into specific fit dimensions resulting from shared associations; (2) it is reliable and valid as it avoids potential response bias due to respondents’ misunderstanding or inability to find a logical connection between two rather distinct cognitive categories – brands and media classes; (3) although rather recently introduced, it demonstrated good predictability of favorably

evaluated brand extension combinations (Batra, Lenk, and Wedel, 2010) and brand alliances (van der Lans, Van den Bergh, and Dieleman, 2014). To assess overall similarity, the authors collected ratings of brand personality attributes, e.g. according to Aaker (1997), and computed multi-dimensional similarity measures by the means of euclidean distances.

Thus, to obtain reliable results of perceived brand-media fit, I decide to implement indirect (analytical) approach and work in the domain of brand and media associations. In order to apply this approach, some abstract imagery attributes that characterize as brands as media types equally well, need to be defined. The ratings of brands and media according to these attributes will then serve as the basis for computing the measures of brand-media similarity.

4.2.1 Definition of abstract attributes

The attributes which are to be used to measure the perceived brand-media fit need to satisfy three main criteria that enable their application: (1) attributes need to reflect abstract associations that are induced by a brand or a medium in the mind of consumers; (2) attributes have to be universal across different brands and product categories as well as various media types, thus equally well describe associations in the context of both brands and media; (3) the scale (i.e. list of attributes) needs to be concise, short and easy to administer (Geuens, Weijters, and De Wulf, 2009; Rammstedt and John, 2007). More, the relevance of the creation of such hybrid (personality) scale which is jointly applicable to brands and media was also highlighted by Valette-Florence and De Barnier (2013), as it could “help produce a better match for advertisers” between brand personality profiles and media in which they place their advertising (p.903).

The extensive literature on brand and media personalities offers a valuable source for defining coherent attributes in order to build a robust measurement scale for my research. The total of five common dimensions, that are present in brands and media personality research, were identified and aggregated in five attributes following, in part, the guidelines from Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann (2003: 508). As a result, each attribute item (1) was defined by one central descriptor (that is the name of the attribute); (2) was clarified by several other most close descriptors, derived from systematic analysis of existing brand and media personality facets and corresponding dictionary definitions; (3) covered the scope of each cognitive domain and included descriptors from positive poles only. Although such short aggregated measures infer some important psychometric cost, their benefits are clear. Firstly, when structural properties of the brand/media personality are already established, shorter measures allow focusing on other important relations,

such as perceived fit in my study. Secondly, brief measures reduce item redundancy, lowering respondent boredom and frustration, thus increasing the quality of responses. And third, the potential benefit is in creating a standard instrument for use by the other researchers. (Gosling, Rentfrow and Swann, 2003)

So, five core shared domains were recognized: Excitement, Competence, Sophistication, Innovativeness, and Ruggedness. Most closely related items for each domain were selected from existing brand and media personality inventories; the description power (i.e. closeness) of each item was judged based on its dictionary definition and the cohesion between reported brand's and media items. Finally, each domain was identified by one prototypical adjective (e.g. Exciting for Excitement), which was explained by the closest non-redundant descriptors as elaborative, clarifying and contextual information (John and Srivastava, 1999). This strategy is similar to the one used by Hazan and Shaver (1987) and van der Lans, Van den Bergh, and Dieleman (2014). Domains, corresponding descriptors and attributes' definitions are demonstrated in Table 2; the procedure is illustrated in more detailed in Appendix A.

Table 2: Abstract attributes: perception domains, descriptors and final definitions

Domain	Related descriptors and final definition
EXCITEMENT	<i>Descriptors</i> Happy, Enthusiastic, Jovial, Engaging, Pleasant, Cheerful, Fun, Entertaining, Active, Energetic, Young, Free, Independent <i>Definition</i> EXCITING: gives you a feeling happiness and enjoyment, makes you feel pleased, interested or enthusiastic; cheerful, fun, entertaining, and engaging.
COMPETENCE	<i>Descriptors</i> Expert, Confident, Assertive, Determined, Critical, Intelligent, Knowledgeable, Comprehensive, Reliable, Respectable, Successful, Leading, Secure, Professional, Responsible <i>Definition</i> COMPETENT: has high level of expertise, confidence, determination and professionalism, thus successful and respectable.
SOPHISTICATION	<i>Descriptors</i> Elegant, Refined, Classy, Stylish, Glamour, Charming, Prestige, Upper class <i>Definition</i> SOPHISTICATED: has a lot of experience of the world and knowledge about fashion, culture; refined, elegant, charming, prestige.
INNOVATIVENESS	<i>Descriptors</i> Creative, Imaginative, Inventive, Modern, New, Unique, Different, Distinguished, Non-conformist, Originality, Dynamism, Change <i>Definition</i> INNOVATIVE: introducing or using new ideas or ways of doing something; new, modern, different, unique and distinguishing.
RUGGEDNESS	<i>Descriptors</i> Tough, Outdoorsy, Masculine, Dominant, Arrogant, Firm, Aggressive, Sturdy, Bold <i>Definition</i> RUGGED: shows determination to succeed in difficult situations; tough, outdoorsy and sturdy.

It is noteworthy that the resulting attributes although originate by large from brand and media personality research do not represent just augmented personality items. Rather they embody separate domains, on which brands and media can be perceived by consumers.

4.2.2 Definition of media types

In media planning literature image-building qualities are usually assigned to media vehicles (e.g. *Vogue*), rather than to overall media classes. However, the decision about media investments is in first place taken on the level of media in general, e.g. TV or Internet, and only then media vehicles are evaluated with respect to particular media objectives (De Pelsmacker, Geuens, and Van den Bergh, 2010). In my research I chose to focus on the perceptual fit between media classes and brands mainly for two reasons: (1) the decision about which media class (or classes) to use for brand communication can be characterized as strategic, and strategic decisions are less flexible to change and more impactful, than tactical decisions about media vehicles; (2) the source or context effects of media vehicles received considerable attention in the literature, while the perception of media classes is much less discussed.

I applied the classification of media used by [statista.com](http://www.statista.com), that is: Television, Radio, Internet, Mobile, and Print media. Magazines and newspapers were combined in print media category because (1) they deliver very similar media experience of reading the paper-based media, which is principally different from other media experiences, e.g. watching TV, listening to the radio or surfing on the Internet; and (2) the investments in both are declining at the same rate³ - a sign of declining interest of advertisers, which may be challenged by the research results. Appendix B shows how the media are defined.

4.3 Research hypotheses

According to the methodological approach applied in this research, the perceived brand-media fit is identified as closeness or similarity of a brand and a medium on specified attributes. These attributes reflect abstract associations that can be evoked by brands and media to a varying degree, thus every brand/medium will obtain a certain multi-dimensional position identified through consumer perception of the degree of presence (absence) of these associations with respect to this brand/medium. Consequently, the perceived similarity measure, i.e. the variance in the strength of each pair of attributes, can be derived for every combination of brand and medium. Hence,

³ <http://www.statista.com/statistics/240679/global-advertising-spending-growth-by-medium/>

H1 Brands and media perceived similarity is determined by the distance between their attribute ratings, so that smaller distances reflect better perceived fit.

This analytical method implies that similarity measures are comprised from two elements – brand attribute ratings and media attribute ratings, and both can be influenced by consumer attitudinal and behavioral characteristics with respect to brands and media. In order to account for these individual differences and to explore their impact on final results, some brand- and media-related relationships are hypothesized.

The role of brand familiarity has often been considered as an important factor influencing brand evaluations and preferences (e.g. Kent and Allen, 1994; Laroche, Kim and Zhou, 1996; Campbell and Keller, 2003; Dawar and Lei, 2009). Of the most significance for my research is that increased brand familiarity is associated with more refined and more complete cognitive structures about the brand and its attributes (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Consumers possess a much more detailed, rich knowledge about familiar brands and produce more favorable attitudes towards them (Sundaram and Webster, 1999). So, brand perceptions are expected to be influenced by the level of brand familiarity, thus the resulting measures of perceived brands-media fit would be impacted.

H2 Brand perceptions (i.e. attribute ratings) are influenced by the level of brand familiarity; therefore perceived brand-media fit is moderated by brand familiarity.

In general, as derived from underlying media experiences, different media are expected to be perceived differently and, thus to acquire different attribute scores. The uses and gratifications approach (Katz, Haas, and Gurevitch, 1973; Katz, Blumler, and Gurevitch, 1973), often used in marketing research to explain people's media behavior, infers that consumers make their choice to use a particular medium actively, and different motives, e.g. entertainment, gaining general knowledge, etc., will lead to different media choices. Thus, individuals who frequently consume one or another medium will most probably have similar motivations to its usage, which will be reflected in their perceptions. Moreover, depending on the extent to which media experience is attributed as pleasurable, affective reaction toward a medium also identified as media enjoyment (Nabi and Krcmar, 2004) is formed. Consequently, consumers may tend to favor one medium over the other and this media favorability may moderate media perception patterns.

H3 Such media-related factors as media usage frequency and media enjoyment influence consumer perceptions of media; hence, the measures of brand-media fit are impacted.

Research findings in the area of perceived fit conventionally reported more affective response to congruent combinations (see also chapter 3 of this paper). From the point of view of the information processing model of communication (Keller, 2013: 220), the effect of perceived brand-media congruence is likely to occur on “yielding” stage of persuasion process, i.e. when consumers form favorable response to the intended message or arguments of the communication. Therefore, the attitude toward brand’s advertisement in different media will reflect whether the fit results in positive outcomes.

H4 Brand-medium fit will result in more favorable evaluation of advertising of the brand in this medium.

Regarding the response to persuasive stimuli such as advertisements, consumer involvement is considered as triggering either central or peripheral route of information processing (e.g. De Pelsmacker, Geuens, and Anckaert, 2002; Bart, Stephen, and Sarvary, 2014). In terms of the elaboration likelihood model (ELM; Petty and Cacioppo, 1986), consumers have the greater tendency to follow the central route to persuasion in high involvement condition and the peripheral route – in low involvement situation (Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann, 1983). In case of central processing, consumers tend to focus more on highly diagnostic cues and message content, while they rely more on salient cues in the stimuli presented to them, such as the source of a message or contextual factors, when peripheral processing is induced (MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989; Nkwocha et al., 2005). Hence,

H5 For low involvement products, the positive effect of brand-media fit on advertisement evaluation is stronger, than for high involvement products.

4.4 Method

To address the main research question and explore the fit between consumer perceptions of brands and their perceptions of media, quantitative standardized data from a sizable and relevant population sample should be collected. Questionnaire administered survey was selected due to (1) its ability to collect standardized quantitative data, thus it allows using descriptive and inferential statistics to suggest particular relationships between variables, (2) time and cost efficiency (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill 2009: 144). However, particular attention must be paid to key design choices while constructing the questionnaire, as ‘there are many issues that could turn good intentions into bad results’ (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2014: 60).

4.4.1 Data collection instrument: constructing the questionnaire

Briefly, I discuss how questionnaire design steps proposed by Sarstedt and Mooi (2014: 61) were approached in order to produce a feasible instrument for measuring the brand-media fit and address the research hypotheses.

Goal of the survey. In general, the questionnaire was designed in a way that it best addresses the survey objective – to gather the data which enables to measure the fit between brand perceptions and media perceptions. Metric data is essential to perform the proposed analysis, thus rating scales that most closely fall under assumption of interval data are to be used to collect the data on attitudes and other control measures. Questions for control measures are selected or adopted from appropriate and established scales to increase the reliability of the results.

Type of questionnaire and method of administration. Self-administrated Internet survey is chosen for the implementation of the questionnaire, because it has valuable time and cost advantages for my research; the important disadvantages are addressed by the layout and design. Chosen method of questionnaire administration is in part related to the applied sampling technique, as not all respondent groups can be reached via Internet. Convenience sampling is a common practice in exploratory research and is adequate on the pretest or exploratory stage before more structured samples are used. The convenience sample for my research is students and young professionals 20 to 35 years old, who are Internet-savvy and familiar with online surveys. To increase the response rate and thus, the time until the required sample size is reached, respondents will be sampled internationally. The sample is not intended to represent the total population, thus, subsequent generalizations will be not possible, but it is time and cost efficient which is an essential factor, given the time and monetary constraints of my research. More importantly is that the further decisions about product categories and brands, included into the survey, should be made with the reflection on sample characteristics. Uninformed responses, which may be caused by incentivizing the questionnaire, are eliminated by integrated filter and screening questions. Moreover, self-administered questionnaires perform well to reduce the possibility of socially desired answers. (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill 2009: 233-41, 362-65; Sarstedt and Mooi, 2014: 63-64).

Questions design and setting of scales. In general, to be valid and reliable “a question must be understood by the respondent in the way intended by the researcher and the answer given by the respondent must be understood by the researcher in the way intended by the respondent” (Foddy,

1993: 17). In this respect, in addition to thorough literature review for each question, particular attention was paid to the wording of questions. As identified in the sample description this questionnaire will be administrated internationally, thus attention was paid to develop clear, unambiguous, and concise questions. The language of the questionnaire is simple English without jargon and professional terms; the questions are short, not double-barreled, not leading, not negative, control for respondents' knowledge about the issue (a question of brand recognition), and use personal wording (as personal attitudes are the matter of interest; De Vaus, 2002: 97-99). Next I present the questions that build the questionnaire and show how they reflect the required measurements. Each measurement is also reviewed for its validity and reliability.

In order to be able to perform the required for the analysis data operations such as computation of means, differences and distances, the scales and questions need to be designed in the way that the collected data satisfies the assumption of numerical data, particularly, interval data (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill 2009: 416-18). The qualities of chosen rating scale are discussed below.

Rating scale

Response scales for the majority of items in my questionnaire are organized in the form of 7-point numerical rating scale with endpoint labels. In general, rating scales are among the most universal tools of marketing research and widely used for obtaining interval (or quasi-interval) data on attitudes, preferences and opinions (Peterson, 1997). Still, a number of concerns surround the choice of the most appropriate scale: proper number of categories (points), the rating scale format (labeling), or the effect of context on rating-scale responses (sample characteristics, study objectives). I based my choice of the rating scales on a thorough literature review, so that it is consistent with my research objectives and applies best to the context of my research.

