Brand Positioning Strategies

An Experimental Test of Two Types of Benefit Differentiation

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine associative- and instrumental benefit differentiation based on secondary associations as part of brand positioning. The field of brand positioning has been subject to extensive research, however, differentiation based on secondary associations and differences between instrumental- and associative benefit differentiation has received less attention. Instrumental benefit differentiation relates to benefits that are linked directly to product performance, while associative benefit differentiation relates to indirect benefits that evoke associations of consumption contexts, feelings, and emotions. We look at how the differentiation strategies vary in effectiveness with regard to creating positive brand attitude and their ability to generate benefit associations.

We conducted a classical experiment on a convenience sample (N = 294) by utilizing six questionnaires to collect our data. Our research reveals that associative- and instrumental benefit differentiation does not differ in their positive effect on brand attitude, and that the associative strategy generates more benefit associations than the instrumental strategy. The results thus contradict the fundamental view of unique selling propositions and imply that brands could successfully acheive positive brand attitude with both differentiation strategies. Further, an associative benefit differentiation strategy should lead to a richer, more positive, and more sustainable network of associations. We failed to detect that the number of benefit associations positively mediates the effect of differentiation strategy on brand attitude. This could imply that one exposure is not sufficient in order to reveal such a relationship.

Preface

This master thesis is written in the final year of our Masters Degree in Economics and Business Administration at The Norwegian School of Economics (NHH). We specialize in the field of Marketing and Brand Management, and the topic of this thesis is Brand Positioning Strategies. The thesis was written during the fall of 2012.

Our thesis is based on the work of Hanne Henriksen (n.d.), and we wish to thank her for valuable insights. Hanne Henriksen has contributed greatly by passing on knowledge obtained through her own thesis.

We would also like to thank our supervisor, Professor Magne Supphellen, for valuable input and feedback throughout the process. Magne Supphellen was of great help in choosing our research topic, and was a source of inspiration in writing this thesis.

We believe that our interest for the topic and hard work, along with the input from Hanne Henriksen and Magne Supphellen, has contributed to make this an interesting and exciting thesis. We hope readers will feel the same way.

Finally, we would like to emphasize that the views and opinions expressed in this thesis are those of the authors and we take full responsibility for any errors made throughout the process of writing this thesis.

Bergen, December, 2012

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background for Choice of Topic

Brand positioning is a topic subject to extensive research, and has become more important in today's society as many industries are characterized by fierce competition. In order to achieve financial success brands need to fulfill customer needs, positively differentiate from competition, and be salient in the marketplace. Brand positioning allows brands to fulfill these criteria. Recent theory suggests that brands could position themselves based on secondary benefit associations.

We examine recent theory on brand positioning, namely differentiation based on secondary benefit assocations. In this thesis we distinguish between differentiation on an emotional and rational appeal, which we respectively call associative- and instrumental benefit differentiation. By examining these positioning strategies we wish to provide marketers with insights as to how the strategies could provide value to the brand. Many brands pursue one of these positioning strategies, and we therefore wanted to examine which of the strategies are more likely to evoke positive brand attitudes and benefit associations.

1.2 Thesis Structure

This thesis is divided into 5 chapters. In Chapter 1 we provide an introduction to our thesis, and present the background for choice of topic and the outline of the thesis.

In chapter 2, we present relevant theories on brand positioning and related constructs. These theories lead to hypoteses that aim to clarify or examine existing theories. Chapter 3 is a presentation of the methodology of our thesis and contains research approach, research design, research stratregy, data and data collection, questionnaire design, and operationalization. In the methodology chapter we discuss our choice of method.

Chapter 4 entails a presentation and analysis of our collected data. In this chapter, we also discuss our findings. The final chapter, chapter 5, is a general discussion of our study and contains theoretical and managerial implications as well as limitations and future research proposals.

2. Theory

2.1 Brand Positioning

"A product is something that is made in a factory; a brand is something that is bought by a customer. A product can be copied by a competitor; a brand is unique. A product can be quickly outdated; a successful brand is timeless." (Aaker, 1991, p.1).

Keller defines brand positioning as "the act of designing the company's offer and image so that it occupies a distinct and valued place in the target customers' minds." (2008, p.98). According to Keller (2008), brand positioning clarifies what a brand is all about, how it is unique and how it is similar to competitors. The aim of brand positioning is thus to explain why consumers should purchase and use a brand's products.

A main objective in positioning a brand is to achieve active and loyal customers, which in turn would allow brands to charge price-premiums and obtain more effective marketing programs (Keller, 2001). Keller (2008) presents the customer-based brand equity model (hereafter CBBE), which is a representation of how one could achieve such a relationship.

Figure 1: CBBE-Model - Keller, 2001
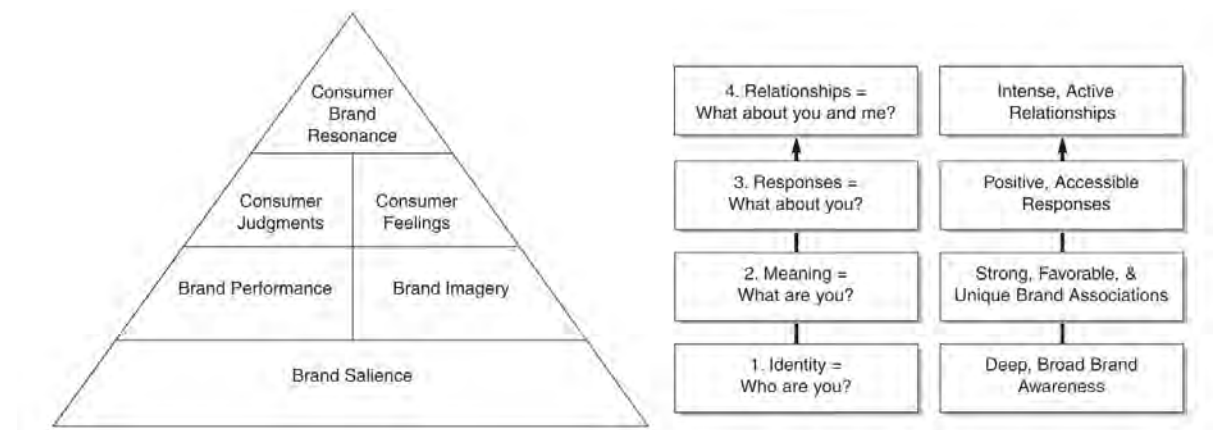
CBBE is defined as "...the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand." (Keller, 1993, p.1). CBBE is the variation in outcome when marketing products and services are under a brand name versus without the brand name, and would thus be the value that a brand name possesses. Hence, brand positioning is about creating brand name value.

A main aspect in creating brand name value is brand knowledge, which can be conceptualized as a brand node in memory to which associations are linked (Keller, 1993). Brand knowledge is not facts about the brand, but all the thoughts, feelings, perceptions, images, experiences et cetera, that links to the brand node in the minds of the consumers in the form of associations (Keller, 2009).

Figure 2: Associative Network - Henderson, Iacobucci, and Calder, 1998
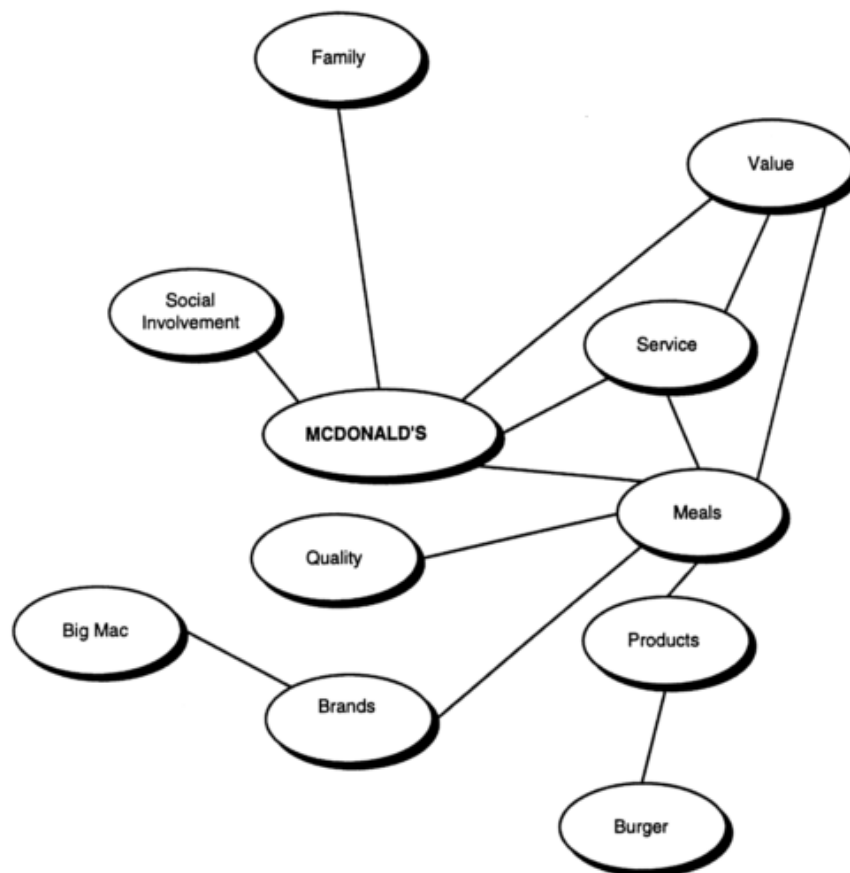
Associations can be explained through network associative models (figure 2) that display memory as a set of concepts (nodes) that are linked together through paths of associations in a netlike structure (Matlin, 2009). When a node is activated in the network it will spread to the nodes with which it is connected, so called spreading activation (Matlin, 2009). Activation in memory will spread through the associative network along paths from original sources to associated concepts (Anderson, 1983). The ability to make associated concepts active depends on the strength of the link toward the source of activation (Anderson, 1983). Activation measures the likelihood that a particular piece of knowledge will be useful at a specific moment, meaning that the knowledge we associate with what we are processing is likely to be relevant to the processing (Anderson, 1983). For a brand this implies that consumers activate associations that they find relevant to the decision making process.

Professor Mange Supphellen (n.d.) has developed the Strategic, Tactic, and Associative Network (hereafter STAN) model that emphasizes the importance of brand associations in positioning strategy.

Figure 3: STAN - Supphellen, n.d.

THE BRAND

Primary
associations
(important drivers)

Secondary
associations
(differentiating factors)
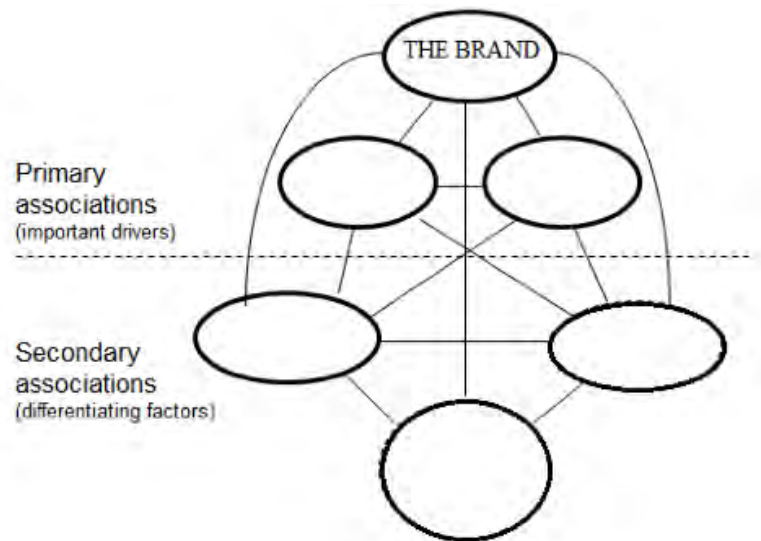
The STAN model distinguishes primarily between tactical and strategic positioning, where tactical is a short-term positioning strategy and strategic positioning is a brand's long-term positioning strategy that is supposed to last throughout a brand's lifetime (Supphellen, n.d.).

A brand's tactical and strategical positioning strategy is made up by primary and secondary associations (Supphellen, n.d.). Primary associations are the first associations that come to mind when thinking about a specific brand, and will thus be the first to be activated when provided with the brand as a cue. These associations are usually shared by brands within a product category. Brands may have primary associations that have their own knowledge structure in the minds of the consumers (Keller, 2008). Since the primary associations have links to other associations, consumers might infer that some of the associations that characterize the primary associations are also true for the brand (Keller, 2008). These associations are called secondary brand associations and are unique for the brand, as illustrated in figure 4.

Figure 4: Brand positioning example - Hem, 2012
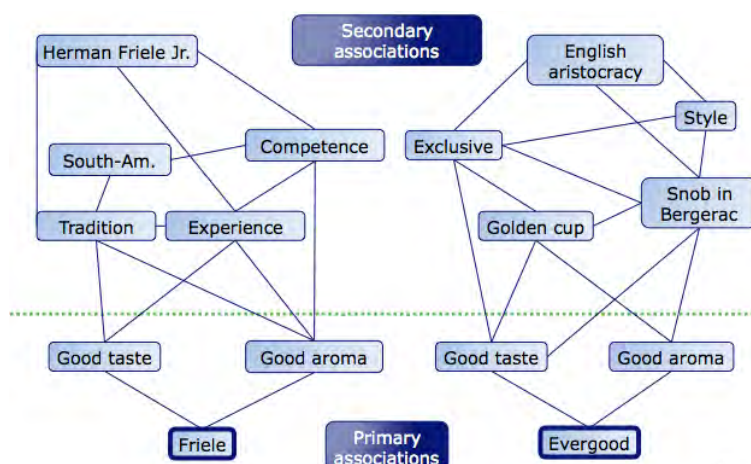
Figure 4 illustrates that the brands Friele and Evergood share primary associations, and that the secondary associations distinguish the brands from each other. Supphellen (n.d.) argues that the secondary associations should be drivers for choice, communicated together, and have a neutral relationship. We can see from figure 4 that both Friele's and Evergood's secondary associations have a seemingly neutral relationship which allows them to be communicated together, and that they are compelling drivers for choice (cf. comepetence, exclusive).

Keller (1993) argues that CBBE occurs when consumers are familiar with, and hold some favorable, strong, and unique associations toward the brand. According to Supphellen (n.d.) brands should pursue secondary associations that are already established in a consumer's memory in order to communicate the brand's points of difference and parities, as this focus on recall. Supphellen (n.d.) also argues that in order for a brand to grow they should establish new associations that could be linked to the brand. By creating new associations a brand could for instance be linked to new consumption contexts that have the ability to facilitate growth. Successful brand positioning is thus the creation of brand associations that are valued by consumers, differentiates the brand from competitors, and leads the brand to obtain active and loyal customers (Keller, 2008; Carpenter, Glazer & Nakamoto, 1994; Aaker 1991). It would therefore make sense to take a closer look at different types of brand associations.

2.2 Associations

Brand associations can, according to Keller (1993), take different forms based on their level of abstraction. They can further be classified into three major categories of increasing scope based on how much information is summarized or subsumed in them. These categories are attributes, benefits, and attitudes, which can further be divided into subcategories (Keller, 1993). In order to understand which associations a consumer might link to a brand we take a closer look at the different categories.

2.2.1 Attributes

Keller (1993) defines attributes as descriptive features that characterize a product or service. Attributes include the consumers' thoughts about what the product or service is or has and what is involved in the purchase or consumption situation (Keller, 1993). Keller divides attribute associations into product-related attributes and non-product-related attributes.

Product-related attributes are, according to Keller (1993), necessary ingredients for the product or service to satisfy the consumers' needs. The product-related attributes relate to the product's physical characteristics or a service's requirements (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993).

According to Keller (1993) non-product-related attributes are aspects of the service or product that relate to its purchase or consumption. There are four main types of non-product-related attributes, namely (1) price information, (2) packaging or product appearance information, (3) user imagery, and (4) usage imagery (Keller, 1993).

2.2.2 Benefits

Benefits are defined by Keller (1993) as the value consumers attach to attributes, or which needs the consumers think the product or service can fulfill. Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis (1986) divide benefits into three distinct categories: (1) functional, (2) symbolic, and (3) experiential, based on the underlying motivations to which they relate (Keller, 1993).

Keller (1993) argues that the functional benefits are the more intrinsic advantages related to the consumption of the product or service. The functional benefits often correspond to product-related attributes and are often concerned with basic motivations like safety needs and problem avoidance (Keller, 1993).

Experiential benefits relate to the sensory experience the consumption of the product or service brings and usually corresponds to product-related attributes (Keller, 1993). The experiential benefits satisfy the experiential needs for sensory pleasure, cognitive stimulation, and variety (Park, Jaworski & MacInnis, 1986).

Symbolic benefits relate to the more extrinsic advantages the consumer achieves by consuming the product or service and relates to symbolic needs like the need for self-enhancement, group membership, or ego-identification (Keller, 1993; Park, Jaworski & MacInnis, 1986). The symbolic benefits usually correspond to non-product-related attributes such as the prestige consumers might associate with a brand (Keller, 1993).

Considering that benefits are the value that consumers attach to attributes, we find it vital for a brand to achieve benefit associations in order to generate drivers for choice among customers. Congruent with Supphellen (n.d.), we argue that brands should pursue a differentiation strategy that emphasizes the creation of secondary benefit associations.

2.2.3 Attitudes

Brand attitudes are the consumers' overall evaluations of brands that express how much they like or dislike the brand in question (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). According to Keller (1993) brand attitudes are important because they can form the basis for the consumers' brand choice. Brand attitudes need to be considered in close connection with brand attributes and benefits as these salient associations, according to multi-attribute models of attitude formation, form the basis of the consumers' attitudes (Keller, 1993).

Attitudes are important aspects of our lives as they have a cognitive, affective, and connative function. In this way attitudes guide our thoughts, influence our feelings, and affect our behavior (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). Considering that brand attitudes are the overall evaluations of the brand, it seems evident that brands should know how attitudes are formed and use this to their advantage. It would therefore make sense to take a closer look at the cognitive and affective formation of attitudes, as well as the importance of attitude strength.

2.3   Attitudes – Cognition, Affect, and Strength

2.3.1 Attitudes Formed Through Cognition

Cognitive based attitudes are likely to be influenced by believable information from external sources or from memory (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). Hoyer and MacInnis (2010) present five models that try to explain how thoughts are related to attitudes when consumers devote a lot of time and resources to process information. The models aim to clarify the cognitive foundations of attitudes and how cogntitive attitudes are formed.

Cognitive attitude formation could be affected by direct or imagined experience. Elaborating on an actual or imaginative experience with a product or service can help consumers form attitudes (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). It is reasonable to assume that you will have a better basis to form an attitude toward a product if you can actually try it, or if you can picture the positive aspects of buying and using it.