Not only 7-points scales are by far the dominant formats across studies in marketing studies (Peterson, 1997; Weijters, Cabooter, and Schillewaert, 2010), the research has continuously shown their significant statistical and operational reliability. Green and Rao (1970) advocate for the 7-point scale because of its high explanatory power (i.e. information recovery) for brand image measures or other similar studies that involve rating of objects on several attributes. Consequently, I argue that the 7-point rating scale represents the optimal tradeoff for my research as it (1) offers significant reliability and validity (Lozano, García-Cueto and Muñiz, 2008); (2) is preferred by the respondents due to its substantial discriminating power (Preston and Colman, 2000) (3) provides a meaningful number of response alternatives (Viswanathan, Sudman, and

Johnson 2004; Weathers, Sharma, and Niedrich, 2005); (4) does not cause response error taking into account high cognitive ability of the intended respondent sample (Weng, 2004; Weijters, Cabooter, Schillewaert, 2010); (5) is sufficient to describe the degree of attribute presence, thus satisfies information transition needs for the further analysis (Cox, 1980). This choice seems to be in line with the developments of brand personality research: the later studies prefer 7-point (e.g. Geuens, Weijters, and De Wulf, 2009; Arora and Stoner, 2009) over the 5-points in earlier studies (e.g. Aaker, 1997; Aaker, Garolera, and Benet-Martinez, 2001).

The choice for the end-labeled scale format is further justified by study objectives. In terms of data, this format is naturally more in line with an interval scale assumption and performs better than the fully labeled scale format in terms of criterion validity. With regard to data quality, it is quite robust considering the response bias related to greater acquiescence (tendency to agree), because the possible bias in favor of extreme responses is mitigated by offering more scale gradations and by the inclusion of the midpoint. (Weijters, Cabooter, and Schillewaert, 2010)

Main measures

The main questions in the questionnaire are aimed to deliver the data of respondents' perceptions of selected brands and media. These questions are formulated as follows for brands: When described by the following attributes, how would you rate the brand [*brand name*], and for media: When described by the following attributes, how would you rate [*media type*]. Then abstract attributes (exciting, competent, sophisticated, innovative, and rugged) are listed as response categories. Answer options are presented on the 7-points scale (*1=not at all* to *7=extremely*), so that the respondents can express to what extent, in their opinion, each brand/media 'possesses' these characteristics, i.e. how 'exciting' or how 'competent' respondents perceive a brand/medium to be, thus, the degree of presence/absence of an attribute.

The second important group of questions is aimed to collecting the data in order to verify how the predictions of perceived fit are reflected in consumer evaluations of brand communication. Similar to Batra, Lenk, and Wedel's (2010) "partner" tables to validate the predictive fit in brand extensions, I constructed the tables, by filling in which respondents will identify their attitude toward brand advertisement in different media. Notably, instead of simple check marks used in "partner" tables, in my questionnaire answers for each brand-media combination are given on a 7-points scale. The advantage of such scale for this question is that it shows the degree to which the rated combinations are liked (*1=not at all*, *7=extremely*) by a respondent and, thus, allows

comparing evaluations against each other. The example of how respondents should assign the numbers is provided to ensure understanding of the question (see Appendix D).

Screening questions

As emphasized by Sarstedt and Mooi (2014: 65), the first rule when designing survey questions is to ensure “whether everyone will be able to answer each question”. Indeed, the collection of attitudinal data about the brands is meaningless and will cause bias when a respondent does not recognize a brand. Therefore, the screening question about brands recognition should be placed before the subsequent questions about particular brands are offered. As identified by Keller (1993: 3) “...when given the brand as a cue...brand recognition requires that consumers correctly discriminate the brand as having seen or heard previously”. Thus, the multiple-choice screening question is phrased as: “Have you ever seen or heard about the following [*category name*] brands?” with brand names as answer options. If a respondent positively recognizes brand/brands, the brand-related questions are displayed; otherwise, he/she moves further to the next groups of questions.

Control measures

The objective for these questions is to collect the data on respondents’ individual characteristics that are hypothesized to impact their perceptions of brands and media.

Brand familiarity. To measure brand familiarity a scale presented in Bruner (2013c: 98) was applied. The scale originates from Zhou, Yang, and Hui’s (2010) study, in which the authors adopted brand familiarity items generated by Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003). Zhou, Yang, and Hui (2010) reported high reliability of the resulting familiarity construct (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .91$, internal consistency value well exceeding .70), and convergent and discriminant validity (AVE much larger than all other cross-correlations and above .50, factor loadings greater than .70). This scale with three semantic differentials measures the degree to which a person is aware and knowledgeable of a brand (Bruner, 2013c: 98), by the extent of his/her agreement with the following bipolar items: 1. [*brand name*] is very unfamiliar to me / [*brand name*] is very familiar to me; 2. I’m not at all knowledgeable about [*brand name*] / I’m very knowledgeable about [*brand name*]; 3. I have never seen advertisements about [*brand name*] / I have seen many advertisements about [*brand name*]. Following the logic of Schwarz et al. (1991), the scale items have unipolar conceptualization, i.e. the intensity of attributes (familiarity, knowledge, level of advertising exposure) is assessed. Thus, answer options for the items should have 1 to 7 format

(i.e. without negative numeric labels often used for bipolar scales), stressing that “the question pertains to the absence or presence of this specific attribute, rather than the presence of its opposite” (p.578).

Media usage. Traditionally in the research literature, media usage is measured by the means of frequency response scale (e.g. “up to 0.5 hours daily” to “more than 2.5 hours daily”). However, the construction of response alternatives may imply strong response bias, as respondents tend to perceive suggested response categories as a range of average or expected behaviors and are reluctant to report unusual in the context of response scale behaviors, i.e. extreme categories (Schwarz et al., 1985). Menon, Raghubir, Schwarz (1995) confirm this pattern of response bias, especially in case of irregular behaviors or behaviors, which rate of occurrence is not easily accessible from memory. As it is reasonable to believe that people normally do not document or try to remember how much of which media they usually consume, this measurement method is likely to deliver unreliable results in the context of my study. On the contrary, as argued by Hamilton, Ratner and Thompson (2010) “inferences about relative standing may be more important than information about absolute standing” (p.1080), thus making the information about respondent’s usage frequency of one medium relative (or in comparison) to the other media much more reliable. Of course, this “relative” usage frequency is not appropriate to make generalizations among all respondents in absolute terms; however frequent or non-frequent users can be derived based on each respondent’s individual media usage pattern. In other words, when some individuals report that they use, e.g. the Internet, most frequently, it will not mean that all respondents who stated so are using the Internet equally frequent, but it will still mean that they are frequent Internet users in their own media consumption. In fact, this type of information is both adequate and sufficient to address the related research hypothesis.

The question formulation was inspired by product usage frequency scale reported by Bruner (2013c: 282). One of the scale items that originate from Hamilton, Ratner, and Thompson (2010) was rephrased to represent the measure of media usage frequency as discussed above: In general, how frequently do you use the following media, relative to the other media listed? The response categories represent five studied media types and their relative usage frequency is rated on the scale from 1=*least often* to 7=*most often*.

Media enjoyment. Although a three-item scale to measure enjoyment (e.g. enjoyable, entertaining, likeable) provides more reliable and stable measurement and offers greater

statistical reliability (Nabi and Krcmar, 2004), to test my research hypothesis I consider the one-item measure with regard to the enjoyment delivered by each media to be satisfactory. Therefore, the question was formulated as: How much do you enjoy the following media? Media types as response categories and answer options are on the rating scale from 1=*not at all* to 7=*extremely*.

Product category involvement. Out of four prominent involvement measures (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Ratchford, 1987; Mittal, 1989) a modified version of Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) scale presented in Bearden, Netemeyer, and Haws (2011: 270-72) was chosen. As argued by Mittal and Lee (1988, 1989) the importance/ interest facet of CIP refers to the product category involvement and, thus only these scale items, as modified by Mittal (1995) will be used for the category involvement question. According to the author, this modified L&K involvement measure showed to have adequate validity and reliability: unidimensionality (significant factor loadings and good reliabilities) and, hence, internal consistency; very high convergent validity (inter-correlations with other scales), and nomological validity. In addition, this three-item scale is claimed to be parsimonious, simple, and less susceptible to response bias. The items are scored on 7-points end-labeled scale (1=*strongly agree*, 7=*strongly disagree*) and formulated as follows: 1. [category] is very important to me; 2. For me [category] does not matter; 3. I have a strong interest in [category].

General statistics: gender, age, country of origin. Traditionally demographic questions contain gender and age, so they do in my survey. The reporting of age, in addition, allows controlling that respondents belong to the relevant sample population. Country of origin determines the cultural background of respondents.

4.4.2 Selection of product categories and brands for the survey

As identified earlier in the paper, the selection of product categories and brands for the survey have to be made with the reflection on sample characteristics to achieve internal consistency, as the convenience sampling technique is employed. That is, products and brands should be relevant for the consumers aged 20 to 35 and have the required according to research design features: product categories should satisfy the criteria of high and low involvement and serve rather symbolic function and brands should be known internationally. Two categories that were shown to vary on involvement dimension and scored relatively high on emotional purchase motivations – soft drinks and apparel – were chosen for the survey (Ratchford, 1987, Appendix). Apparel category I decided to represent by sport shoes, as they would be equally relevant for male and

female respondents of identified sample. Both categories were also often used for student sample internationally (e.g. Sung and Tinkham, 2005; Arora and Stoner, 2009; Grohmann, 2009).

Considering the length of the questionnaire and resulting respondents' boredom only four brands per each category were selected. Nevertheless, this number of brands will allow making relevant comparisons within and between the categories. According to the latest Interbrand ranking of global brands⁴, Coca Cola, Pepsi, Sprite, Nike and Adidas are identified as top brands for the categories of interest. Further, Fanta scored high on brand value in MPP Consulting report (2012)⁵, and Puma and New Balance are considered to be a reasonable choice in terms of their target segment⁶, thus, respondents should be aware and familiar with these brands.

4.4.3 Layout and order effects

As outlined by Krosnick and Presser (2010) and many other researchers and practitioners survey results critically depend on the questionnaire design. Particularly, in self-administered internet questionnaires, where no other factors than survey flow and layout are expected to help building rapport with the respondents; and no possibility to return to a respondent and collect the answers again exist, due to the anonymity restrictions. Best practices and conventional wisdom have been developed as different effects (e.g. order effect, respondents' behavior, etc.) were vastly investigated in social science and psychology. Important findings were applied to my questionnaire.

Starting and closing. Following the best practice advice, the starting or welcoming page introduces the questionnaire and explains the goal and the importance of the survey, points out that my survey is conducted in collaboration with two universities, assures the anonymity and confidentiality of the provided responses, states the approximate time of questionnaire completion, and informs about the incentive that can be obtained in return to participation. On the closing page I thank the respondents for their participation, provide my contact information and offer a voluntary participation in a lottery. (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2009: 389-93; Sarstedt and Mooi, 2014: 72-74)

Filtering. In accordance with Brace (2008, 45-46) some groups of respondents may require exclusion. For my survey, only the respondents with appropriate level of English language

⁴ <http://bestglobalbrands.com/2014/ranking/>

⁵ <http://www.rankingthebrands.com/The-Brand-Rankings.aspx?rankingID=165&year=551>

⁶ <http://digiday.com/brands/nielsenes-puma-branded-content/> ;
<http://www.sponsorship.com/IEGSR/2006/11/20/New-Balance-Diversifies-Portfolio-In-Line-With-New.aspx>

comprehension are guided further to the main questionnaire. The level of English language comprehension was assessed on the 10-point scale (1=*very little*, 10=*native speaker*).

Coherent grouping and funneling. Throughout the questionnaire items on related topics have been grouped together to facilitate respondents' cognitive processing; questions were organized according to the "funnel" approach to improve the measurement (Krosnick and Presser, 2010). That is: (1) questions are organized in logical blocks, which are displayed one after another: sport shoes category (and brands) => soda drinks category (and brands) => media behavior and perception; (2) more general questions about product category involvement and brand recognition are followed by specific questions about brands; (3) more general brand familiarity question precedes the detailed question about brand perception in order to facilitate the memory retrieval before asking the attitude; (4) general media usage and enjoyment items appear on a separate page prior to media perception questions.

Learning, fatigue, context and satisfying. Various results showing response bias due to question order were documented by researchers, most of which are caused by respondent learning and fatigue, respondent satisfying and/or context effects (Krosnick and Presser, 2010). Certain manipulations as far as allowed by the online questionnaire software were implemented to address these issues. First, two versions of the questionnaire were created to manipulate the order of the two product categories as early items may be more prone to response error. Second, respondents' learning with respect to screening questions was addressed by providing more brand names in multiple-choice brand recognition questions, so respondents cannot identify easily for which brands the contingent items will follow. Additionally, it allows to test whether the brands were chosen well in terms of recognition. Thirdly, to account for respondents' fatigue, the question concerned with the evaluation of brand-media combinations was placed in the middle of the questionnaire, hence, respondents are confronted with it when they are not yet fatigued but have already become familiar with the questionnaire style. Forth, with regard to the context effect, attribute rating questions for each brand/medium were displayed on separate pages, the order of brands and media were randomized for each respondent. This helps minimize the measurement error that may be caused by one brand or media always appearing prior to the others, thereby influencing respondent answers if he/she will try to respond consistently. And lastly, the order of abstract attributes was randomized on each page load to grasp respondents'

attention and possibly reduce weak satisfying. Demographic questions were conventionally positioned in the end of the questionnaire.

Schematic representation of the questionnaire flow is offered in Appendix C and the full version of one of the questionnaires is shown in Appendix D.

4.4.4 Piloting the questionnaire

The value of pretesting the questionnaire before it finally goes to the field cannot be underestimated. Performed pilot testing involved administering the questionnaire to a small sample of the relevant population under conditions identical to those of the main survey (Krosnick and Presser, 2010). In total 4 respondents filled out the questionnaire and were offered feedback questions at the end. In addition, one detailed respondent debriefing was conducted with one of the four respondents based on Martin's (2004) recommendations.

According to the feedback, instructions and questions were clear and easy to understand. The interview showed that all the questions and related response categories were decoded exactly in the way it was meant by the researcher. The help function (appears under each perception question and gives the definitions of attributes) was helpful and should be included in the final version. Based on related comments, the definition of attribute RUGGED was changed slightly: from "shows determination to succeed in difficult situations, *even by means of force or by upsetting other people*; tough, outdoorsy and sturdy" to "shows determination to succeed in difficult situations; tough, outdoorsy and sturdy" as the prior definition was considered misleading. With regard to media usage question, it was identified in the interview that a respondent considered the time span of one week while replying to this question, therefore, the question wording was corrected accordingly. One of the respondents identified a little unclarity with respect to rating the brands and media on the proposed attributes and suggested that "the definitions could be worded in a way they fit the descriptions of the subjects". However, I think this issue is related to the cognitive ability of each respondent, and thus is attributed as individual effect of each respondent, therefore these changes are not necessary.

The time to complete the main questionnaire was 20 minutes on average, and so will be identified on the welcome page.

5. EMPIRICAL PRETEST AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Data collection, preparation and description

The survey was available online for 32 days in total. The questionnaire was promoted in four ways: (1) private messages in Facebook and emails (205 in total), (2) publication of the survey announcement in related Facebook groups, such as student and Erasmus communities, (exposed audience in total - 14,183), (3) promotion of the questionnaire by friends (50 in total), and (4) distribution of flyers at the University campus (400 in total). During the promotion stage, special attention was paid to approach the right audience which was justified at sample selection step – young people at the age of 20-35. As it was explained above, there were two versions of the questionnaire, which were administered through a single hyperlink. In total 260 responses were collected; 141 and 119 for each version, respectively. Typically for online questionnaires, the response rate was quite low – around 2 percent.

After obtaining the resulting two datasets of responses from the online software, checking and editing steps of data preparation process were performed. First, respondents with inappropriate English knowledge were identified and sorted out⁷. Secondly, it was recognized that several respondents did not reply more than two questions. These questionnaires were marked as incomplete and not considered in the editing stage. At the editing step, both datasets were merged, accounting for questions order. Further 25 incomplete questionnaires were documented and discarded. These 25 respondents answered the questions about brands only, but not the questions about media, which makes their records useless in the light of the research framework applied (i.e. proximity measures are calculated as distances between brands' and media ratings). Thus, there are 168 satisfactory questionnaires that can be used for the analysis. To my regret, returning to the field – a common research practice when the number of inadequately replied questionnaires is high, was not possible due to experienced time constraints. Finally, the data was coded considering the necessary adjustments⁸. (Malhotra, 2007: 426-50)

To get the first impression of the collected data, frequency distributions were obtained for demographic and other diagnostic variables. Resulting values suggest that the goals about respondent sample are met and the data is appropriate for the further analysis.

⁷ Note that these respondents did not qualify for participation, therefore were actually not exposed to the rest of the questionnaire.

⁸ The ratings of one involvement item had to be reverse-coded, due to the negative formulation of the statements in the questionnaire.

After the data cleaning operations, the dataset consisting of 168 cross-sectional observations was available. The observations are almost equally distributed among both versions of questionnaire, so is the population (see gender and age distribution in Table 3). There was approximately the same number of female and male respondents (48.8 and 51.2 percent, respectively). Half of the respondents were aged 25-30 and the responses are slightly skewed toward the younger population, which is fine considering the choice of products and brands. As planned, the responses were collected from an international sample; 33 countries were stated by the respondents. It is important to note that although the respondents have different cultural background, the majority currently lives in Germany or Belgium. In general, the European region is well-represented; relatively many responses were recorded from Germans (71), Belgians (15) and Russians (12). For the reason of limited space availability, more detailed discussion about demographic and other diagnostic variables as well as learning effect with respect to questionnaire type is offered in Appendix E.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics for questionnaires and population

Version of the questionnaire	Gender				Age group						Questionnaire
	male		female		< 25		25-30		> 30		Total
Soda	32	42,7%	43	57,3%	35	46,7%	34	45,3%	6	8,0%	75
Shoes	54	58,1%	39	41,9%	28	30,1%	50	53,8%	15	16,1%	93
Total	86	51,2%	82	48,8%	63	37,5%	84	50,0%	21	12,5%	168
SD = soda drinks category is rated first; SS = sport shoes category is rated first											

5.2 Exploratory analysis and the reliability of scales

Concerning the recognition of rated brands it was attempted to select the brands well recognized by the sampled population. The frequency analysis confirms the good choice of brands for soda drinks. With an exception for New Balance, the recognition of shoe brands is also high. Apparently, Reebok would have been more suitable in terms of recognition and have created less missing data compared to NB (Table 4).

Table 4: Brands recognition

	Nike	Adidas	Puma	NB	Converse	Reebok
N=168 No, % (N)	1,8 (3)	4,2 (7)	6,5 (11)	42,3 (71)	13,7 (23)	7,1 (12)
Yes, % (N)	98,2 (165)	95,8 (161)	93,5 (157)	57,7 (97)	86,3 (145)	92,9 (156)
	Cola	Sprite	Fanta	Pepsi	7Up	Dr.Pepper
N=168 No, % (N)	1,8 (3)	7,7 (13)	6,5 (11)	8,9 (15)	13,1 (22)	29,2 (49)
Yes, % (N)	98,2 (165)	92,3 (155)	93,5 (157)	91,1 (153)	86,9 (146)	70,8 (119)

In the current research the measures of product involvement and brand familiarity were adopted from other studies, nevertheless their reliability need to be controlled for. Scale reliability

analysis shows good overall reliabilities of involvement construct for each product category and familiarity construct for each brand: (1) values of Cronbach's alphas exceed 0.7; (2) corrected item-total correlation exceed 0.3, (3) deletion of items does not improve the reliability of the scale⁹ (Field, 2005: 666-77; Appendix F). Hence, the latent involvement and familiarity scores were computed as the average of related items.

The assumption underlying the choice of product categories for analysis was that the sport shoes category is of higher involvement, than soda drinks category. The difference in involvement was tested by dependent t-test and backed up by its nonparametric counterpart due to violated assumption of normal distribution. In fact, both test show equivalent and large effect size (r) and respondents are significantly more involved in sport shoes, than in soda drinks category (Table 5).

Table 5: Descriptive statistics of control measures

Product category involvement									
N=168	Shoes	Soda	Test statistics						
<i>M (SD)</i>	4.42*(1.62)	2.88(1.48)	Paired t-test: $t(167) = 10.29, p < .001, r = .62$						
<i>Mdn</i>	4.67*	2.67	Wilcoxon signed-rank test: $T=33$ (positive ranks), $z = -8.264, p < .001, r = -.64$						
Brand familiarity									
	Nike	Adidas	Puma	NB	Coca Cola	Sprite	Fanta	Pepsi	
N	164	161	157	97	165	155	157	153	
<i>M (SD)</i>	5.71 (1.26)	5.66 *(1.28)	4.62(1.46)	4.36(1.88)	6.13 *(1.24)	5.31(1.38)	5.43*(1.32)	5.08(1.55)	
<i>Mdn</i>	6.00	6.00*	4.67	4.00	6.67*	5.33	5.33*	5.33	
Media usage / Media enjoyment									
N=168	TV		Radio		Print		Internet		Mobile
<i>M (SD)</i>	3.76* (2.09)/ 4.27* (1.89)		2.99 (1.94)/ 3.73* (1.85)		3.29* (1.59)/ 4.22* (1.69)		6.20* (1.24)/ 5.80* (1.37)		4.77* (2.00)/ 4.45 (1.99)
<i>Mdn</i>	4.00* / 4.50*		2.50 / 4.00*		3.00* / 4.00*		7.00* / 6.00*		5.00* / 5.00

Note: M = mean, SD = standard deviation of mean, Mdn = median, N = number of observations; Significant mean (median) difference ($p < .01$) in brand familiarity and media usage/enjoyment of one brand/media and its right neighbor indicated by asterisk. As an example, mean (median) familiarity of Adidas is significantly higher, than that of Puma, but mean (median) familiarity for Puma does not differ significantly from mean (median) familiarity of NB. For mobile media asterisk indicates the difference to TV.

Further, Nike and Adidas are highly familiar brands within the sport shoes category, which is expected given their high market shares and, hence, fierce competition for consumer attention. Similarly, Coca Cola is by far the most familiar brand among soda drinks, which is not surprising due to its long brand history. In general, studied soda brands received higher familiarity scores, than the brands from the sport shoes category, which can be related to the difference in consumer involvement. Low involvement categories are often associated with variety-seeking behavior (Van Trijp, Hoyer, and Inman, 1996), hence higher brand switching. So, consumers are normally

⁹ In brand familiarity construct for Adidas and Coca Cola brands the exclusion of the 1st questionnaire item increases the overall Cronbach's alphas marginally. Because this does not hold for other brands, the item is kept.

aware and familiar with more brand alternatives, whereas higher involvement products are connected with greater commitment to brand choice and higher brand loyalty, thus, less brand switching and, probably, lower familiarity with other brands in the category.

The pattern of media usage and enjoyment is well explained by the sample characteristics. That is, the popularity of the Internet and mobile media among young population and fewer preference and enjoyment for radio and print media. Usage and enjoyment rates for the TV lay somewhat in the middle.

5.3 Analysis and discussion

The core research question of my study is the establishment of perceived brand-media fit and its analysis with respect to the evaluation of brands' advertisement in respective media and other control measures. At first, the mean ratings of brands and media on abstract attributes were examined. As it can be recognized from Table 6, such brands as Nike, Adidas, and Coca Cola received quite high ratings on all attributes, when compared to the category means; whereas the evaluations of remaining brands resulted in values below the category means. The possible explanation for a more favorable evaluation may lie in higher levels of brand familiarity associated with these brands (Table 5). Such main effect of familiarity on brand evaluations was also indicated by Sundaram and Webster (1999), who noticed that consumers produce more favorable attitudes towards more familiar brands.

Both product categories appear to be equally exciting for the respondents, which can be attributed to their relatively high symbolic value (Aaker, Benet-Martinez, and Garolera, 2001), also emphasized in the marketing communications. Mainly high competence and innovativeness seem to differentiate sport shoes from soda drinks, although remaining attribute ratings are also significantly higher for shoes. This effect is likely to be caused by the more utilitarian function of beverages and lower consumer involvement in this category. Excitement and competence appear to be the most valued attributes for soda drinks.

With respect to the media evaluations, Internet obtained the highest attribute scores, when compared to the media average. Coming back to the Table 5, one can see that this medium was reported as most frequently used ($M = 6.20$, $Mdn = 7.00$) and most enjoyed ($M = 5.80$, $Mdn = 6.00$) by respondents, which leads to the conclusion, that frequent use of a medium and favorable attitude towards it may result in higher media ratings. Interestingly, some attribute ratings confirm commonly hold media stereotypes, such as print media is rated highly competent,

although less used and less enjoyed, Internet and mobile media are perceived to be highly innovative, TV scores relatively high on excitement and somewhat in the middle on competence, Radio is the least used by young people and the least enjoyed, therefore evaluated rather below the media average and has the lowest scores on all attributes.

Table 6: Brands and media scores on abstract attributes: Mean (SD)

	Category average	Nike	Adidas	Puma	NB	Category average	Coca Cola	Sprite	Fanta	Pepsi
N	166	164	161	157	97	167	165	155	157	153
Exc	4.51(1.22)	5.20 (1.47)	4.84 (1.49)	3.85 (1.61)	3.84 (1.63)	4.43 (1.45)	4.92 (1.75)	4.23 (1.66)	4.35 (1.76)	3.94 (1.77)
Comp	4.97 *(1.09)	5.53 (1.31)	5.41 (1.39)	4.39 (1.42)	4.28 (1.55)	4.40 *(1.54)	5.02 (1.77)	4.06 (1.68)	4.14 (1.71)	4.02 (1.81)
Soph	4.52 *(1.24)	5.06 (1.54)	4.93 (1.55)	3.82 (1.58)	4.06 (1.72)	3.99*(1.57)	4.62 (1.89)	3.68 (1.74)	3.72 (1.72)	3.54 (1.80)
Innov	4.77 *(1.14)	5.52 (1.40)	5.25 (1.43)	3.92 (1.55)	4.03 (1.65)	4.19 *(1.46)	5.03 (1.76)	3.66 (1.70)	4.01 (1.77)	3.63 (1.78)
Rugg	4.30*(1.32)	4.74 (1.66)	4.70 (1.63)	3.73 (1.50)	3.64 (1.54)	3.91*(1.60)	4.39 (1.91)	3.60 (1.72)	3.50 (1.71)	3.69 (1.84)
	Media average	TV	Radio	Print	Internet	Mobile	<i>Note:</i> Values highlighted in bold for brands/media are above the category mean. Values highlighted in bold for categories represent the three highest means. * Category means on corresponding attributes are significantly different: paired t-test, Wilcoxon signed-rank (medians are not reported due to limited space availability), $p < .001$			
N	168	168	168	168	168	168				
Exc	4.33 (1.21)	4.43 (1.86)	3.51 (1.76)	3.92 (1.60)	5.39 (1.57)	4.37 (1.85)				
Comp	4.65 (1.13)	4.56 (1.78)	4.29 (1.66)	4.99 (1.59)	5.08 (1.63)	4.34 (1.73)				
Soph	4.33 (1.19)	4.16 (1.75)	3.68 (1.71)	4.45 (1.72)	5.13 (1.58)	4.24 (1.79)				
Innov	4.44 (1.11)	4.15 (1.88)	3.21 (1.74)	3.52 (1.57)	6.01 (1.17)	5.29 (1.77)				
Rugg	4.12(1.34)	3.98 (1.82)	3.71 (1.80)	4.07 (1.72)	4.73 (1.76)	4.13 (1.83)				

As H1 posits, perceived brand-media fit is determined by the similarity between the brands and media according to the ratings on abstract attributes. There are several measures of multi-dimensional similarity commonly applied in statistical analysis, e.g. euclidean distance, city-block distance, Chebychev distance, etc. (Malhotra, 2007: 639). In at least two similar studies (Batra, Lenk, and Wedel, 2010; van der Lans, Van den Bergh, and Dieleman, 2014) – the euclidean distance was used to measure the perceived closeness of brands, therefore I apply this measure to my data as well. Additionally, brand-media proximity measures are computed by the means of city block distance to account for possible discounting of higher values due to square root operation in euclidean distance measure. In fact, both methods deliver quite identical results with respect to the brand-media similarity (i.e. when brand-media combinations are ranked from most to least similar according to the means of proximity variables, the order is essentially the

same irrespective of the measurement method; see Appendix G for summary tables). However, the reported means are highly unreliable because of high variance among respondents (relatively large standard deviations); therefore median values should also be considered for making the judgement about brand-media fit. In this regard, euclidean distance measures appear to be more precise in terms of medians; hence, they are used for the further descriptive analysis.

Table 7 reports the brand-media combinations: the media are ranked in ascending order from 1 (=the best fitting with the brand) – to 5 (=the worst fitting). Ranking order was based on median values of brand-media proximity measures (Appendix G); in case of equal medians, the brand-medium combination with the lower mean was ranked as more similar.

As it can be recognized from Table 7, some brands have one medium that is significantly more congruent with brand image, than other media: Internet for Nike and Adidas ($Mdn = 3.16$), and TV for Fanta ($Mdn = 3.61$) and Pepsi ($Mdn = 3.74$), though the similarity is higher for Nike and Adidas. For some other brands the conclusion can be made about definitely non-congruent media choices: Internet for Puma ($Mdn = 4.58$), Internet and mobile for NB ($Mdn = 4.36$ and 5.00), print media for Sprite ($Mdn = 4.36$), whereas other media types for these brands are somewhat more congruent, but not particularly distinctively, i.e. none especially congruent media exists. This can be explained by less pronounced personality of these brands (Table 6). For Coca Cola fit measures vary across media types, with Internet and TV having better fit ($Mdn = 3.32$), but not statistically significant.