Consumers can form cognitive attitudes through comparing products to other products or to a particular product category that one has experience with or knowledge of. Further, individuals shape and generate attitudes based on their own values. Consumers might for instance have positive attitudes toward businesses with good corporate social responsibility programs because they value social responsibility. These consumers could also generate positive attitudes because the firms relate to what the consumers want to be associated with. Social identity could thus generate attitudes. If you are a true fan of the summer Olympics you might form positive attitudes toward Nike considering that they sponsor many of the athletes that participates. By supporting Nike you will be able to express your social identity. The last model of cognitive attitude formation is when consumers form their attitudes through cognitive responses to com-

munication. The cognitive responses will be the thoughts that a consumer has when exposed to communication and can take the form of recognition, evaluation, associations, images, or ideas. It seems evident that attitudes will occur when you are exposed to stimuli. If you see a picture in an advertisement you might think that it is a pretty or horrible photograph, which in turn will affect your attitude toward that advertisement (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010).

2.3.2 Attitudes Formed Through Affect

Consumers may exercise a lot of mental energy in processing a message on an emotional basis, and emotional reactions, independent of cognitive structure, may be powerful in creating attitudes that are favorable, enduring, and resilient to change (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). Hoyer and MacInnis (2010) present how attitudes can be changed through consumers' feelings when they are motivated, have the ability and opportunity, and processing effort is high. When consumers are emotionally involved in a message, they usually process it on a more general level rather than analytically. By doing so consumers are able to generate images or feelings rather than cognitive responses. These images or feelings, called affective responses, are generally more influential than cognitive responses in shaping attitudes that facilitate trial.

According to Hoyer and MacInnis (2010), affective attitudes will be based on either the source or message of marketing stimuli. The source of the stimuli could be a person that is attractive or famous, or someone the consumers can identify with. These sources could lead to positive attitudes. However, the message in stimuli can lead to affective attitudes by creating positive or negative emotions. By exposing consumers to stimuli one can play on affect and fear. Affective stimuli evoke feelings such as love, happiness, hope, regret or shame, whereas fear underlines the negative consequences that could occur by not using the product. Fear could be used in commercials for wrinkle cream, where one could underline that consumers might become wrinkled if they do not use such products. We can thus see that the source and message in marketing stimuli could facilitate affective based attitudes.

2.3.3 Attitude Strength

Krosnick and Petty (1995) define attitude strength as the degree to which the attitude possesses four distinguishing features: (1) they are persistent over time, (2) are resistant to change, (3) have strong impact on information processing, and (4) have strong impact on behavior. According to Petty, Haugtvedt, and Smith (1995) the amount of cognitive elaboration affects attitude strength. The more a person elaborates on the attitude object, the stronger the attitude will be.

By creating secondary associations you extend the associative network of the brand by linking the brand to new concepts. As cognitive elaboration relates to the number of associate pathways in memory (Kiselius & Sternthal, 1984), the inclusion of secondary associations will thus lead to higher levels of elaboration.

The higher levels of elaboration you gain by creating new links to the brand in the associative network support Supphellen's (n.d.) argument for why you should differentiate based on secondary associations. Hence, differentiation based on secondary associations should generate more associations in a consumer's memory and create stronger attitudes compared to products that are not differentiated based on secondary associations.

2.4 Meaningless versus Meaningful Differentiation

We have seen that differentiation should be based on a brand's secondary associations. Further, theory shows that brands should differentiate by offering benefits and attributes that form attitudes, and that consumer attitudes are crucial for a brand as these form the overall evaluation of the brand (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). Keller (2008) argues that successful brand positioning occurs when consumers are familiar with the brand and hold strong, favorable, and unique associations toward the brand. He further argues that a key determinant of a favorable association is that it is very important for brand choice, and that the attributes the associations are held toward should be meaningful (Keller, 1993). However, some researchers dispute the argument that the attributes must be meaningful and suggests that brands also could differentiate through meaningless secondary associations.

Keller (2008) argues that a positioning strategy should consist of unique and meaningful points of difference, for instance a meaningful attribute. Unique associations are attributes or benefits that consumers believe they cannot find to the same extent with a competing brand; hence unique associations give consumers a persuasive reason to buy the brand (Keller, 2008). Meaningful attributes are attributes that can be easily linked to performance or outcome of the product / service use and will thus serve as benefits. Examples could be televisions with SMART-TV functions or Doro cell phones with large buttons that have distinct benefits that can be easily linked to product performance.

Ballantyne, Warren, and Nobs (2006) suggest that consumers make decisions based on relevant attributes for the purpose of consumption and that the attributes that are rated as having the highest perceived importance receives greater weight in choice. In so, a brand should look to differentiate on attributes that are relevant for choice, as these receive greater weight. Keller (1993) defines favorable associations as associations that are formed when consumers believe the brand has attributes and benefits that satisfy their needs and wants. A key determinant of a favorable association is that it is very important for brand choice (Keller, 1993). Hence, Keller (1993) emphasizes the importance of meaningful differentiation, which can be linked to performance of product or service use, in building brand equity.

Carpenter, Glazer, and Nakamoto (1994) on the other hand, refer to several companies that have pursued successful differentiation based on meaningless attributes. They give examples of shampoo brands that put silk in their products in order to suggest that a user's hair will be

silky, although the ingredient has no such effect. Another example is Procter & Gamble who communicate that one of their instant coffee brands contains "flaked coffee crystals", which is irrelevant for taste in the product category as the coffee dissolves in water. Meaningless differentiation thus occurs on attributes that appear to be valuable, but is in fact irrelevant for the implied benefit (Carpenter, Glazer & Nakamoto, 1994).

Carpenter, Glazer, and Nakamoto (1994) argue that irrelevant and meaningless attributes can change the structure of the decision that consumers face, especially when the attribute is difficult to evaluate. This could in turn lead consumers to infer the attribute's value and in some cases infer that it is valuable. Carpenter, Glazer, and Nakamoto (1994) found that consumers in a number of situations value meaningless differentiation. They discovered that the meaningless differentiated brand was valued when the price is higher than that of other brands, and that an increased price could actually enhance preference. An important aspect of their study is that meaningless differentiation increases preference even if the consumers acknowledge that the attribute subject to differentiation is meaningless.

The benefit associated with an irrelevant attribute in meaningless differentiation is often suggested in advertising by the marketing brand. Consumers have a tendency to confirm the value of the irrelevant attribute after experience, hence trial confirms the value of the irrelevant attribute (Carpenter, Glazer & Nakamoto, 1994). Consumers experience a focus on the pragmatic when exposed to irrelevant attributes. This would in turn lead to a thought process where consumers try to explain to themselves why the attribute is highlighted by the advertisers. An irrelevant attribute can thus become relevant as it conveys pragmatic information (Carpenter, Glazer & Nakamoto, 1994).

A unique irrelevant attribute could lead consumers to infer that the irrelevant attribute causes the product to perform better (Carpenter, Glazer & Nakamoto, 1994). Keller (1993; 2003; 2008) argues that salience is the first step of building brand equity. Carpenter, Glazer, and Nakamoto (1994) argue that irrelevant attributes are likely to make a brand more salient than competing brands because it is unique. Further, the information on the irrelevant attribute is novel, and greater weight is given to novel information, which in turn would make the product / brand different and more salient (Carpenter, Glazer & Nakamoto, 1994).

Broniarczyk and Gershoff (1997) tested the effects of meaningless differentiation in a high involvement setting. The authors argue that in a choice context where consumers are presented with information regarding price, product quality, and other alternatives, the effectiveness of meaningless differentiation is more likely to be influenced. Broniarczyk and Gershoff (1997) suggest that the study by Carpenter, Glazer, and Nakamoto (1994) has some flaws and propose that meaningless differentiation could lead to alternative preference only under certain circumstances. They argue that meaningless differentiation has the strongest effect on consumer

preference when there is no meaningful differentiation between the available alternatives (Broniarczyk & Gershoff, 1997). Further, Broniarczyk and Gershoff (1997) found that uniqueness alone did not lead to a positive evaluation of a meaninglessly differentiated brand. The authors found that when respondents were aware of the irrelevance of the meaninglessly differentiated attribute and understood its meaning, meaningless differentiation had no effect on consumer preference. Hence, if consumers understand that an attribute is meaningless, meaningless differentiation will have no effect.

The study by Broniarczyk and Gershoff (1997) shows that meaningless differentiation is only meaningful when subjects are forced to choose between alternatives that are equal on all aspects, except the irrelevant attribute. Meaningless differentiation could thus only be applicable when there is no differentiation between alternatives. Meaningless differentiation cannot overcome differentiation based on relevant attributes if consumers are aware that the meaningless differentiation is based on irrelevant attributes.

Irrelevant and meaningless differentiation could potentially lead to favorable evaluation among consumers when there is no differentiation between alternatives. Theory suggests that consumers will infer that the irrelevant attribute is valuable in some contexts, and that the irrelevant attribute in the right settings makes the brand more salient. A unique, distinguished, but irrelevant attribute can become relevant in a consumer's decision-making process and thus create a meaningfully differentiated brand according to Carpenter, Glazer, and Nakamoto (1994). However, theorists argue that meaningful attributes receive greater attention as these are more related to consumption outcome (Ballantyne, Warren & Nobs, 2006).

An important implication for the meaningful versus meaningless differentiation discussion is when the different kinds are applicable. As evaluations of products and brands are seemingly context specific there is reason to believe that the ways of differentiation should differ in effectiveness accordingly. Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) propose a framework in which consumers evaluate advertisement through affect, cognition, or experience.

Figure 5: EAC Space - Vakratsas and Ambler, 1999
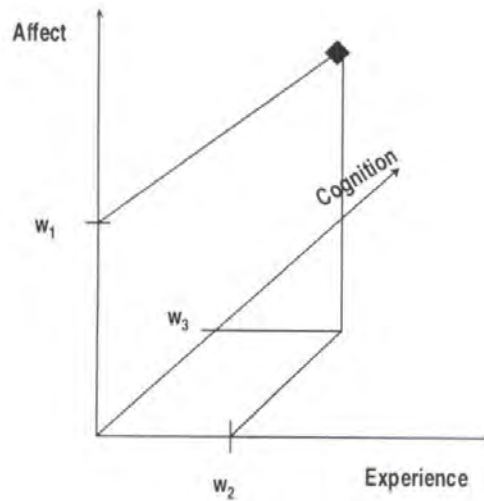
Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) suggest that these factors will affect the consumer's decisions based on context. They further argue that low-involvement consumer decisions are influenced by habit and affect. Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) believe that advertising in low-involvement consumer decisions reinforces behavior rather than cause it, and that affect and brand preference is caused by trial and experience. Meaningless differentiation could thus make sense in a low-involvement context, as consumers have a tendency to confirm the value of an irrelevant attribute after consumption. However, this should be somewhat restricted as it does not trigger behavior to a large extent and there cannot be any differentiation between alternatives for meaningful differentiation to have any effect (Broniarczyk and Gershoff, 1997; Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999).

It is reasonable to assume that in a long-term perspective most consumers will become highly involved and motivated to evaluate messages conveyed by brands. If consumers are to become loyal to a brand we believe that they must consider and evaluate the products to a greater extent, hence leading them to a high involvement situation, although an initial trial may be facilitated under low-involvement. Meaningless differentiation would thus appear to be a short-term strategy that could only be applied when there is no meaningful differentiation between alternatives (Broniarczyk & Gershoff, 1997). However, this situation is unlikely to occur in real life. It thus seems appropriate for brands to pursue a meaningful differentiation strategy as this has a long-term perspective and is more applicable to real-life situations. We therefore argue that brands should pursue meaningful differentiation on benefits that are relevant to consumption outcomes in order to achieve active and loyal customers. Hence, we want to take a closer look at how brands could pursue meaningful differentiation through instrumental or associative benefits.

2.5   Instrumental and Associative Benefit Differentiation

We have seen that differentiation should be meaningful and based on benefits, which is the need consumers believe the product or service can fulfill. The perception of the benefit will thus be the value that consumers attach to the attributes offered in a brand's differentiation (Keller, 1993). We divide benefits into two categories, namely instrumental benefits and associative benefits.

The Oxford Dictionairy (2012) defines instrumental as "… contributing to the accomplishment of a purpose or result", meaning that instrumental benefit differentiation occurs when a brand highlights benefits that are linked to product performance. According to Gutman's (1982) means-end theory, consumers organize their thinking about product alternatives hierarchiacly and create matrices of products that are instrumental in helping them achieve needs. Gutman (1982) argues that consumers choose actions that lead to desired consequences and minimize undesired outcomes. He further states that consumers need to learn which attributes produce the preferred consequences in order to make a choice, and that products are selected on the basis of how attributes can help to achieve the desired consequences.

Instrumental benefit differentiation seems to be in line with the means-end chain model by Gutman (1982) as instrumental benefit differentiation gives concrete attribute benefits that are directly linked to consequences and could therefore be structured hierarchiacly. Further, instrumental benefit differentiation is in line with the concept of unique selling propositions. Reeves (1970) explains the concept of unique selling propositions through a three part definition: (1) a company must provide specific benefits that are compelling reasons for purchase, (2) competitors cannot match it, it needs to be unique, and (3) the value proposition must be so strong that it can attract new customers. Instrumental benefit differentiation will provide specific benefits that will be compelling reasons for purchase as they are directly linked to consequences. Through these characteristics, instrumental benefit differentiation is consistent with means-end chain theory and the concept of unique selling propositions.

Associative benefit differentiation occurs when a brand highlights indirect benefits in order to evoke associations of consumption contexts, familiar situations, feelings and emotions. We can thus see that instrumental benefit differentiation pertains to the cognitive thought process where consumers group products and brands by their attributes and which consequences they bring, whereas associative benefit differentiation relies on affective processes. Associative benefit differentiation provides benefits that are indirectly linked to the actual consumption outcome. A brand could for instance highlight a consumption context in order to evoke self-relevant memories from similar situations among consumers. Associative benefit differentiation could thus lead consumers to envisage using a product and in so, associative benefit differentiation conflicts with means-end theory and the concept of unique selling propositions by not offering tangible benefits directly linked to consumption outcome.

In positioning theory it is argued that one should establish a frame of reference (Keller, 2008). A frame of reference can be communicated by linking the brand to a product category, where the target market and nature of competition can be implied. Gutman (1982) refers to a categorization of brands through semantic properties, where consumers structure brands hierarchically as belonging to distinct categories (frame of reference). Coffee brands might for instance be categorized in subgroups of instant coffee, coffee beans, and ground coffee. Considering that the categorization occurs on semantic properties, rather than the consumer's evaluation, most people agree on the categorization of a specific brand.

Instrumental benefit differentiation communicates benefits that should be easier to categorize hierarchicaly as belonging to distinct product categories. This strategy communicates tangible product benefits, whereas associative benefit differentiation communicates more abstract concepts such as feelings and emotions. As individuals are better at evoking mental images when the concepts are concrete rather than abstract (Cornoldi & McDaniel, 1991), categorization should be easier for instrumental benefit differentiation as this emphasizes semantic product properties, rather than abstract feelings and emotions. This however, is disputed among researchers. Meyers-Levy and Tybout (1989) argue that when consumers experience moderate incongruence in evaluating if a brand belongs to a distinct product category, the brand is more positively evaluated as the process of resolving the incongruity is thought to be rewarding. We can thus see that associative benefit differentiation with a more abstract focus could lead to favorable responses toward the brand, as it is more difficult to organize hierarchicaly. Keller (2008) argues that positioning should be based on points of difference, and that these differences could be instrumental as well as associative. Researchers believe that one could pursue both differentiation strategies in order to achieve CBBE (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 2008), and that brands do not have to be structured hierarchicaly in the mind of the consumer.

Keller, Sternthal, and Tybout (2002) argue that a unique selling proposition could be hard to maintain as a point of difference as competitors could easily copy it. An example could be FedEx differentiating on overnight delivery, which over time became a benefit offered by multiple competitors. Hence, it became a point of parity. Hindle (2008) provides examples of firms in competitive industries that have no distinct performance benefits compared to competing brands. These brands differentiate based on emotional or associative benefits. An example could be the watch brand Breitling. High quality watch brands have seemingly similar performance benefits, but differentiates on associative benefits. Breitling emphasizes associative benefits such as distinct contexts for use and associated feelings, which form their basis for differentiation. We thus argue that in some industries instrumental benefit differentiation that focuses on performance benefits is a pre-requisit, but not sufficient to create CBBE.

Theorists argue that cognition and affect are not independent in their effect on attitude and behavior (Cohen & Chakravarti, 1990). Researchers generally believe that the influence of affect

on attiude is mediated by cognitive structures. However, some researchers have also suggested that affect can have a direct independendt influence on attitudes (Najmi, Atefi & Mirbagheri, 2012). Bodur, Brinberg, and Coupey (2000) found that affect influences both cognition and the direct formation of attitudes as illustrated in figure 6.

Figure 6: Affect and attitude formation - Bodur, Brinberg, and Coupey 2000
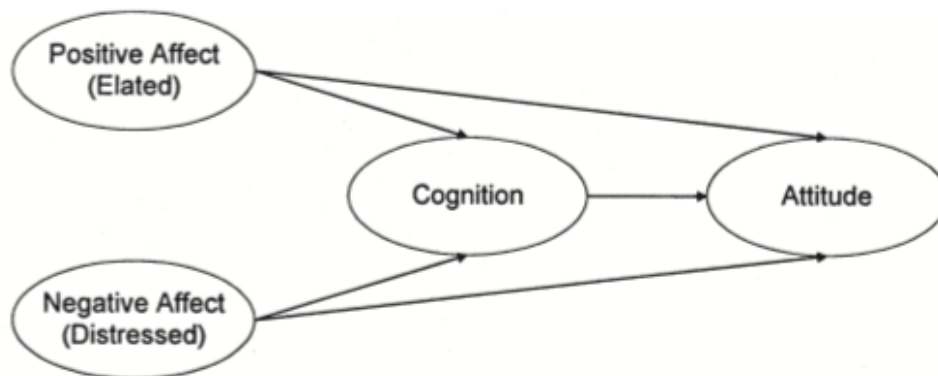
From Figure 6 we can see that affect influences cognition. It therefore seems as if instrumental benefit differentiation is also influenced by affect. We can see that positive and negative affect can influence attitudes through cognition, and both positive and negative affects facilitates the formation of attitudes directly (Najmi, Atefi & Mirbagheri, 2012). Some negative affects, such as fear, may lead to a positive attitude toward the brand (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010; Najmi, Atefi & Mirbagheri, 2012).

In sum, the effect of cognition and affect could have direct impact with regard to which type of differentiaton a brand should pursue. The focus on affect in associative benefit differentiation contradicts the fundamental view of unique selling proposition that a brand should provide consumers with a compelling reason to purchase the product, as competitors cannot match it (Reeves, 1970). However, Keller (2008) and Aaker (1991) supports associative benefit differentiation as a positioning strategy.

2.6 Hypothesis

We have seen that the fundamental view of brand positioning is that a brand should pursue instrumental benefit differentiation. This should have a positive effect on brand attitude as it provides consumers with a compelling reason to purchase. Researchers have also revealed that affect can have both a direct and indirect effect on brand attitude, which in turn should lead an associative benefit differentiation strategy to be effective in generating positive attitudes. Both Keller (2008) and Aaker (1991) believe that a brand could pursue differentiation based on associative benefits. We therefore wish to examine whether or not the fundamental view of instrumental benefit differentiation is more effective than associative benefit differentiation,

hence we posit the following hypothesis:

H1: Instrumental benefit differentiation has a more positive effect on brand attitude than associative benefit differentiation.