To explain these results some inferences can be made with respect to the marketing of these brands. Nike and Adidas are perceived as highly innovative, exciting and competent brands; that is in line with the consumer perception of Internet and mobile media (Table 6); the same is valid for Coca Cola. Other studied brands received rather moderate ratings on attributes, but Puma and NB are perceived more competent, thus such competent media as print is shown to be more congruent; while Sprite, Fanta and Pepsi are seen as more exciting, therefore TV appears to be more suitable for their communication.

Overall for the product categories, mobile, print and Internet should be considered for the marketing of sport shoe brand, and TV, mobile and radio – for the communication of soda drink brands. With respect to mobile medium, Bart, Stephen, and Sarvary (2014) concluded that mobile display advertisement is a worthwhile investment for utilitarian products of higher involvement because they induce central route information processing, i.e. activate product-specific informati-

Table 7: Perceived similarity of brand-media combinations (rank-ordered)

R	Nike	Adidas	Puma	NB	Shoes ^a	Coca Cola	Sprite	Fanta	Pepsi	Soda ^a
1	Intern (3.16)*	Intern (3.16)*	Print (3.74)	Radio (4.00)	Mobile	Intern(3.32)	TV (3.32)	TV (3.61)*	TV (3.74)*	TV
2	Mobile (3.39)	Mobile (3.46)	Mobile (3.74)	Print (4.12)	Print	TV (3.32)	Radio (3.87)	Radio (4.12)	Mobile (3.74)	Mobile
3	TV (3.81)	TV (3.87)	Radio (3.87)	TV (4.24)	Internet	Mobile(3.46)	Mobile(4.24)	Intern (4.24)	Radio (4.00)	Radio
4	Print (4.36) *	Print (4.24) *	TV (3.87)*	Mobile (4.36)*	TV	Print (4.12)	Intern(4.24)	Mobile (4.30)	Print (4.24)	Internet
5	Radio (4.64)*	Radio (4.36)*	Intern (4.58)*	Intern (5.00)*	Radio	Radio(4.24)	Print(4.36) *	Print(4.36)*	Intern(4.47)*	Print

Note: R = rank order. Intern = Internet.

Significant median difference ($p < .05$) between one medium for a brand and the next medium down the list is indicated by an asterisk. For the last medium listed, asterisk identifies significant difference to the first medium on the list. Medians are provided in parentheses. Differences were tested by Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

a. The ranking of media is based on the mean ranks in the respective category.

Table 8: Evaluations of brands' advertisement in different media (rank-ordered)

R	Nike	Adidas	Puma	NB	Shoes ^a	Coca Cola	Sprite	Fanta	Pepsi	Soda ^a
1	TV (4.87) *	TV (4.67) *	TV (3.81)*	Intern(3.53)	TV	TV (4.83)*	TV (3.91)*	TV (3.91)*	TV (3.82)*	TV
2	Intern (4.37)	Intern (4.27)	Print (3.45)	Print (3.28)	Internet	Intern(3.51)	Intern(3.02)	Intern (2.89)	Intern (2.92)	Internet
3	Print (4.15)*	Print (3.96)*	Intern (3.42)*	TV (3.20)*	Print	Print (3.48)*	Print (2.91)*	Print (2.87)*	Print (2.80)*	Print
4	Mobile 2.87)*	Mobile(2.66)*	Mobile(2.31)*	Mobile (2.41)*	Mobile	Mobile(2.55)	Mobile(2.21)	Mobile(2.18)	Mobile (2.28)	Mobile
5	Radio (1.80)*	Radio (1.86)*	Radio(1.68)*	Radio(1.46)*	Radio	Radio(2.47)*	Radio(2.12)*	Radio(2.06)*	Radio(2.05)*	Radio

Note: R = rank order. Intern = Internet.

Significant mean difference ($p < .05$) between one medium for a brand and the next medium down the list is indicated by an asterisk. For the last medium listed, asterisk identifies significant difference to the first medium on the list. Means are provided in parentheses. Differences were tested with Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

a. The ranking of media is based on mean ranks of media types in the respective category.

on retrieval. As both studied product categories do have certain utilitarian value for consumers, this finding is in line with the previous research results, but from the perspective of brand and media perceptions. Further, print media, perceived as highly competent, seems to be an appropriate investment for higher involvement shoes, than for lower involvement soda drinks; while TV being able to communicate emotions well (i.e. exciting) is more congruent for symbolic low involvement products, such as soda drinks. Internet as the innovative channel can enable the communication of innovativeness for the sport shoes product class, as this trait is not perceived as common for soda drinks. Moreover, Internet is perceived rather rugged (Table 6), and so is the sport shoes category, but not soda drinks, giving additional support for this channel for the former products. Radio appears to be rather congruent for the communication of soda brands, and although I cannot provide any real-life examples, according to the model it is plausible to suggest that when approached creatively this media can be effective in communicating the specific image of these brands.

According to H4, more favorable response to the advertisement of brands is expected in congruent media. The evaluations of brands' advertisement in studied media are summarized in Table 8 and also organized in rank order from the most to the least favorable option. Still, the mean ratings are not particularly good representation of the data due to sample variation, but slightly more reliable compared to the means of proximity measures (standard deviations are reported in Appendix G). So respondents' agreement with respect to likability of brands communication in different media is rather low, yet the pattern of means can be analyzed descriptively. As it can be recognized from the rank order, TV advertisement is rated continuously more favorable irrespective of brands and categories; only for NB communication in the Internet and print media are liked more, but not significantly different from TV. Also advertisement in mobile and radio media received the lowest favorability scores for all brands. Notably, Nike, Adidas, and Coca Cola obtained higher favorability of advertisements in general in their product categories, which can be signal of the role of brand familiarity on attitudes to the ad, such as for more familiar brands advertisements are evaluated more favorably and ad favorability linearly increases with exposure (Campbell and Keller, 2003).

In general, evaluations of brands communication in media show a clear pattern: TV is the most favorable, followed by Internet and print, and mobile and radio are the least favorable options. These results are somewhat inconsistent with the model predictions about congruent brand-media

combinations. However, TV is congruent and favorably evaluated for the soda drinks category, but moderately congruent and still favorably evaluated for sport shoes category. With respect to particular brands, Internet is highly fitting media for Nike and Adidas, but received less favorable evaluation compared to TV, the same is true for Puma and print media. For NB, Internet channel is incongruent, but most favorably evaluated and the opposite holds for Internet and Pepsi.

To conclude the following relationship seems to be present: more congruent brand-media combinations are more favorably evaluated for soda drinks, and moderately or highly incongruent combinations are more favorably evaluated for sport shoes. Such relationship was expected and formulated by H5 that for low involvement products, the positive effect of brand-media fit on advertisement evaluation is stronger, than for high involvement products. The effect of moderate incongruity enhancing affective evaluations was previously investigated by Meyers-Levy and Tybout (1989) with respect to activated product schemas. Further, this relationship was confirmed in the context of brand extensions evaluation, but only for high involvement products, such as increasing involvement lead to the favorable resolution of moderate incongruity because of more elaborative processing (Maoz and Tybout, 2002). Similarly, Fleck and Quester (2007) report that a certain degree of incongruence between a brand and sponsored event resulted in more favorable attitude toward the sponsor brand as long as the incongruence was perceived interesting and positive. Thus, when central and peripheral processing routes are taken into account, more favorable evaluations of congruent media for low involvement soda brands is a sign of peripheral information processing on associative cues between brands and media and, hence, more image-building relevance of the media type; while for high involvement products consumers process the information centrally, thus elaborate more on brand attributes (e.g. communicated in the advertising message) and the image-building qualities of congruent media may be less relevant.

Nevertheless, this conclusion should be taken with caution and reflected in the light of other media-related characteristics, such as media usage and media attitude. According to these characteristics, consumers may vary in their perceptions of media (H3). Moreover, it was noted earlier in the analysis that advertising evaluations and brand perceptions are influenced upon the levels of consumer familiarity with brands; for that reason, the hypothesized effect of brand familiarity on brand perceptions (H2) should be investigated in more detail.

To explore the influence of media usage and enjoyment on respondents' ratings of media I investigated correlations between media usage and enjoyment variables and media attribute ratings. Although the perception data obtained through rating scales is often assumed to have normal distribution (e.g. Batra, Lenk, and Wedel, 2010; van der Lans, Van den Bergh, and Dieleman, 2014), I decided to use the more robust nonparametric Kendall's tau correlation. The resulting correlation matrices (Appendix H) show high correlation between media usage and enjoyment (quite logical relation), thus partial Kendall's tau coefficients were computed to see the unique influence of factors on media ratings (Table 9).

Table 9: Partial correlation coefficients of media usage and enjoyment on media ratings

	TV		RADIO		PRINT		INTERNET		MOBILE	
enjoy/use	.549**		.625**		.440**		.497**		.616**	
Attributes	enjoy ^a	use ^b	enjoy ^a	use ^b	enjoy ^a	use ^b	enjoy ^a	use ^b	enjoy ^a	use ^b
exciting	0.299	0.154	0.345	0.179	0.371	0.144	0.348	0.119	0.263	0.141
competent	0.288	0.031	0.218	0.176	0.311	-0.048	0.305	0.091	0.288	0.024
sophisticated	0.218	0.210	0.294	0.140	0.300	0.062	0.254	0.109	0.173	0.064
innovative	0.241	0.114	0.222	0.191	0.145	0.227	0.290	0.114	0.132	0.115
rugged	0.130	0.132	0.222	0.190	0.224	0.080	0.211	0.044	0.210	0.060

Note: ** $p < .01$ (1-tailed);

a. Controlling for media usage; b. Controlling for media enjoyment

The resulting partial correlations show that there is a positive unique relationship between media enjoyment and media ratings, such as the higher is the enjoyment associated with the media class the more favorable are the ratings of this medium on the abstract attributes. More, the enjoyment is most strongly correlated with the *exciting* attribute of media perception, which is a good indication of nomological validity of both measures. In general, compared to media enjoyment, media usage is less strongly correlated with the measures of media perception, though certain prevalently positive association exists. Interestingly, the correlation between print media usage and its competency evaluation is negative, though very marginal, and suggests that more frequent users of print media may be slightly more skeptical about its competency, than less frequent users. In overall, although statistical inference about the direction of causality cannot be made by the means of correlation coefficients (Field, 2005: 128) and offered argumentation is built on the common sense, an essential influence of media enjoyment and media usage on media ratings is identified and H3 is supported.

To explore the influence of brand familiarity on brand perceptions (H2) respondents were divided into two groups by the middle scale value: *less familiar* when the latent brand familiarity score is

below or equal 4, and *more familiar* – when it is greater than 4. The tests comparing the mean ratings on abstract attributes across two groups were performed for Puma and Pepsi brands, as less familiar groups were not as small in size as for other brands¹⁰ (Appendix I). The results indicate that these brands are rated significantly more favorably by more familiar respondents on every attribute (Table 10) and the effect size (*r*) is medium to large. Because higher levels of brand familiarity are usually associated with more refined cognitive structures about the brand and its attributes (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987), less familiar consumers may be fairly unconfident about the brand performance on the attributes (Laroche, Kim and Zhou, 1996) and, therefore, remain more skeptical when faced with brand evaluations, which is reflected in the smaller attribute scores. Thus, H2 about the influence of brand familiarity on brand perceptions and, consequently, on perceived brand-media fit measures is supported.

Table 10: Impact of brand familiarity on brand ratings

	Puma			Pepsi		
	Less fam. (N=59)	More fam. (N=98)	Independent t- test	Less fam. (N=46)	More fam. (N=107)	Independent t- test
Exciting	3.00 (1.49) <i>3.00</i>	4.36 (1.46) <i>5.00</i>	$t(155) = -5.61$, $p < .001$; $r = .41$	2.87 (1.29) <i>3.00</i>	4.40 (1.75) <i>5.00</i>	$t(151) = -5.347$, $p < .001$; $r = .40$
Competent	3.73 (1.44) <i>4.00</i>	4.79 (1.25) <i>5.00</i>	$t(155) = -4.84$, $p < .001$; $r = .36$	2.70 (1.21) <i>3.00</i>	4.59 (1.73) <i>5.00</i>	$t(151) = -6.754$, $p < .001$; $r = .49$
Sophisticated	3.00 (1.44) <i>3.00</i>	4.32 (1.45) <i>5.00</i>	$t(155) = -5.53$, $p < .001$; $r = .40$	2.46 (1.17) <i>3.00</i>	4.01 (1.82) <i>4.00</i>	$t(151) = -5.329$, $p < .001$; $r = .40$
Innovative	3.20 (1.39) <i>3.00</i>	4.36 (1.48) <i>4.00</i>	$t(155) = -4.84$, $p < .001$; $r = .36$	2.50 (1.07) <i>3.00</i>	4.12 (1.80) <i>4.00</i>	$t(151) = -5.687$, $p < .001$; $r = .41$
Rugged	3.07 (1.28) <i>3.00</i>	4.12 (1.48) <i>4.00</i>	$t(155) = -4.54$, $p < .001$; $r = .34$	2.50 (1.26) <i>2.00</i>	4.20 (1.82) <i>4.00</i>	$t(151) = -5.752$, $p < .001$; $r = .42$

Note: Statistics reported in the following manner according to formatting: mean (standard deviation), *median*.

5.4 Research limitations and directions for future research

Although I attempted to consider the possible limitations on the research design stage, certain tradeoffs were met. One may reasonably criticize my research because of limited external validity with respect to respondent sample and the selection of products and brands. However, the focus of the research was directed towards theory and instrument testing, thus, the issue of internal validity was more important (Kamins, 1990) and it was addressed through the choice of products and brands that are relevant for the sample. Nevertheless, the respondent sample is not representative and only a limited number of brands is included in the analysis due to concerns about the respondents boredom; therefore any generalizations of the findings should be avoided.

¹⁰ Unequal group sizes may inflate the statistical power of the independent t-test to some extent.