2.7   Generation of Benefit Associations

We have seen that brands should differentiate based on secondary associations, and that they can pursue instrumental benefit differentiation or associative benefit differentiation. It would therefore be interesting to see if the differentiation strategies vary in their ability to generate benefit associations. Firstly we will take a look at why brands should generate benefit associations and how this could be done, before we compare the generation abilities of the two differentiation strategies.

2.7.1 Why and How

It is known that a well-positioned brand will have a competitively attractive position supported by strong associations (Aaker, 1991). A brand's meaning is formed through the associations that consumers hold toward the brand and these associations form the basis for purchase decisions and brand loyalty (Aaker, 1991). The brand associations create value to the firm by helping customers retrieve and process information, differentiates the brand, creates attitudes and feelings, while generating reasons to buy and providing a basis for brand extensions. Associations play a vital role in separating one brand from another (Aaker, 1991). Petty, Haugtvedt, and Smith (1995) states that the more knowledge associated with an object, the more resistant the object would be to change. It thus seems evident that a brand should differentiate in order to generate benefit associations toward their brand.

We have seen that brands may have primary associations that have their own knowledge structure in the minds of the consumers (Keller, 2008). Since the primary associations have links to other associations, consumers might infer that some of the associations that characterize the primary associations are also true for the brand (Keller, 2008). Differentiation based on secondary benefit associations thus makes sense in order to obtain more associations through a potential transfer effect as illustrated in figure 7. For instance, by linking a car brand to an endorser some of the traits of the endorser might transfer to the brand.

Figure 7: Understanding Transfer of Brand Associations - Keller, 2008
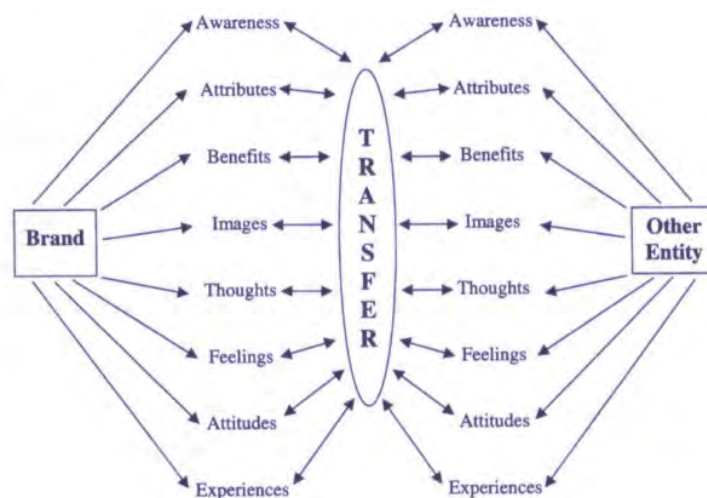
Figure 7 illustrates the associations' potential transfer effect. The model describes the way in which a brand "lends" brand knowledge and potentially brand equity from the connected primary association (Keller, 2008). Brands create these secondary associations in order to connect new associations to the brand node in the consumers' memory. Another objective is also to strengthen or remove already existing primary associations (Keller, 2008). The extent to which secondary associations transfer to the brand is dependent on three factors: (1) the secondary association must have its own knowledge structure in consumers' minds, (2) the associations held toward the secondary association must be meaningful for the brand, and (3) the associations must be transferable to the brand (Keller, 2008).

2.7.2 Generation Ability

In order to examine how secondary associations could transfer to a brand, and the differentiation strategies ability to generate benefit associations, we would have to take a closer look at sources that generates associations and cognitive psychology.

"Cognitive psychology is the study of how people perceive, learn, remember, and think about information." (Sternberg & Mio, 2009, p.2). For a brand to affect consumers' associations they must be exposed to marketing stimulus from that brand (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). Marketing stimulus entails any contact with the brand and includes both actively communicated aspects from marketing and non-marketing sources such as word of mouth and media (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010).

In general, the number of associations that a consumer can produce from memory is dependent on cognitive elaboration. High elaboration would be the consumer's ability of transferring information from long-term memory into the working memory (Bums, Biswas & Babin, 1993). Tapping into the long-term memory is likely to lead to communication effectiveness as this

could generate associations that the brand does not possess at the present (Bums, Biswas & Babin, 1993).

A large part of human behavior is activated by voices, sounds, odors, experiences, and visual and verbal material (Denis, Engelkamp & Richardson, 1988). Specific elements of the marketing mix can work with consumers' prior knowledge and affect inferences made about an offering (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). An important marketing implication is that the presentation of one stimulus can alter the perception and interpretation of a second target stimulus (Schmitt, 1994), meaning that secondary benefit associations in an advertisement could possibly alter the perception and interpretation of the brand.

Pictures could be used in advertising in order to create associatons. Equivalent pictures and text enhances the memorability and persuasiveness of a message as pictures induce additional elaboration and enables the consumer to use multiple routes for memory retrieval (Malaviya, Kisielius & Sternthal, 1996). Further, the use of picture or picture/text combinations in advertisements exercise a stronger influence on consumer attitudes and are remembered better than words alone (Schmitt, 1994). It has been argued that consumers attend to the pictures in advertisements first, and use them as organizers in interpretation of the verbal information (Schmitt, 1994). Researchers claims that if pictures are equivalent to the verbal content they are superiorly recalled compared to pictures that are not equivalent or solely verbal messages (Houston, Childers & Heckler, 1987). We can thus see that the use of pictures in differentiation based on secondary benefit associations should lead to more associations due to higher elaboration and enhanced recall.

Considering that associative benefit differentiation uses emotional appeals and focuses on intangible aspects of the products such as user imagery, usage imagery, and brand personality (Najmi, Atefi & Mirbagheri, 2012), this type of differentiation emphasize imagery. Imagery can lead individuals to visualize the product and related consumption situations (MacInnis & Price, 1987). This effect could be leveraged through the use of pictures, as they have the ability to generate mental imagery to a larger extent than verbal constructs (Schmitt, 1994).

Marks (1973) found that people who report vivid visual imagery from a visual image were more accurate in recall than subjects who reported poor visual imagery. Based on this we can see that images can lead to vivid visual imagery, and potentially enhance recall. Highly imaginable communications, such as those relying on pictorial information, should exhibit higher degrees of learning than communications characterized by a low level of imagery, such as those presenting verbal information (Kisielius, 1982). It thus seems evident that pictures enhance a consumer's ability of high elaboration and generation of associations than if there is no such stimuli present in the marketing communications. Matlin (2009) argues that processing that pertains self-relevance leads to a generation of more associations than any other processing

method. Mental images is assumed to be personally relevant to consumers as they are anchored in the person's experience base and generated by the mental process (Bums, Biswas & Babin, 1993). The use of pictures could thus evoke mental imagery and be self-relevant.

In general, we can see that if a brand pursues differentiation based on secondary benefit associations that are meaningful, transferable and has their own knowledge structures, this should generate associations to the brand node in the consumer's memory. Further, the use of images in marketing communications in order to leverage these secondary benefit associations makes cognitive elaboration more likely.

Matlin (2009) argues that consumers can hold only a limited number of items in their short-term memory, it would therefore be reasonable to look at the different differentiation strategies' ability to evoke cognitive elaboration. More precisely we wish to take a look at consumers' ability to retrieve information that is stored in the long-term memory under the different strategies.

In general, consumers achieve a deeper level of processing when they extract more meaning from a stimulus (Matlin, 2009). Cognitive elaboration will then be a deep level of processing that recquires rich processing of meaning and interconnected concepts (Matlin, 2009). Associative benefit differentiation emphasize user imagery, usage imagery, and brand personality, which we assume could trigger personal relevance to a larger extent than instrumental benefit differentiation that emphasizes the factual level of performance benefits. Matlin (2009) argues that self-reference should lead to retrieval of significantly more associations than through semantic processes where one processes knowledge about words and factual information. Self-reference in associative benefit differentiation should therefore lead to more cognitive elaboration than instrumental benefit differentiation. We assume that self-reference may be linked to product category and stimuli. Hence, consumers that do not find the category relevant may experience self-relevance due to a given stimuli. The product category cars might not be relevant to a consumer, but could become relevant through the use of an endorser in advertisement.

Individuals are better at evoking mental images when the concepts are concrete rather than abstract (Cornoldi & McDaniel, 1991). For instance, the word *giraffe* is more likely to evoke mental images than the word *fact*. The appearance of a specific performance benefit should thus make instrumental benefit differentiation more able to lead to mental imagery than the abstract concept given in an associative benefit differentiation strategy.

Meyers-Levy and Tybout (1989) argue that moderate schema incongruity is likely to lead to deeper processing. Based on this we can see that associative benefit differentiation with a more abstract focus could lead to more cognitive elaboration than instrumental benefit differentiation, as it is more difficult to organize hierarchiacly.

When consumers process messages emotionally and independent of cognitive structure, their

attitudes are more likely to be favorable, enduring, and resilient to change (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). Associative benefit differentiation that emphasizes retrieval of emotions and self-reference should therefore be more likely to evoke associations that are favorable, hence benefit associations. We believe that the effect of emotions combined with self-relevance in associative benefit differentiation will generate more benefit associations than mental imagery to the concrete concepts in instrumental benefit differentiation. However, we have seen that cognition is influenced by affect and that this therefore could lead both differentiation strategies to produce a lage number of benefit associations.