Future research in this area should consider a more representative sample and the inclusion of more product categories that vary with respect to their hedonic/utilitarian function and involvement as well as more brands per each category that differ in their personalities and familiarity levels. To overcome respondents' fatigue, a split questionnaire design can be applied (Adigüzel and Wedel, 2008). Moreover, to achieve better response rates the survey was administered to the international sample, however, to achieve more robust hypotheses testing future research should consider administering the instrument on the population of one country, as cultural differences with respect to brand perceptions, media usage and importance of attributes may apply. Further, with respect to questionnaire design I used 7-point rating scales to measure attribute ratings. Although this choice was based on important research findings, most recent similar studies used 9-point (Batra, Lenk, and Wedel, 2010) and 10-point (van der Lans, Van den Bergh, and Dieleman, 2014) scales for abstract attribute ratings due to better discriminating power. Thus, later research should take it into consideration.

Furthermore, in order to draw conclusions about the instrument performance and to explore the hypothesized relationships, descriptive analysis and simple test statistics were used, which I consider to be appropriate for preliminary insights on theory development stage. More rigorous statistical analysis should be applied later so that reliable implications can be derived for practice. Particularly, Bayesian methods should be considered, e.g. Bayesian factor analysis model to allow different attribute loadings for categories and media (Batra, Lenk and Wedel, 2010) or Bayesian nonlinear structural equation modeling (Arminger and Muthen, 1998; Lee et al., 2007) to estimate the effect of perceived similarity on evaluations of brands communication. Additionally, current research framework assumes the evaluation of brand advertisement in media as the dependent variable; however, such conceptualization could be challenged in the future. Moreover, abstract attributes identified through the analysis of related literature were attempted to represent a concise measure of cognitive dimensions underlying brand and media shared associations. Still, the comprehension of some attributes, e.g. ruggedness or sophistication for media may be limited by cognitive ability of the respondents. Therefore, additional thought should be devoted to the terminology and, possibly, toward the identification and the inclusion of additional attributes, e.g. by the means of exploratory research. Last but not least, future research should collect responses from more heterogeneous sample in terms of media usage, so that meaningful media usage segmentation can be made prior to analyzing the effect of perceived brand-media fit.

6. KEY IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The objective and the main research question of this thesis was to develop the research tool to the measurement of perceived brand-media fit and to test its performance. The contribution of the undertaken research is twofold. On the one hand, it delivers new and valuable insights to the area of brand media planning, particularly with respect to qualitative criteria of media selection. Applying the brand-media fit framework, managers can easier and with more precision identify media types that are congruent with the brand associations, and therefore are able to better communicate brand image. On the other hand, it contributes to the academic knowledge because it introduces the novel conceptualization of the perceived brand-media fit and the appropriate methodological approach to its measurement.

From the academic perspective my work addresses the gap about the lack of research devoted to the examination of a connection between brands and media, thus, extends the currently existing knowledge in the area. In the current work brand-media relationship was conceptualized from the perspective of perceived similarity in abstract associations induced by brands' personalities and media experiences. Abstract attributes, on which the similarity is assessed, were derived through the structured analysis of relevant literature with the focus on conciseness, clarity and universality of the resulting measurement scale. The research tool, which purpose is to evaluate perceived brand-media fit, was pretested by the means of an internet-mediated questionnaire with the emphasis on internal consistency. Several control measures were implemented to enable drawing conclusions about instrument performance; hypothesized relationships with respect to brand familiarity, product involvement and media usage and enjoyment were confirmed. Hence, the developed research framework can become a reliable and valid starting point for further investigations of studied issue. Particularly, the results suggest that perceived brand-media congruence encourages more favorable response to brands' advertisement for low involvement products, such as soda drinks, whereas brand-media incongruity is resolved more favorably for products of higher involvement, such as sport shoes. Brand familiarity being a predictable source of more refined cognitive structures about brands leads to significantly more favorable brand perceptions on abstract attributes, thus, moderates the resulting measures of similarity and should be accounted for in later research on the effect of perceived brand-media fit. Media usage logically contributes to the degree of media enjoyment and the latter – to the way different media channels are perceived with respect to applied attributes. This aspect should be considered in the

future research by surveying a more heterogeneous sample of respondents in terms of media usage, so that meaningful segmentation can be made prior to examining perceived brand-media fit and its effects. Moreover, other consumer-related control measures should be integrated to provide a better explanation of differentiated consumer response, which was revealed in the analysis and reflected in rather unreliable population means. First, the need for cognition, which refers to the affinity of individuals to engage in and enjoy thinking, can cause different reactions to persuasion information (Cacioppo and Petty, 1982; Cacioppo et al., 1986). Consumers with higher need for cognition are more prone to process information through central persuasion route, while those individuals with low need for cognition are rather influenced by peripheral cues (Haugtvedt et al., 1988; Nkwocha et al., 2005), which would be reflected in their different response to congruent and incongruent brand-media combination. Second, consumers can vary in their construal level, i.e. their representations of environmental stimuli vary in terms of the degree of abstraction (i.e. tendency to use more or less abstract mental models; Freitas, Salovey, and Liberman, 2001; Trope and Liberman, 2003). Thus, brand-media fit may be perceived stronger by high-level construals and be more important for their evaluations of brand communications (e.g. Kim and John, 2008) or appear to be more influential in terms of media image-building capacity. Thirdly, consumer innovativeness (e.g. Klink and Smith, 2001) may impact the extent to which incongruent brand-media combinations are perceived favorably. Innovative individuals may place higher value on surprising and non-stereotypic media choices.

Furthermore, following the conceptualization and the findings of van der Lans, Van den Bergh, and Dieleman (2014) similarity of brands and media on abstract dimensions that express extrinsic characteristics (e.g. excitement, sophistication, ruggedness) may contribute more to the favorability of consumer evaluations of brands advertisement, than the similarity in intrinsic dimensions (e.g. competence). Therefore, relative impact of separate dimensions of perceived brand-media similarity requires additional investigation and may bring more clarity to the effect of perceived fit on brand communications and advertising effectiveness.

With regard to the managerial implications of my research findings, different media types indeed may be perceived more or less similar to brands' images and the level of similarity can vary within and between product categories. According to the model, there are highly congruent, moderately incongruent and definitely poorly fitting media choices, when brand and media associations are considered. Some media types can be particularly representative at the certain

cognitive dimensions, such as Internet and mobile – for innovativeness, excitement and ruggedness, print media – for competence and sophistication, while others received moderate (e.g. TV) or low (e.g. radio) scores on all dimensions. In the context of the effect of brand familiarity on brand perceptions, it can be suggested that for new, unknown or less familiar brands, for which consumers are skeptical and uncertain about brand characteristics, appropriate media strategy may help enhance brand perceptions on required brand image associations. The same applies for so called brand revitalizing or rebranding strategies, when communication is at heart of the marketing success. The other relevant implication considers the role of involvement on the effect of perceived brand-media fit. That is, for low involvement products the effect of congruence on brand advertisement evaluations is stronger, whereas higher product involvement leads to resolving incongruence more favorably by consumers. However, due to very similar pattern of ad evaluations across two studied product categories, interpretation of this finding, though made in accordance with previous research, should be taken cautiously. A possible alternative explanation for these results is that advertisement in some media (e.g. TV, Internet, print) is considered more acceptable or appropriate by the investigated sample (e.g. Bond and Brace, 1997; Brace, Edwards, and Nancarrow, 2002) and, thus, more favorably evaluated for these channels in general irrespective of the relation to brands. With respect to other media, radio may seem to be illogical for studied products because of the absence of real-life examples, therefore, evaluated least favorably, which does not necessarily imply the uselessness of this medium. On the contrary, as discussed earlier in the paper it is possible that if approached creatively radio may induce the desired consumer response for congruent brands in terms of communicated brand image and favorable ad evaluation. Mobile advertisement also received quite unfavorable evaluations, which can be related to the fact that it is perceived negatively in general and not with respect to studied brands in particular, due to privacy issues that many consumers are concerned about. Therefore, further investigation, controlling for the attitude toward advertisement in different media, is needed before reliable implications with respect to product involvement in brand-media fit context can be made.

Considering the societal value of my research project, i.e. reducing the advertising burden on consumers, clear directions for brand managers of how and in which situations to apply perceived brand-media fit are not yet present, thus, this objective is not met. Nevertheless, current research advocates for a new position on brand media planning that can not only contribute to brand

equity by accounting for image-building characteristics of media, but also has the potential to deliver valuable outcomes for consumers by decreasing the overall amount of disturbing advertisement. Perceived brand-media fit certainly needs more rigorous exploration before common knowledge can be built and the implied societal objective achieved. Therefore, I would like to encourage marketing researchers and practitioners not to overlook this promising area.

APPENDIX A

In this Appendix I illustrate the procedure of identifying shared association domains for brands and media based on systematic analysis of related literature. The meanings of recognized brand and media personality items are examined by the means of renowned dictionary. Thereby their descriptive power is judged about. Finally, the closest descriptors are realized and the resulting definitions of the abstract attributes are presented.

Brand personality facets	EXCITEMENT		Media personality facets
Excitement: - Daring, Spirited, Imaginative, Up-to-date ¹ - Talkativeness, Freedom, Happiness, Energy ² - Youth, Independence ² - Adventurous, Spirited, Saucy ³ - Jolly, Happy, Cheerful, Enthusiastic ⁴ Likeableness: Fun, Active, Free, Cheerful ⁵	(+)	Spontaneous, Jovial, Pleasant, Friendly ^a Engaging: Colorful, Attractive, Exciting: Flashy, Action-packed ^b Entertaining, Enjoyable ^c Attractiveness ^d	
Boredom: Small-minded, Bourgeois, Boring, Old-fashioned ³ Introversion: Reserved, Shy ⁶	(-)	Objectionable, Annoying, Disruptive ^c	
Dictionary definitions (Hornby, 2000) Excitement - the state of feeling excited Excited - feeling or showing happiness and enthusiasm Exciting - causing great interest or excitement Excite - to make sb feel very pleased, interested or enthusiastic Happy - feeling or showing pleasure; pleased; giving or causing pleasure Enthusiasm - a strong feeling of excitement and interest in sth and a desire to become involved in Enthusiastic - feeling or showing a lot of excitement and interest about sth/sb Interested - giving your attention to sth because you enjoy finding out about it or doing it; showing interest in sth and finding it exciting Interesting – attracting your attention because it is special, exciting or unusual Pleasant – enjoyable, pleasing, or attractive; (to sb) friendly and polite Pleased – feeling happy about sth Pleasure – a state of feeling of being happy or satisfied. SYN. Enjoyment Jovial – very cheerful and friendly Engaging – interesting or pleasant in a way that attracts your attention Energetic – having or needing a lot of energy and enthusiasm Daring – brave; willing to do dangerous or unusual things Spirited – full of energy, determination or courage Imaginative – having or showing new and exciting ideas; syn. Inventive Fun – enjoyment, pleasure; a thing that gives you enjoyment, pleasure and makes you feel happy; amusing or enjoyable Cheerful – happy, and showing it by the way that you behave; giving you a feeling of happiness			
Descriptors Happy, Enthusiastic, Jovial, Engaging, Pleasant, Cheerful, Fun, Entertaining Active, Energetic, Young, Free, Independent Definition EXCITING: gives you a feeling happiness and enjoyment, makes you feel pleased, interested or enthusiastic; cheerful, fun, entertaining, and engaging.			

APPENDIX A (continued)

Brand personality facets	COMPETENCE	Media personality facets
Competence: - Reliable, Intelligent, Successful ¹ - Responsibility, Determination, Patience ² - Successful, Leading, Confident, Reliable, Secure, Well-made, Professional ⁵ - Confident, Successful, Resolute, Determined ⁴ Conscientiousness: - Organized, Meticulous, Serious ⁶ - Competent, Responsible, Orderly, Reliable ³ Responsibility: Down-to-earth, Stable, Responsible ⁷ Deceitfulness: Hypocritical, Lying, Deceitful ⁶	(+) Wisdom: Reasonable, Posed, Respectable ^a Assertiveness: Assertive, Exigent, Determined, Critical ^a Intelligent: Proficient (Searchable, Satisfying), Sophisticated (Comprehensive, Knowledgeable), Effective (Easy, Competent), Systematic (Fast Concise) ^b Trustworthy, Informative, Reliable ^c Trustworthiness, Expertness, Power ^d (-) Disingenuousness: Deceitful, Lying, Arrogant, Pretentious ^a Confusing: Irritating, Discouraging ^b	

Dictionary definitions (Hornby, 2000)

Competence - the ability to do sth well; the power that a court, an organization or a person has to deal with sth; a skill that you need in a particular job or for a particular task

Competent - having enough skill or knowledge to do sth well or to the necessary standard; having the power to decide sth

Expert - done with, having or involving great knowledge or skill

Expertise - expert knowledge or skill in a particular subject, activity or job

Reasonable - fair, practical and sensible; acceptable and appropriate in a particular situation

Respectable - considered by society to be acceptable, good or correct; fairly good; that there is not a reason to be ashamed of

Assertive - expressing opinions or desires strongly and with confidence, so that people take notice

Exigency - an urgent need or demand that you must deal with

Determined - if you are determined to do sth, you have made a firm decision to do it and you will not let anyone prevent you

Critical - involving making fair, careful judgments about the good and bad qualities of sb/sth

Intelligent - good at learning, understanding and thinking in a logical way about things; showing this ability

Proficient - able to do sth well because of training and practice

Comprehensive - including all, or almost all, the items, details, facts, information, ect., that may be concerned

Knowledgeable - knowing a lot

Reliable - that can be trusted to do sth well; that you can rely on; smth that is likely to be correct or true

Confident - feeling sure about your own ability to do things and be successful

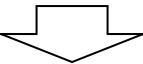
Descriptors

Expert, Confident, Assertive, Determined, Critical, Intelligent, Knowledgeable, Comprehensive, Reliable, Respectable, Successful, Leading, Secure, Professional, Responsible

Definition

COMPETENT: has high level of expertise, confidence, determination and professionalism, thus successful and respectable.

APPENDIX A (continued)

Brand personality facets	SOPHISTICATION		Media personality facets
Sophistication: - Upper class, Charming ¹ - Elegance, Style ² - Style, Confidence ² - Elegant, Glamorous, Formal, Upper-class, Charming ⁵ Precociousness: Classy, Stylish; Seduction: Charming, Seductive ⁶ Simplicity: Ordinary, Simple ⁷	(+)	- Elegance: Refined, Elegant, Classy, Stylish; Seduction: Seductive, Glamour, Fashionable, Charming ^a - Prestige ^d	
	(-)		
Dictionary definitions (Hornby, 2000) Sophisticated - having a lot of experience of the world and knowing about fashion, culture and other things that people think are socially important; (of a person) able to understand difficult or complicated ideas Elegant - (of people or their behavior) graceful and attractive; (of clothes, places and things) attractive and designed well Refined - (of a person) polite, well-educated and able to judge the quality of things; having the sort of manners that are considered typical of a high social class Classy - of high quality; expensive and/or fashionable Stylish - fashionable; elegant and attractive Seductive - sexually attractive; attractive in a way that makes you want to have or do sth Glamour - the attractive and exciting quality that makes a person, a job or a place seem special, often because of wealth or status; physical beauty that also suggests wealth or success Charming - very pleasant or attractive Prestige - that brings respect and admiration; important; admired and respected because it looks important and expensive SYN luxury Upper class - the groups of people that are considered to have the highest social status and that have more money and/or power than the other people in society Trendy - very fashionable			
			
Descriptors Elegant, Refined, Classy, Stylish, Glamour, Charming, Prestige, Upper class Definition SOPHISTICATED: has a lot of experience of the world and knowledge about fashion, culture; refined, elegant, charming, prestige.			