2.8 Hypotheses

We have seen that a brand should pursue differentiation based on secondary benefit associations as associations contain the brand meaning for the consumers. If a brand possess strong, favorable, and unique associations, consumers are more likely to retrieve these associations from memory and use them in decision-making.

Considering that the differentiation strategies use different appeals, emotional and rational, it is reasonable to assume that they vary in their ability to generate benefit associations. We have seen that associative benefit differentiation is likely to create moderate levels of schema incongruity in addition to being more self-relevant than instrumental benefit differentiation. Although instrumental benefit differentiation use concrete performance benefits that could lead to mental imagery, we believe that higher levels of cognitive elaboration, as a result of self-relevance combined with moderate levels of schema incongruity, should produce more benefit associations for associative benefit differentiation. We therefore posit the following hypothesis:

H2: Associative benefit differentiation generates more benefit associations than instrumental benefit differentiation

2.9 Associations as Mediator of Brand Attitude

The fundamental view of positioning is that a brand should obtain an attractive position that should be supported by secondary associations that are compelling drivers for choice (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 2008; Supphellen, n.d.). Considering that researchers generally agree on the associations' vital importance in differentiation, we wish to examine whether the number of benefit associations the differentiation strategies generates mediates the strategies' effect on brand attitude.

We have seen that brand knowledge is the brand node in memory to which a variety of associations are linked. Considering that brand attitudes are the overall evaluations of the brand, it seems evident that the associations in memory will influence brand attititude. This is congruent with Keller (2008), who states that brand knowledge is the key to achieving active and loyal

customers. For the number of benefit associations to have a mediating effect on brand attitude it is reasonable to assume that they must be a vital part of the brand knowledge. It would then seem meaningful to take a closer look at brand knowledge in order to reveal whether a mediating relationship is likely to occur.

Figure 8 illustrates that brand knowledge consist of brand awareness and brand image. It would thus be interesting to take a closer look at these concepts to see how they affect attitudes, and if they could potentially mediate an associative- or instrumental differentiation strategy's effect on brand attitude.

Figure 8: Brand Knowlede Model - Keller, 1993

2.9.1 Brand Awareness

Brand awareness is related to the strength of the brand node in memory of the consumer (Hem & Iversen, 2004), and is divided into depth and breadth.

Depth entails how easily a consumer will recognize or recall a brand (Keller, 2009). Brand recall is the consumers' ability to recapture the brand when given the product category, the needs fulfilled by the category, or other similar probes as cues (Keller, 1993). Brand recognition relates to the ability to confirm exposure to the brand when given the brand as a cue (Keller, 1993). Nedungadi (1990) argues that brand retrieval (brand recall) plays an important role in consumer choice. If consumers are not physically present, knows what they are looking for, or lack the motivation to consider multiple brands, brands on a recall level will be preferred over those on a less favorable recognition level (Nedungadi, 1990). If a brand is easily recalled from memory, it has more depth than if it is only recognized when given the brand as a cue. The first brands to be recalled in a product category are called top-of-mind.

Breadth refers to how many purchase- and consumption situations in which the brand comes to mind (Keller, 2009). A highly salient brand would thus have both a deep and broad brand awareness which in turn will make sure that consumers think of the brand in a variety of contexts and makes sufficient purchases (Keller, 2009). For a potato chips manufacturer it could be favorable to be associated with salty snacks as well as the category potato chips. This would potentially bring the brand to mind in additional consumption situations than if the manufacturer was solely associated with the product category. Establishing a deep and broad awareness is the key to making the brand salient, and is a vital part of the first building block in establishing an intense and active relation to the customers in the CBBE-model (Keller, 2001).

We can see that the brand awareness is likely to increase in both depth and breadth with the number of benefit associations generated by consumers. The more benefit associations you hold toward the brand the easier it should be to recapture it when provided with cues. Further, the number of benefit associations generated should lead a brand to have more breadth in their awareness. A high number of benefit associations should lead the brand to come to mind in different contexts, while also increasing the chances of being top-of-mind in situations characterized by low motivation. Hence, we can see that the number of benefit associations should have direct implications for brand awareness. Considering that benefit associations focus on the value of attributes or the needs that consumers believe the product / service can fulfill, it is reasonable to believe that benefit associations evoke positive attitudes when coming to mind.

2.9.2 Brand Image

Aaker (1996) explains brand image as how the brand is perceived at the present. Keller (1993) argues that the brand image is perceptions about the brand reflected by the associations held in consumer memory. He further explains brand image as a result of the different types of associations and the strength, favorability, and uniqueness of these associations (Keller, 1993). Theorists seemingly agree that brand image is influenced by a variety of outside sources and communication from the company (Brown et al., 2006; Keller, 1993; Aaker, 1991, 1996). Faircloth, Capella, and Alford (2001) found that brand image has an effect on brand equity, combined with the fact that brand image is influenced by external sources this underlines the importance of managing and monitoring the associations consumers hold toward the brand. It thus seems that if differentiation evokes many benefit associations, they are more likely to form a positive image toward the company.

2.10 Hypothesis

We have seen that the number of benefit associations that consumers are able to generate is likely to lead to a broad and deep brand awareness that could lead to positive brand attitudes and facilitate purchase. Further, we have seen that differentiation that generates benefit associations is likely to lead to a positive brand image that in turn should form favorable brand attitude. We

would therefore like to see if the number of benefit associations generated mediates the differentiation strategies' effect on brand attitude. Hence, we posit the following hypothesis:

H3: The effect of differentiation strategy on brand attitude is mediated by number of benefit associations generated.

3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Methods entail the approaches used to identify the reality and involve "The techniques and procedures used to obtain and analyze research data" (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009, p.595). The methodology chapter is dependent on our research questions and presents the theory of how our research has been undertaken. The choice of methods is done in order to examine our hypotheses. This chapter will include what we have done, why we did it, and associated implications with the choice of method.

3.2 Research Approach

Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) explain two different research approaches, namely inductive and deductive. A deductive approach is when one develops a theory and hypotheses, and designs a research strategy to test the hypotheses (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The nature of our task has led us to use the deductive approach, as we seek to explain causal relationships between variables from quantitative data (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009).

3.3 Research Design

The research design is the general plan of how we will seek to answer our research questions (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) present three types of research designs: exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory. They further argue that a study may have more than one design.

Explanatory studies try to establish causal relationships between variables. In our study one of our hypotheses seeks to explore whether instrumental benefit differentiation has a more positive effect on brand attitude than associative benefit differentiation. We thus try to find causal relationships between our variables, and it would therefore be meaningful to pursue an explanatory research design.

3.4 Research Strategy

Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) argue that no research strategy is superior or inferior to any other; the importance lies with whether the research strategy allows us to answer our research question and meet our objective of explaining the causal relationship between variables. In approaching a research strategy, one could choose between collecting qualitative or quantitative data or a combination of the two (Johannessen, Kristoffersen & Tufte, 2004).

Our research is based on the work of Henriksen (n.d.), and we pursue her existing research strategy and adjust it to include the variables we want to control for. Henriksen (n.d.) chose to avoid

lists of pre-defined associations in order to prevent the exclusion of any product related or non-product-related associations. She further decided to use fictitious advertisements so that pre-existing associations to well-known brands would not affect the research. These measures deal with potential measurement problems, which in turn will make the quantitative approach more dependable. To further distance the product from existing associations to established brands, we convinced the respondents that the advertisements where for new product launches. This allowed us to test the instrumental and associative benefit differentiation withouth any prejudices about the subject brands interfering with our results. In the following section we will further elaborate upon the choice of following the work of Henriksen (n.d.), and how we pursued an experiment design.

3.4.1 Experiment Design

Our research builds on Henriksen's (n.d.) lab experiment. According to Neuman "An experiment can powerfully test and focus evidence about causal relationships" (2011, p.276).

As previously mentioned we wish to explain the causal relationship between variables. An experiment seems like a meaningful approach, as its purpose is to study casual links (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009; Neuman, 2011). Considering that we want to test the effects of two differentiation strategies, we pursue a classical experiment. With a classical experiment two groups are usually established, where respondents are randomly assigned to each group (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The two groups will be similar with regard to all relevant aspects of the research, except the fact that one of the two groups is exposed to intervention or manipulation (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). In Henriksen's (n.d.) research a classical experiment was included in a questionnaire.

Henriksen (n.d.) obtained significant findings in her study with a classical experiment. Considering that her pre-tests revealed that the secondary benefit associations given in the differentiation strategies were perceived as relevant, and that she tested the same differentiation strategies and brand attitude, it seems meaningful to adjust her exisiting study. We adjust her study in order to further examine the effects of associative- and instrumental benefit differentiation.

Our lab experiment randomly assigned participants to a 3 (Control, instrumental, and associative) × 2 (Drøm and SHEA) factorial between subjects design as illustrated in table 1.

Table 1: 3 × 2 Factorial Between Subjects Design

		Brand	
		Drøm	SHEA
Differentiation Strategy	Control	1	2
	Instrumental	3	4
	Associative	5	6

Our control group was exposed to advertisements without any secondary associations present. Further, we pursued two respondent groups that were subject to manipulations with the use of either associative- or instrumental secondary benefit associations. In order to enhance the reliability of our research we utilized the same two fictitious brands as in Henriksen's (n.d.) study. By pursuing this measure we avoid a category specific influence on our research. The categories were flavored water and body lotion. We thus had one group for each category, where one sub-group within the category served as a control group, while the other sub-groups were manipulated.

To see the different effects of the variables we pursued an equal quality driver for all respondents. The quality driver was a score from a well-known independent consumer goods review program, where the products were given a nine out of ten score on "TV 2 Hjelper deg". "TV 2 Hjelper deg" is assumed to have high awareness among the respondents and would thus serve as a meaningful measure in obtaining perceived equal quality among the products and advertisements. Henriksen (n.d.) found an effect of the differentiation strategies on brand attitude by pursuing the same quality driver.