APPENDIX A (continued)

Brand personality facets	INNOVATIVENESS	Media personality facets
Creativity: Resourceful, Creative, Imaginative; Originality: Trendy, Modern ⁽⁶⁾ Trendiness: Trendy, Innovative, New, Contemporary, Different, Unique ⁽⁵⁾ Distinguishing: Unique, Non-conformist, Daring ⁽⁴⁾ Activity: Active, Dynamic, Innovative ⁽⁷⁾	(+) (-)	Vital: Interactive, Dynamic ^(b) Conventionality: Conservative, Traditional ^(a)

Dictionary definitions (Hornby, 2000)

Innovative - introducing or using new ideas, ways of doing sth, etc.

Creative - involving the use of skill and the imagination to produce sth new or a work of art, having the skill and ability to produce sth new, especially a work of art

Resourceful - good at finding way of doing things and solving problems

Imaginative - having or showing new and exciting ideas SYN inventive

Originality - the quality of being new and interesting in a way that is different from anything that has existed before

Trendy - very fashionable

Modern - of the present time or recent times SYN contemporary; (of styles in art, music, fashion, etc.) new and intended to be different from traditional styles SYN contemporary; using the latest technology, designs, materials, etc. SYN up-to-date; (of ways of behaving, thinking, etc.) new and not always accepted by most members of society

New - not existing before, recently made, invented, introduced, etc. OPP old; modern; of the latest type; only recently produced or developed

Contemporary - belonging to the same time; belonging to the present time SYN modern

Unique - being the only one of its kind; very special or unusual; belonging to or connected with one particular person, place or thing

Different - unusual; not like other people or things

Distinguished - very successful and admired by other people

Non-conformist - a person who does not follow normal ways of thinking or behaving

Daring - brave; willing to do dangerous or unusual things

Dynamic - a force that produces change, action or effects

Conventional - tending to follow what is done or considered appropriate by society in general; normal and ordinary, and perhaps not very interesting; following what is traditional or the way sth has been done for a long time

Conservative - opposed to great or sudden social change; showing that you prefer traditional styles and values

Descriptors

Creative, Imaginative, Inventive, Modern, New, Unique, Different, Distinguished, Non-conformist, Originality, Dynamism, Change

Definition

INNOVATIVE: introducing or using new ideas or ways of doing something; new, modern, different, unique and distinguishing.

APPENDIX A (continued)

Brand personality facets	RUGGEDNESS		Media personality facets
Ruggedness: - Outdoorsy, Tough ¹ - Tough, Rugged, Western, Masculine ⁵ - Rugged, Masculine, Firm (single-minded) ⁴ Dominance: Parvenu, Arrogant, Pretentious ⁶ Superficiality: Hypocritical, Obtrusive, Arrogant, Selfish ³ Aggressiveness: Aggressive, Bold ⁷ Masculine Brand Personality: Adventurous, Aggressive, Brave, Daring, Dominant, Sturdy ⁸	(+)	Candid: Orderly, Straightforward ^b Time-consuming, Difficult-to-ignore ^c	
Peacefulness: Mildness, Affection, Naivety ² Emotion: Good-natured, Cordial, Sentimental, Loving ³ Gentle: Soft-hearted, Feminine, Amiable ⁴ Feminine Brand Personality: Expresses tender feelings, Fragile, Graceful, Sensitive, Sweet, Tender ⁸ Emotionality: Romantic, Sentimental ⁷	(-)	Agreeableness: Friendly, Congeniality ^a	
Dictionary definitions (Hornby, 2000) Rugged - (of a person) determined to succeed in a difficult situation, even if it means using force or upsetting other people; (of equipment, clothing) strong and designed to be used in difficult conditions Outdoor - used, happening or situated outside, rather than in the building Tough - having or causing problems or difficulties; demanding that particular rules be obeyed and showing a lack of sympathy for any problems or suffering that it may cause; strong enough to deal successfully with difficult conditions or situations Dominant - more important, powerful or noticeable than other things Parvenu - a person from a low social or economic position who has suddenly become rich or powerful Arrogant - behaving in a proud, unpleasant way, showing little thought for other people Pretentious - trying to appear important, intelligent, etc. in order to impress other people; trying to be sth that you are not, in order to impress Masculine - having the qualities or appearance considered to be typical of men; connected with or like men Firm - not likely to change; (of sb's behavior, position or understanding of sth) strong and in control Adventurous - (of a person) willing to take risks and try new ideas; enjoying being in new, exciting situations Aggressive - behaving in a very determined and forceful way in order to succeed Brave - (of a person) willing to do things which are difficult, dangerous or painful; not afraid Sturdy - (of an object) strong and not easily damaged; 3 not easily influenced or changed by other people Bold - (of people or behavior) brave and confident; not afraid to say what you feel or to take risks			
Descriptors Tough, Outdoorsy, Masculine, Dominant, Arrogant, Firm, Aggressive, Sturdy, Bold			
Definition RUGGED: shows determination to succeed in difficult situations; tough, outdoorsy and sturdy.			

APPENDIX A (continued)

1. Aaker (1997);
2. Aaker, Benet-Martinez, and Garolera (2001);
3. Bosnjak, Bochmann, and Hufschmidt (2007);
4. Smit, van den Berge, and Franzen (2002);
5. Sung and Tinkham (2005);
6. Ambroise (2006);
7. Geuens, Weijters, and De Wulf (2009);
8. Grohmann (2009);

- a. Valette-Florence and De Barnier (2013);
- b. Chen and Rodgers (2006);
- c. Danaher and Rossiter (2011);
- d. Triandis (1971);

Hornby, A.S. (2000), Oxford Advanced Learners's Dictionary of Current English, 6th edition, edited by Sally Wehmeier, phonetics editor Michael Ashby, Oxford University Press: Oxford, New York

APPENDIX B

To guarantee the equal understanding of media types by the respondents, brief definitions adapted from Hornby (2000) are provided in the questionnaire:

Television is a type of media that transmits different television programs (e.g. news, reports, movies, concerts, etc.) through a variety of television channels.

Print media is a type of media that is published in printed form, e.g. specialized magazines and newspapers.

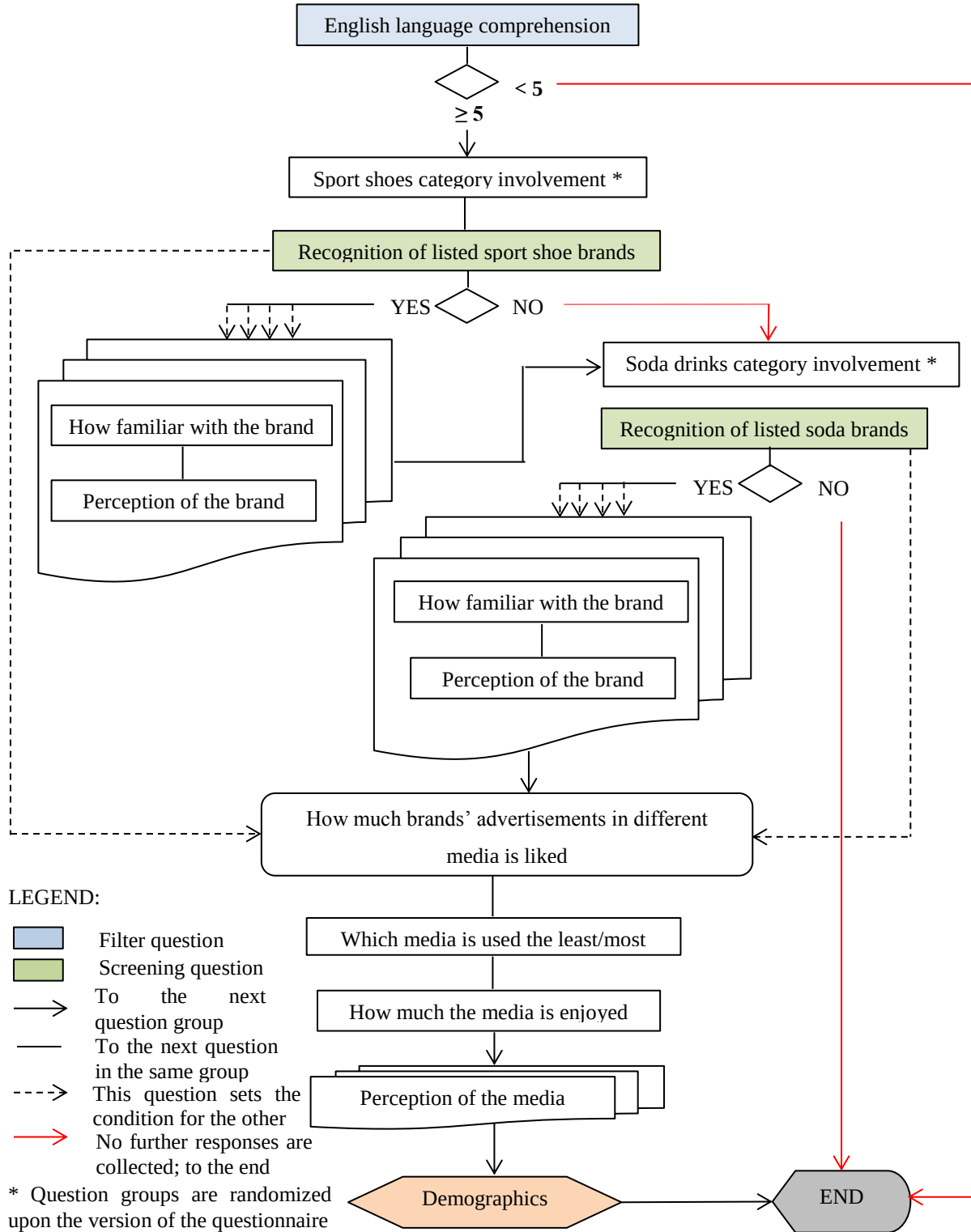
Radio is a type of media that transmits music and different radio programs (e.g. news, reports, etc.) through a variety of specialized radio channels.

Internet media is a form of digital media presented by diverse web pages that can be accessed online, e.g. companies' or other web sites, online shops, news etc.

Mobile media is related to different forms of media that can be accessed through a smartphone or a tablet, e.g. mobile applications of different types, mobile games, etc.

SURVEY LOGIC

APPENDIX C



Note: The order of questions about brands as well as the order of attributes for each brand/medium is randomized for every respondent.

APPENDIX D

In this Appendix one of the versions of the questionnaire as it was presented to the respondents is offered.

[WELCOME PAGE]

This survey is an empirical research aimed to investigate consumer perceptions. Your responses are of great importance and will enable me to gain a comprehensive understanding of the studied issue.

The questionnaire will take you about 20 minutes to complete. All responses will be treated anonymously and strictly confidentially.

I will use the answers from your questionnaire as the main data set for my research project which is a part of my Master Degree at the University of Cologne (Germany) and the Louvain School of Management (Belgium). As a reward for your time and effort at the end of the questionnaire you will be offered an opportunity to win a 20, 15 or 10 EUR Amazon coupon.

There are 36 questions in this survey.

[1] * **How would you assess your knowledge of English language (reading, comprehension)?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Very little, only some basics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Native speaker

[2] The following questions refer to product brands.

You will be asked about your familiarity with specific brands and how in your opinion they can be described by the mentioned attributes.

To guarantee the equal understanding I would like to give brief definitions of the attributes that will be used later:

SOPHISTICATED: has a lot of experience and knowledge about fashion, culture; refined, elegant, charming, prestige.

RUGGED: shows determination to succeed in difficult situations; tough, outdoorsy and sturdy.

COMPETENT: has high level of expertise, confidence, determination and professionalism, thus successful and respectable.

EXCITING: gives a feeling of happiness and enjoyment, makes you feel interested or enthusiastic; cheerful, fun, entertaining, and engaging.

INNOVATIVE: introducing or using new ideas or ways of doing something; new, modern, different, unique and distinguishing.

I have read the definitions

Please choose **only one** of the following:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

APPENDIX D (continued)

[3] This group of questions refers to sport shoes product category.

*** Please, indicate to what extent do you agree/disagree with the following statements:**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sport shoes are very important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
For me, sport shoes do NOT matter	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a strong interest in sport shoes	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

*** Which of the following sport shoe brands have you ever seen or heard about?**

Please choose **all** that apply:

- ☐ Nike
- ☐ Adidas
- ☐ Puma
- ☐ New balance (NB)
- ☐ Converse
- ☐ Reebok

[4] *** How well do you know the brand New Balance (NB)?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
NB is very UNFAMILIAR to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	NB is very FAMILIAR to me
I'm NOT at all knowledgeable about NB	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I'm VERY knowledgeable about NB
I have NEVER seen advertisements about NB	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I have seen MANY advertisements about NB

*** When described by the following attributes, how would you rate the brand New Balance (NB)?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX D (continued)

[5] * How well do you know the brand Puma?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Puma is very UNFAMILIAR to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Puma is very FAMILIAR to me
I'm NOT at all knowledgeable about Puma	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I'm VERY knowledgeable about Puma
I have NEVER seen advertisements about Puma	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I have seen MANY advertisements about Puma

*** When described by the following attributes, how would you rate the brand Puma?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[6] * How well do you know the brand Nike?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Nike is very UNFAMILIAR to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Nike is very FAMILIAR to me
I'm NOT at all knowledgeable about Nike	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I'm VERY knowledgeable about Nike
I have NEVER seen advertisements about Nike	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I have seen MANY advertisements about Nike

*** When described by the following attributes, how would you rate the brand Nike?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX D (continued)

[7] * How well do you know the brand Adidas?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Adidas is very UNFAMILIAR to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Adidas is very FAMILIAR to me
I'm NOT at all knowledgeable about Adidas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I'm VERY knowledgeable about Adidas
I have NEVER seen advertisements about Adidas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I have seen MANY advertisements about Adidas

*** When described by the following attributes, how would you rate the brand Adidas?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[8] This group of questions refers to soda drinks product category.

*** Please, indicate to what extent do you agree/disagree with the following statements:**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Soda drinks are very important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
For me, soda drinks do NOT matter	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a strong interest in soda drinks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

*** Which of the following sport shoe brands have you ever seen or heard about?**

Please choose **all** that apply:

- ☐ Coca Cola
- ☐ Sprite
- ☐ Fanta
- ☐ Pepsi
- ☐ 7UP
- ☐ Dr. Pepper

APPENDIX D (continued)

[9] * How well do you know the brand Pepsi?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Pepsi is very UNFAMILIAR to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Pepsi is very FAMILIAR to me
I'm NOT at all knowledgeable about Pepsi	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I'm VERY knowledgeable about Pepsi
I have NEVER seen advertisements about Pepsi	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I have seen MANY advertisements about Pepsi

*** When described by the following attributes, how would you rate the brand Pepsi?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[10] * How well do you know the brand Fanta?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Fanta is very UNFAMILIAR to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Fanta is very FAMILIAR to me
I'm NOT at all knowledgeable about Fanta	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I'm VERY knowledgeable about Fanta
I have NEVER seen advertisements about Fanta	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I have seen MANY advertisements about Fanta

*** When described by the following attributes, how would you rate the brand Fanta?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX D (continued)

[11] * How well do you know the brand Coca Cola?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Coca Cola is very UNFAMILIAR to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Coca Cola is very FAMILIAR to me
I'm NOT at all knowledgeable about Coca Cola	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I'm VERY knowledgeable about Coca Cola
I have NEVER seen advertisements about Coca Cola	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I have seen MANY advertisements about Coca Cola

*** When described by the following attributes, how would you rate the brand Coca Cola?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[12] * How well do you know the brand Sprite?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Sprite is very UNFAMILIAR to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Sprite is very FAMILIAR to me
I'm NOT at all knowledgeable about Sprite	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I'm VERY knowledgeable about Sprite
I have NEVER seen advertisements about Sprite	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	I have seen MANY advertisements about Sprite

*** When described by the following attributes, how would you rate the brand Sprite?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX D (continued)

[13] The following questions are about advertisements of brands in different media.

To guarantee the equal understanding I would like to give brief definitions of media types that will be used later:

Internet media is a form of digital media presented by diverse web pages that can be accessed online, e.g. companies' or other web sites, online shops, news etc.

Mobile media is related to different forms of media that can be accessed through a smartphone or a tablet, e.g. mobile applications of different types, mobile games, etc.

Print media is a type of media that is published in printed form, e.g. specialized magazines and newspapers.

Television is a type of media that transmits different television programs (e.g. news, reports, movies, concerts, etc.) through a variety of television channels.

Radio is a type of media that transmits music and different radio programs (e.g. news, reports, etc.) through a variety of specialized radio channels.

I have read the definitions

Please choose **only one** of the following:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

[14] * **Please, rate to what extent do you LIKE each brand to be advertised in each media on a scale from 1 (= not at all) to 7 (=extremely). Put the numbers from 1 to 7 at each corresponding box in rows.**

For example, if you extremely like the brand Mercedes Benz to be advertised in the Internet, you should put the number 7 in the intersection box of Mercedes row and Internet column. Similarly, if you do NOT like the brand Mercedes Benz to be advertised in the Internet you should put the number 1 or 2 in the intersection box of Mercedes and Internet. Continue in the same manner until each box is assigned a number. The number in the box reflects the degree of your like or dislike.

There is no right or wrong answer. Just handle based on what you feel.

Only answer this question for the items you selected in question 'Which of the following sport shoe brands have you ever seen or heard about?'

Only answer this question for the items you did not select in question 'Which of the following sport shoe brands have you ever seen or heard about?'

	Television	Radio	Print media	Internet media	Mobile media
Nike					
Adidas					
Puma					
New Balance (NB)					

APPENDIX D (continued)

	Television	Radio	Print media	Internet media	Mobile media
Coca Cola					
Sprite					
Fanta					
Pepsi					

*** In general, how frequently do you use the following media on a normal week, relative to the other media listed?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Least often 1	2	3	4	5	6	Most often 7
Television	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Radio	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Print media	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Internet media	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mobile media	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

*** How much do you enjoy the following media?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all 1	2	3	4	5	6	Extremely 7
Television	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Radio	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Print media	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Internet media	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mobile media	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[15] *** When described by the following attributes, how would you rate Television?**

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all 1	2	3	4	5	6	Extremely 7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX D (continued)

[16] * When described by the following attributes, how would you rate Radio?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[17] * When described by the following attributes, how would you rate Print media?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[18] * When described by the following attributes, how would you rate Internet media?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[19] * When described by the following attributes, how would you rate Mobile media?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

	Not at all						Extremely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sophisticated	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rugged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX D (continued)

[20] Finally, I would like to know just a little about your background so I can see how different people feel about the topics about which you've answered questions.

*** What is your gender?**

Please choose **only one** of the following:

- ☐ Female
☐ Male

*** How old are you?**

Please write your answer here:

*** Where do you come from (country)?**

Please write your answer here:

[END PAGE]

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. I hope you found it enjoyable and would like to reward you for your effort.

If you have any queries please do not hesitate to contact me on this email:
sofya.alimova@gmail.com

If you share your email address in the box below, you will have an opportunity to participate in a lottery and win one of three Amazon coupons (20, 15 or 10 EUR). This field is not obligatory, and this information will not be disclosed to a third party or used for other purposes than stated above.

Please write your answer here:

Thank you!

If you have any queries please do not hesitate to contact me on this email:
sofya.alimova@gmail.com.

Notes to Appendix D:

[...] = page number;

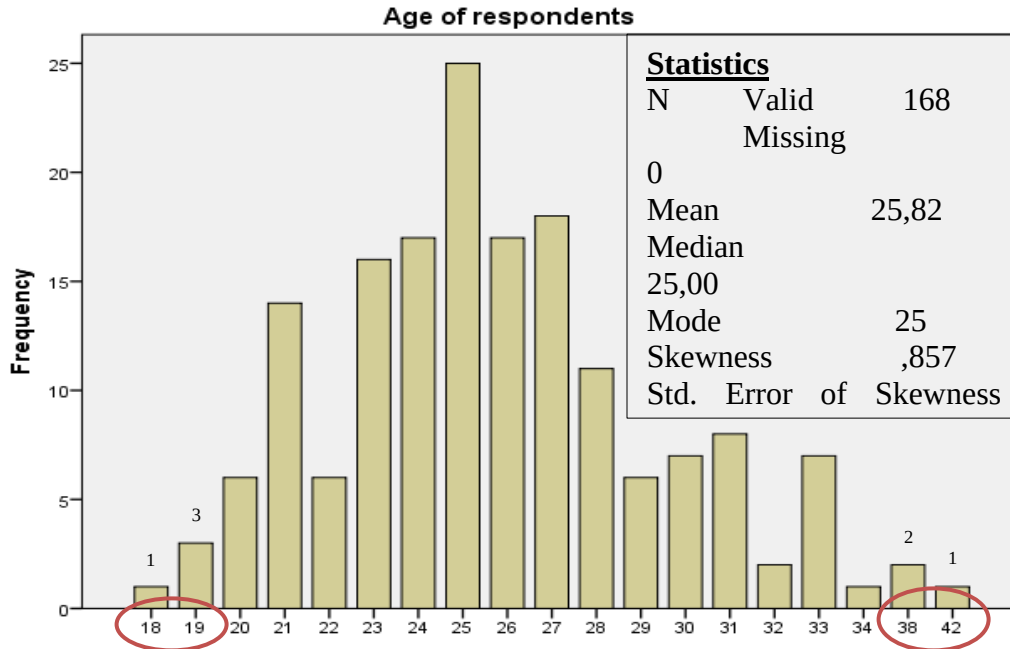
Pages with attribute definitions and media definitions were omitted;

Help function, i.e. attribute definitions that appear below each brand and media rating question are omitted.

APPENDIX E

This Appendix includes more detailed descriptive statistics about the questionnaire and demographic variables.

1. Age of respondents



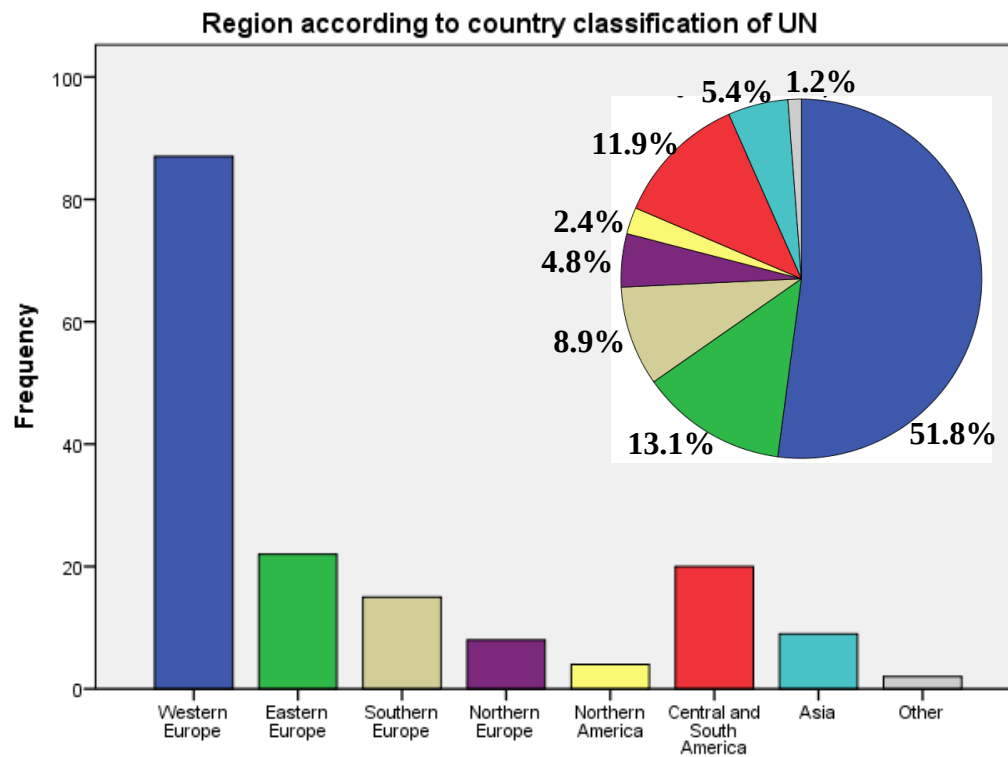
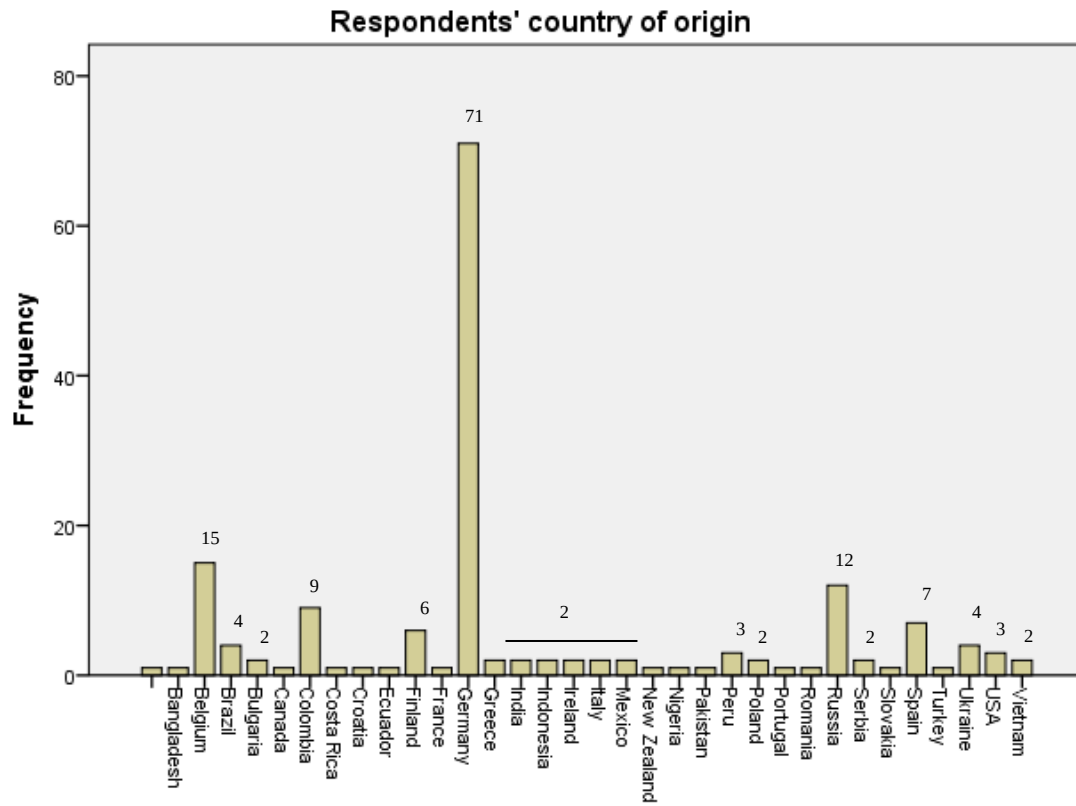
In general, respondents sample is slightly skewed toward the younger population, which is fine considering the choice of products and brands.

Age outliers: 1 and 3 respondents were aged 18 and 19, respectively; 2 and 1 respondents reported the age 38 and 42, respectively. Due to the fact that distribution of survey announcements was controlled, it is also possible that 42 is a typing error and a respondent was actually 24 years old. This slight deviation from targeted sample I consider to be acceptable and it was decided to keep these observations. In sum, collected responses adequately meet the requirements on respondent sample.

2. Country of origin

As planned, the responses were collected from international sample; 33 countries were stated by respondents. It is important to note that although the respondents have different cultural background, almost all of them currently live in Germany or Belgium. According to their country of origin, respondents were divided in 8 geographical regions using UN country classification. The distribution is shown on the graph "Region according to country classification of UN". European region is well-represented; relatively many responses were recorded from Germans (71), Belgians (15) and Russians (12); one value was missing (graph "Respondents' country of origin"). (continued)

APPENDIX E (continued)



APPENDIX E (continued)

3. Time to complete the questionnaire

As the completion of the questionnaire by respondents was not observed, it is difficult to draw any assumptions about the quality of the data. In this respect, the time it took to fill out the survey, as recorded by the online software, may serve as an indication of data quality. According to variable statistics (see Table below) average time was around 22 minutes, but the range was quite impressive: from 3 to 377 minutes. Such strong outliers in both directions may not mean any good for data quality: too less time devoted to the questionnaire is a sign of strong satisfying; too much time probably means that a respondent was distracted from filling out the questionnaire. If the acceptable time range is identified as 5 to 50 minutes, there are 15 responses that are questionable. However, respective cases were not identified as regular outliers for the main perception variables, thus, the time outlying observations were kept for the further analysis. Also, the exploratory analysis of the brands perception variables with respect to outliers (i.e. z-values greater than 1.96) showed that the number of outlying observations were within the acceptable range of 5% (Field, 2005: 76-78).