3.5   Data and Data Collection

3.5.1 Primary Data

Our research is based on primary data, whis is new, self acquired data (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Primary data gives control over both the data obtained from the respondents and the sample structure, which gives greater confidence that the data will match the objectives of the study (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2008).

3.5.2 Data collection

We utilized a questionnaire to collect data from our classical experiment. Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) argue that questionnaires could be useful in experiments when researchers want to identify and describe relationships between variables and variability in different phenomena. It therefore seems meaningful to use questionnaires in order to collect data that could

provide answers to our hypotheses.

Our questionnaire built on the work of Henriksen's (n.d.) and was adjusted in cooperation with our supervisor, Professor Mange Supphellen. To ensure that the adjustments we did were in line with Professor Mange Supphellen's recommendations; we sent him the questionnaires for an unofficial approval prior to distributing the questionnaire on paper and through Qualtrics.

Based on our sample, we chose to use Internet-mediated questionnaires, through the online survey software Qualtrics, and delivery and collection questionnaires. An Internet based survey is one of the most efficient ways of gathering data, and combined with delivering and collecting questionnaires we hope to obtain sufficient data from our sample in order to confirm or reject our hypotheses.

Qualtrics simplified our data collection, as we did not have to be physically present when the respondents answered the questionnaires. Using Internet-mediated questionnaires reduced the time needed to collect the data compared to related methods such as postal questionnaires. Further, Qualtrics simplified the process of analyzing data, since it is possible to transfer the responses directly into our analysis program, SPSS. When creating the questionnaire in Qualtrics we emphasized creating a layout that underlined that the questionnaire was of reasonable size in order to avoid respondent fatigue. To avoid partially finished questionnaires we implemented a "forced input" function, meaning that the respondents would have to answer every question to finish the questionnaire. The Qualtrics questionnaire ran online for seven days.

In our delivery and collection questionnaires we followed the layout of Henriksen (n.d.). The layout had been properly tested, and it therefore made sense to pursue a similar layout.

Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) argue that it is important to describe the purpose behind the research with a cover letter. In our survey we wanted the respondents to believe that the products were subject to a new product launch, and we thus created the cover letter accordingly. We thus contradict Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009), as it is was of utmost importance that the respondents believed that this was a survey for a product launch.

The logo of the Norwegian School of Economics (NHH) was implemented in the Qualtrics questionnaire due to formal requirements from NHH as well as to help the respondents recognize that the survey was conducted as part of our master thesis at NHH.

3.6 Questionnaire Design

Our questionnaire consists mostly of closed-ended questions, but also utilize open-ended questions. When asking respondents which associations they have toward the product-category or distinct products we asked open-ended questions as this is recommended in order to prevent potential associations from being left out (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). However, the use

of a questionnaire in eliciting associations is not optimal. Supphellen (2000) argues that long personal interviews are favorable in eliciting associations. Considering the time constraint and the fact that we sought to analyse other variables as well, we decided that open-ended questions where sufficient for this study.

We used likert-style questions on the closed-ended questions. Respondents were asked to rate how strongly they agreed or disagreed with different statements on seven-point rating scales. The seven-point rating scale included 1) Strongly disagree, 2) Disagree, 3) Slightly disagree, 4) Neutral, 5) Slightly agree, 6) Agree, and 7) Strongly agree. The alternative 4) Neutral served as an option in case some respondents had no opinion on the given statement. Many of the statements were based on the work of Henriksen (n.d.), while we added statements with regard to some variables we wanted to test. These were developed in collaboration with Professor Magne Supphellen, and aimed to measure the consumers' cognitive organization of the differentiation strategies.

Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) argue that one should keep the same order of response categories to avoid confusion among respondents. We kept the same order of response throughout all questions. However, we displayed the statements that included a comparison with two other products horizontal, and those without comparison vertically. This was done in order to avoid confusion.

Pre-tests

Henriksen's (n.d.) study functions as a pre-test for our lab experiment. Henriksen's (n.d.) study showed that provided with an equal quality driver, differentiation based on secondary associations has a positive effect on brand attitude. Further, her study revealed that both associative- and instrumental benefit differentiation based on secondary benefit associations had a positive effect on brand attitude. In Henriksen's (n.d.) pre-test she tested whether the secondary benefit associations given in the differentiation strategies were perceived as meaningful. All the given secondary benefit associations were perceived as positive and relevant to the product categories. Considering that the associative- and instrumental benefit differentiation given in the experiment has already been established as relevant to the product categories, it makes sense to pursue the same manipulation.

In order to make sure that both the Qualtrics and printed questionnaire were comprehendible for respondents we sent the questionnaires to friends and family as pre-tests. It is reasonable to assume that the questions formulated by Henriksen (n.d.) were comprehendible, as these had been thoroughly tested prior to our study. However, we wanted to determine the average amount of time it took to complete the survey and assure that our added variables were not perceived as ambiguous or unpleasant to answer. Three pre-tests were conducted on paper, and three through

Qualtrics. Although this would not give generalizable feedback, it provided valuable input to the questionnaire. The pre-tests confirmed that the questionnaires were comprehendible.

3.6.1 Sample

The term sample refers to a subset of the population from which the data is collected (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2008). Based on advice and help from our supervisor, Professor Magne Supphellen, we distributed our delivery and collection questionnaires in a bachelor's level marketing class at NHH. In addition to this, to increase the number of respondents, we also distributed the questionnaire through Qualtrics on social media. Our sample consists of mainly students and young adults. We have thus pursued a convenience sample, meaning that we have selected sampling units that are convieniently available (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). By pursuing a convenience sample we are not likely to create an accurate sample to represent the population (Neuman, 2011). A convenience sample is an appropriate approach to our thesis as the data is quick to obtain and cheaper than other sampling methods (Neuman, 2011).

External validity is affected by our choice of sample. According to Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) external validity refers to the extent of the generaliziability of our research results. Our sample is rather homogenous, and we can thus conclude that our results cannot be generalized to an entire population. However, the convenience sample in our classical experiement will enhance our internal validity as we have control over the context were most of our experiment occur (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The convenience sample consisted of 294 respondents, of which most respondents participated in class (N = 252).

3.7 Operationalization

Operationalization means turning our variables into operational measurable factors. Operationalization is thus similar to a specification of variables (Johannessen, Kristoffersen & Tufte, 2004). In this part we will base the specification of the variables on theoretical phenomena such as brand attitude. Operationalization in this part will then be to classify variables as belonging to distinct categories. The variables will thus be indicators for the phenomena we are trying to detect.

It is impossible to have indicators for every aspect of a phenomenon, but a meaningful measure could be to take basis in existing surveys that have been tested and quality assured (Johannessen, Kristoffersen, & Tufte, 2004). We have done this by following the indicators from Henriksen (n.d.). We added some variables to Henriksen's (n.d.) existing questionnaire to give us a basis for discussion.

To test the internal reliability of our new variables we employed Cronbach's Alpha tests. The

Cronbach's Alpha test measures the extent to which the individual statements comprising the scale are connected (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). The alpha coefficient will vary between 1 (perfect internal reliablility) and 0 (no internal reliability), where a value of 0.7 is generally recognized as an acceptable level (Bryman, 2012).

Operationalization (Based on the work of Henriksen (n.d.)):

1) **Number of Benefit Associations**

Question 4 / 3 : "Tenk på produktet Drøm / SHEA Body Lotion som du nettopp ble presentert for. Skriv ned dine første tanker som melder seg. Prøv å skrive ned minst fem forskjellige ting".

When determining whether an association was a benefit or not, we followed the description of benefits provided by Keller (1993) as a positive value attached to attributes, or which needs the consumers think the product or service can fulfill. We then went through twenty questionnaires together in order to establish a mutual understanding of what we perceived as benefits. We divided the number questionnaires between us and evaluated what counted as a benefit for our respective halves. Whenever there was doubt with regard to whether an association should be perceived as a benefit, we discussed the matter until we reached a mutual conclusion.

2) **Brand Attitude**

Question 9 / 8: "Jeg har et positivt inntrykk av dette merket (Drøm). Jeg har et godt inntrykk av dette merket (SHEA)."

Question 10 / 9: "Jeg liker dette merket (Drøm / SHEA)"

Question 11 / 10: "Jeg tror dette merket er av høy kvalitet (Drøm / SHEA)"

Question 12 / 11: "Dette merket skiller seg positivt fra andre i kategorien (Drøm / SHEA)"

The brand attitude variable was found to be reliable (4 items; $\alpha = .814$).

3) **Cognitive Organization**

Question 19: "Når jeg tenker på dette merket er det tydelig for meg hva det står for (Drøm / SHEA)."

Question 20: "Merket er "lett å plassere" sammenlignet med andre merker (Drøm / SHEA)."

Question 21: "Det er lett å forholde seg til dette merket (Drøm / SHEA)."

Question 22: "Det er lett å skille dette merket fra andre merker (Drøm / SHEA)."

The cognitive organization variable was found to be highly reliable (4 items; $\alpha = .918$).

4) **Personal Relevance**

Question 27: "Body lotion / vann med smak kategorien er relevant for meg."

Question 28: "Body lotion / vann med smak er noe folk forbinder meg med."

Question 29: "Jeg bruker mer body lotion / drikker mer vann med smak enn de fleste."

The personal relevance variable was found to be reliable (3 items; $\alpha = .724$).

4. Analysis

In this chapter we will analyze the data collected from our respondents through the use of the statistical software SPSS. Initially, we will present the descriptive statistics, before we present results and discuss our hypotheses.