Time to complete the questionnaire (in min)			
Mean 22.01	Median 14.20		Min 2.58
			Max 377.03
	Frequency	Brands rated (mean)	Cases
less than 5 min	5	3.2	48, 61, 73, 116, 135
5 to 10 min	26	6.7	
10 to 30 min	114	7.4	
30 to 50 min	13	7.5	
more than 50 min	10	7.2	3, 17, 21, 39, 41, 85, 89, 91, 120, 136
Total	168	-	

Nike outliers: exciting (cases 93, 159, 139, 142, 85, 162, 140, 158, 148), competent (cases 21, 19, 159), sophisticated (cases 21, 19), innovative (cases 159, 125), rugged (-);

Adidas outliers: exciting (-), competent (cases 159, 93, 102, 149, 155, 162, 156, 161), sophisticated (-), innovative (cases 93, 159, 149, 71, 102, 161, 162, 63, 79), rugged (-);

Puma outliers: (-)

NB outliers: competent (case 133), other attributes (-);

Coca Cola outliers: exciting (case 11), competent (cases 20, 11, 161, 22), other attributes (-);

Sprite outliers: competent (case 22), other attributes (-);

Fanta outliers: (-)

Pepsi outliers: competent (cases 7, 151), innovative (case 7), other attributes (-);

4. Learning effect with respect to questionnaire type

As last it was checked whether the learning effect with respect to the screening questions is present. The learning effect means that the type of the questionnaire should negatively influence the number of brands checked as recognized for the product category that is rated last, as respondents would try to avoid the following brand ratings after they experienced the ratings of brands in the beginning of the questionnaire. Wilcoxon signed rank test was applied to test this relationship. (continued)

APPENDIX E (continued)

Results show that learning effect with respect to questionnaire type was present only when soda brands were rated first, i.e. the number of recognized soda brands was significantly higher ($Mdn = 6$), than the number of shoe brands checked as recognized ($Mdn = 5$), $T = 3$, $p < .01$, $r = .51$.

Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests for learning effect:

Version of questionnaire SS (sport shoes first)

		N		
Number of sport shoes brands checked – Number of soda brands checked	Positive ranks	21	Z	- .776 (based on negative ranks)
	Negative ranks	20	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.438
	Tiles	52		
	Total	93		

Test results are insignificant, thus in SS questionnaire there were no learning effect, i.e. the number of sport shoes brands checked ($Mdn = 6$) is not significantly different from the number of soda brands checked ($Mdn = 6$), $z = - .776$, not significant ($p < 0.05$).

Version of questionnaire SD (soda drinks first)

		N		
Number of sport shoes brands checked – Number of soda brands checked	Positive ranks	32	Z	4,426 (based on negative ranks)
	Negative ranks	3	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000
	Tiles	40		
	Total	75		

Test results are significant and based on negative ranks, thus there is some learning effect for SD version of the questionnaire, i.e. the number of sport shoe brands checked ($Mdn = 5$) was significantly lower, than the number of soda brands checked ($Mdn = 6$), when soda brands were rated first in the questionnaire ($T = 3$, $p < 0.01$, $r = 0.51$).

Note: the values of dependent variables were equal the sums of all recognized brands in the category (min 1 and max 6) because respondents could not know which of the brands they are going to rate later in the questionnaire.

APPENDIX F

Reliability of involvement and familiarity scales:

	Items	Cronbach's α	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's α if Item Deleted
Product inv. (shoes) N=168	very important to me do not matter (rev.) strong interest in	.860	.798 .702 .710	.747 .837 .827
Product inv. (soda) N=168	very important to me do not matter (rev.) strong interest in	.800	.777 .553 .661	.608 .871 .719
Brand fam. (Nike) N=164	very familiar to me very knowledgeable about seen many advertisements	.767	.627 .602 .657	.719 .694 .629
Brand fam. (Adidas) N=161	very familiar to me very knowledgeable about seen many advertisements	.823	.620 .751 .734	.837 .680 .705
Brand fam. (Puma) N=157	very familiar to me very knowledgeable about seen many advertisements	.805	.630 .655 .677	.758 .730 .708
Brand fam. (NB)* N=97	very familiar to me very knowledgeable about seen many advertisements	1.000	1.000 1.000 1.000	1.000 1.000 1.000
Brand fam. (Coca Cola) N=165	very familiar to me very knowledgeable about seen many advertisements	.723	.428 .627 .610	.742 .530 .557
Brand fam. (Sprite) N=155	very familiar to me very knowledgeable about seen many advertisements	.744	.561 .617 .556	.683 .603 .689
Brand fam. (Fanta) N=157	very familiar to me very knowledgeable about seen many advertisements	.694	.515 .491 .555	.620 .633 .543
Brand fam. (Pepsi) N=153	very familiar to me very knowledgeable about seen many advertisements	.821	.667 .690 .684	.771 .739 .747

*Items correlation and Cronbach's alpha measures for New Balance signal perfect correlation, i.e. the ratings on the three familiarity items were identical for all respondents. Due to the fact that the order of brands in the questionnaire was randomized, and the brand has low recognition rate, it is possible that the respondents always had to rate it as last, thus learning effect with respect to familiarity items is present.

APPENDIX G

Brands-media proximity measures: Mean (SD), Median

Euclidean distance										
	Nike	Adidas	Puma	NB	Coca Cola	Sprite	Fanta	Pepsi		
	N164	R161	R157	R97	R165	R155	R157	R153	R	R
TV	4.17(2.50) 3.81	4.26(2.42) 3.87	4.23(2.35) 3.87	4.41(1.90) 4.24	3.88(2.31) 3.32	3.85(2.05) 3.32	4.00(2.22) 3.61	3.92(2.05) 3.74	1	1
Radio	5.15(2.88) 4.64	4.98(2.53) 4.36	4.06(2.27) 3.87	4.25(2.15) 4.00	4.80(2.64) 4.24	4.21(2.21) 3.87	4.45(2.37) 4.12	4.28(2.33) 4.00	2	2
Print	4.50(2.19) 4.36	4.41(2.17) 4.24	4.17(2.20) 3.74	4.12(1.99) 4.12	4.45(2.29) 4.12	4.36(2.14) 4.36	4.57(2.21) 4.36	4.38(2.15) 4.24	5	4
Intern	3.40(2.08) 3.16	3.58(2.02) 3.16	4.81(2.36) 4.58	5.10(2.45) 5.00	3.67(2.23) 3.32	4.56(2.51) 4.24	4.57(2.68) 4.24	4.66(2.63) 4.47	4	5
Mobile	4.11(2.41) 3.39	4.07(2.38) 3.46	4.39(2.52) 3.74	4.60(2.37) 4.36	4.04(2.35) 3.46	4.40(2.18) 4.24	4.38(2.42) 4.30	4.32(2.25) 3.74	2	3
City-block distance										
	Nike	Adidas	Puma	NB	Coca Cola	Sprite	Fanta	Pepsi		
	N164	R161	R157	R97	R165	R155	R157	R153	R	R
TV	7.99 (5.47) 7.00	8.27(5.49) 7.00	8.25(5.19) 7.00	8.54(4.18) 8.00	7.36(5.07) 6.00	7.47(4.43) 7.00	7.74(4.86) 7.00	7.54(4.52) 7.00	1	1
Radio	10.21(6.50) 8.00	9.85(5.81) 8.00	7.80(4.95) 7.00	8.23(4.92) 8.00	9.42(5.88) 8.00	8.08(4.82) 7.00	8.60(5.20) 8.00	8.33(5.11) 7.00	4	4
Print	8.54(4.78) 7.00	8.40(4.77) 8.00	7.96(4.72) 7.00	7.87(4.24) 8.00	8.33(4.95) 8.00	8.30(4.65) 8.00	8.83(4.85) 8.00	8.27(4.71) 7.00	2	2
Intern	6.34(4.39) 6.00	6.78(4.41) 6.00	9.57(5.37) 9.00	10.09(5.62) 10.00	6.79(4.70) 6.00	8.85(5.43) 8.00	8.92(5.84) 8.00	9.02(5.84) 8.00	5	5
Mobile	7.93(5.33) 6.00	7.76(5.43) 6.00	8.64(5.62) 7.00	8.98(5.42) 8.00	7.61(5.13) 6.00	8.50(4.76) 8.00	8.48(5.28) 7.00	8.30(5.03) 7.00	2	3

Note: R= rank, Intern= Internet;

The differences in ranks of congruent media for Fanta and Pepsi (highlighted in red) are due to very close mean values for respective media, thus do not impact the overall conclusion about the identical congruent brand-media combination delivered by both distance measures.

Evaluation of brands advertisement in the media: Mean (SD), Median

	N	TV	Radio	Print	Internet	Mobile
Nike	164	4.87 (1.93) 5.00	1.80 (1.36) 1.00	4.15 (2.09) 5.00	4.37 (2.04) 5.00	2.87 (2.06) 2.00
Adidas	161	4.67 (1.97) 5.00	1.86 (1.51) 1.00	3.96 (2.01) 4.00	4.27 (2.01) 5.00	2.66 (1.95) 2.00
Puma	157	3.81 (1.92) 4.00	1.68 (1.25) 1.00	3.45 (1.75) 4.00	3.42 (1.84) 3.00	2.31 (1.69) 1.00
NB	97	3.20 (2.01) 3.00	1.46 (0.99) 1.00	3.28 (1.95) 3.00	3.53 (2.07) 4.00	2.41 (1.81) 1.00
Coca Cola	165	4.83 (2.16) 6.00	2.47 (1.78) 2.00	3.48 (2.04) 4.00	3.51 (2.16) 4.00	2.55 (1.94) 1.00
Sprite	155	3.91 (2.07) 4.00	2.12 (1.56) 1.00	2.91 (1.71) 3.00	3.02 (1.98) 3.00	2.21 (1.67) 1.00
Fanta	157	3.91 (2.02) 4.00	2.06 (1.50) 1.00	2.87 (1.73) 3.00	2.89 (1.95) 2.00	2.18 (1.66) 1.00
Pepsi	153	3.82 (2.09) 4.00	2.05 (1.50) 1.00	2.80 (1.68) 3.00	2.92 (1.98) 2.00	2.28 (1.81) 1.00

APPENDIX H

Nonparametric Correlation Matrix (Kendall's tau)

TV	use	enjoy	RADIO	use	enjoy	PRINT	use	enjoy
use	1.000	.549**	use	1.000	.625**	use	1.000	.440**
enjoy	.549**	1.000	enjoy	.625**	1.000	enjoy	.440**	1.000
exciting	.350**	.426**	exciting	.444*	.519**	exciting	.315**	.455**
competent	.220**	.356**	competent	.370**	.389**	competent	.101*	.322**
sophisticated	.367**	.371**	sophisticated	.378**	.449**	sophisticated	.208**	.355**
innovative	.280**	.347**	innovative	.388**	.402**	innovative	.312**	.261**
rugged	.236**	.235**	rugged	.387**	.402**	rugged	.193**	.282**
INTERNET	use	enjoy	MOBILE	use	enjoy	N=168 ** p < .01 (1-tailed); * p < .05 (1-tailed)		
use	1.000	.497**	use	1.000	.616**			
enjoy	.497**	1.000	enjoy	.616**	1.000			
exciting	.312**	.442**	exciting	.355*	.412**			
competent	.265**	.387**	competent	.247**	.372**			
sophisticated	.259**	.342**	sophisticated	.211**	.263**			
innovative	.281**	.381**	innovative	.242**	.250**			
rugged	.168**	.264**	rugged	.232**	.304**			

Kendall' tau is used to report the correlation as it is considered to be a more robust nonparametric estimate of correlation in the population (Howell, 1997: 293), especially in case of large number of tied ranks (Field, 2005, p.131). Due to the fact that high correlation is present between media usage and media enjoyment variables, the partial Kendall's tau coefficients are computed to identify the unique influence of factors on media ratings:

$$\tau_{12.3} = \frac{\tau_{12} - \tau_{13}\tau_{23}}{\sqrt{(1 - \tau_{13}^2)(1 - \tau_{23}^2)}}$$
, with r_{xy} denoting the Kendall's tau correlation between x and y (Conover, 1999: 327). The resulting partial correlations are reported in the text.

APPENDIX I

Descriptive statistics on familiarity variables by familiarity group

		Less familiar	More familiar	Test statistics (Mann-Whitney U)
Nike	<i>N</i> <i>M (SD)</i> <i>Mdn</i>	21 3.14 (0.70) 3.00	143 6.09 (0.79) 6.00	$z = 7.455, p < .001$
Adidas	<i>N</i> <i>M (SD)</i> <i>Mdn</i>	20 3.02 (0.85) 3.17	41 6.03 (0.80) 6.33	$z = 7.283, p < .001$
Puma	<i>N</i> <i>M (SD)</i> <i>Mdn</i>	59 3.11 (0.85) 3.33	98 5.53 (0.88) 5.33	$z = 10.507, p < .001$
NB	<i>N</i> <i>M (SD)</i> <i>Mdn</i>	51 2.78 (0.97) 3.00	46 6.11 (0.77) 6.00	$z = 8.585, p < .001$
Coca Cola	<i>N</i> <i>M (SD)</i> <i>Mdn</i>	15 2.98 (0.87) 3.00	150 6.45 (0.72) 6.67	$z = 6.625, p < .001$
Sprite	<i>N</i> <i>M (SD)</i> <i>Mdn</i>	28 3.08 (0.83) 3.17	127 5.80 (0.92) 6.00	$z = 8.315, p < .001$
Fanta	<i>N</i> <i>M (SD)</i> <i>Mdn</i>	24 3.04 (0.79) 3.00	133 5.86 (0.85) 6.00	$z = 7.833, p < .001$
Pepsi	<i>N</i> <i>M (SD)</i> <i>Mdn</i>	46 3.15 (0.82) 3.33	107 5.90 (0.93) 6.00	$z = 9.836, p < .001$

Note: M = mean, SD = standard deviation, Mdn = median; N = number of observations

Test statistics posits that both familiarity groups significantly differ in their familiarity level about target brands. Nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test is used due to non-normally distributed data.

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