4.1 Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics present a large amount of data in meaningful measures through simple summations and will reveal variations in the demographics of our respondents.

Table2: Distribution of respondents to the different questionnaires

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	DRØM – Without	66	22.4	22.4	22.4
	DRØM – Instrumental	56	19.0	19.0	41.5
	DRØM – Associative	50	17.0	17.0	58.5
	SHEA – Without	38	12.9	12.9	71.4
	SHEA – Associative	45	15.3	15.3	86.7
	SHEA – Instrumental	39	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	294	100.0	100.0	

Table 2 illustrates that we had a total of 294 respondents in our study. The participants were randomly distributed to the different questionnaires with regard to birthdate, last name, and seating arrangement in class. Further, table 2 reveals that the surveys regarding the flavored water "Drøm" have received 58,5 % of the respondents. Even though the surveys with regard to the "Drøm" brand have received a larger share of respondents, we regard the number of respondents in each survey and the accounted percentage of total respondents to be adequate. Birthdate, last names and seating arrangements thus seem to be meaningful measures in distributing respondents to our surveys.

Table 3: Frequency of respondents according to sex

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	128	43.5	43.5	43.5
	Male	166	56.5	56.5	100.0
	Total	294	100.0	100.0	

Table 3 reveals that women and men represented 43,5 % and 56,5 % of the respondents respectively. This was expected, considering that females account for 42 % of the enrolled students at NHH (Norwegian School of Economics, 2012). We also targeted respondents through social

media, but these respondents accounted for a smaller population of the survey respondents, namely 42.

Table 4: Frequency of respondent age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 – 18	3	1.0	1.0	1.0
	19 – 25	272	92.5	92.5	93.5
	26 – 30	14	4.8	4.8	98.3
	31 – 40	3	1.0	1.0	99.3
	41 – 50	1	.3	.3	99.7
	51 – 60	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	294	100.0	100.0	

Table 4 displays the variation in the respondents' age. We can see that most of the respondents are in the age group of 19 to 25 years of age and (N = 272) that this accounts for 92,5 % of the total number of respondents. There is a large gap between the youngest and oldest respondents, but the table reveals that 98,3 % of the respondents is within the age group of 0 to 30.

Table 5: Age of respondents with regards to survey

		Questionnaire						
		DRØM – Without	DRØM – Instrumental	DRØM – Associative	SHEA – Without	SHEA – Associative	SHEA – Instrumental	Total
Age	0 – 18	1	1	0	0	1	0	3
	19 – 25	61	51	47	38	42	33	272
	26 – 30	3	2	1	0	2	6	14
	31 – 40	1	1	1	0	0	0	3
	41 – 50	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	51 – 60	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Total		66	56	50	38	45	39	294

Table 5 illustrates how the respondents have been distributed among the surveys with regard to age. The table reveals that none of the age groups that accounted for a smaller percentage of the total number of respondents are over-represented in any of the surveys. We can thus assume that variance in age has little to no effect on our survey results. However, we cannot be certain that we would have obtained the same results if the respondents had been equally, or differently distributed among the age groups. We can thus not generalize these findings to a general population.

4.2   Analysis of Hypothesis 1

H₁: Instrumental benefit differentiation has a more positive effect on brand attitude than associative benefit differentiation

Before we could analyze the effect of differentiation strategy on brand attitude we had to re-

code the varibles related to brand attitude into one consistent variable that would allow us to compare the different groups. In our questionnaire, questions 9-12 measured attitude toward the brand and were therefore recoded into a single variable that expressed the respondent's attitude toward the brand.

We used a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to check for significant differences between the two groups. An ANOVA analysis analyses variance, or the spread of data values within and between groups, by comparing means (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009).

4.2.1 Results

With regard to the "Drøm" brand, effect of differentiation strategies on brand attitude did not differ significantly across the two strategies (F(1, 104) = 2.115, $p > .1$). For the "SHEA" brand there was also no significant difference across the two strategies with regard to effect of differentiation strategies on brand attitude (F(1, 82) = .067, $p > .1$).

We find no support for hypothesis H_1, which implies that instrumental benefit differentiation does not have any larger positive effect on brand attitude than associative benefit differentiation.

4.2.2 Discussion

Our results contradicts the fundamental view of brand positioning, that a brand should offer unique selling propositions that include specific performance benefits. There is reason to believe that associative benefit differentiation can prove just as effective as instrumental benefit differentiation. Considering that associative benefit differentiation could influence brand attitude both indirectly through cognition and directly, there is reason to believe that this effect is equivalent to the direct cognitive effect of instrumental benefit differentiation. We can thus see that a brand could differentiate based on secondary benefit associations that are drivers for choice, but it does not seem to matter whether these secondary benefit associations highlights instrumental or associative elements. Keller (2008) and Aaker (1991) argue that brands could pursue both differentiation strategies, and our results support this view. Further in this chapter we will see if brand attitude is positively mediated by the strategies' ability to generate benefit associations.

4.3   Analysis of Hypothesis 2

H_2: Associative benefit differentiation generates more benefit associations than instrumental benefit differentiation.

To test our hypotheses with regard to differences in number of benefit associations generated by the differentiation strategies we employed a one-way ANOVA analysis.

4.3.1 Results

With regard to the "Drøm" brand, the number of benefit associations generated differed significantly across the two strategies ($F(1, 104) = 5.097$, $p = .026$; $M_{Instrumental} = 2.161$, $M_{Associative} = 2.880$). The number of benefit associations generated does not significantly differ across the two strategies for the "SHEA" brand ($F(1, 82) = .461$, $p > .1$).

We thus find partial support for hypothesis H_2. For the "Drøm" brand associative benefit differentiation generates significantly more benefit associations than instrumental benefit differentiation, while associative benefit differentiation does not generate significantly more benefit associations for the "SHEA" brand.

4.3.2 Discussion

Based on our results it would be interesting to evaluate our arguments for why associative benefit differentiation should generate more benefit associations than instrumental benefit differentiation.

We find support for the "Drøm" brand, which is in line with the theory presented and our expectations. Our arguments of more cognitive elaboration for associative benefit differentiation are based on personal relevance and schema incongruity. Initially, we examine if these factors are explanatory for our findings with regard to "Drøm", before discussing why we do not obtain full support for our hypothesis.

Personal Relevance for "Drøm"

Our variables related to personal relevance mainly aims at category relevance. Personal relevance is thus restricted by not including relevance to stimuli. The variables related to personal relevance were recoded into a single variable named personal relevance.

The personal relevance variable does not significantly differ across the two strategies with regard to the "Drøm" brand ($F(1, 104) = 1.372$, $p > .1$). We have argued that associative benefit differentiation is more likely to evoke personal relevance, however, this argument does not hold for category relevance with regard to "Drøm". An explanatory factor for why we do not find support arguments with regard to personal relevance could be that the stimuli itself is more personally relevant than category.

Schema Incongruity for "Drøm"

The cognitive organization variable does not significantly differ across the two strategies with regard to the "Drøm" brand ($F(1, 104) = .696$, $p > .1$). We anticipated finding a higher mean score for the instrumental benefit differentiation strategy than for the associative benefit differentiation strategy. Further, we expected that associative benefit differentiation strategy would

generate moderate levels of schema incongruity, while instrumental would be easier to organize. However, this does not seem to be the case, as we find no significant differences between the different strategies. The cognitive organization could thus not explain why consumers generate more benefit associations for the associative benefit differentiation strategy than the instrumental benefit differentiation with regard to "Drøm". An explanatory factor could be that the associative stimuli presented might not be incongruent enough to generate cognitive elaboration. We can see that other brands, such as Fanta, utilize the same kind of stimuli in their marketing communication and this could in turn lead the associative strategy to be congruent with the product category.

Potential Explanations for Partial Support

An explanatory factor for why we do not find support for H_2 for the "SHEA" brand could be that the summer stimuli presented in the "Drøm" advertisement is more personal relevant than the baby skin stimuli presented in the "SHEA" advertisement. This could lead to less cognitive elaboration for the "SHEA" brand and the respondents could therefore form more associations for the "Drøm" brand. We thus believe that the stimuli itself provide more self-relevance than the product category.

There might also be differences in the number of associations held toward the different constructs. If respondents hold a greater number of associations toward the summer construct than the baby skin construct, more associations might be transferred to the brand.

Another explanatory factor for why the associative benefit differentiation strategy fails to generate significantly more benefit associations for the "SHEA" brand could be that the argument for the "SHEA" instrumental benefit differentiation is somewhat stronger than for the "Drøm" instrumental benefit differentiation. "SHEA - Instrumental" is supported by more arguments that emphasize the effect of the ingredients. Considering that respondents in a high involvement setting will look for strong arguments and counter those they regard as weak (Tellis, 2003), we can see that more arguments in the "SHEA - Instrumental" advertisement could turn respondents to elaborate and use multiple routes for memory retrieval.

4.4   Analysis of Hypothesis 3

H_3: The effect of differentiation strategy on brand attitude is positively mediated by number of benefit associations generated.

To establish whether the number of benefit associations generated mediates the effect of differentiation strategy on brand attitude, we first performed a regression analysis to establish the strength of the relationship between the variables under the different strategies. In order to perform such an analysis we first had to recode the different strategies into a new variable where

the individual differentiation strategies (associative and instrumental) were compared against the control group.

We then performed a Sobel test, which tests the significance of mediation by testing the null hypothesis that the population indirect effect is equal to zero. Rejection of the null hypothesis implies that there is an indirect effect of X on Y through a given mediator M (simple mediation structure) (Sobel, 1982).

Figure 9: Mediation model for Hypothesis 3
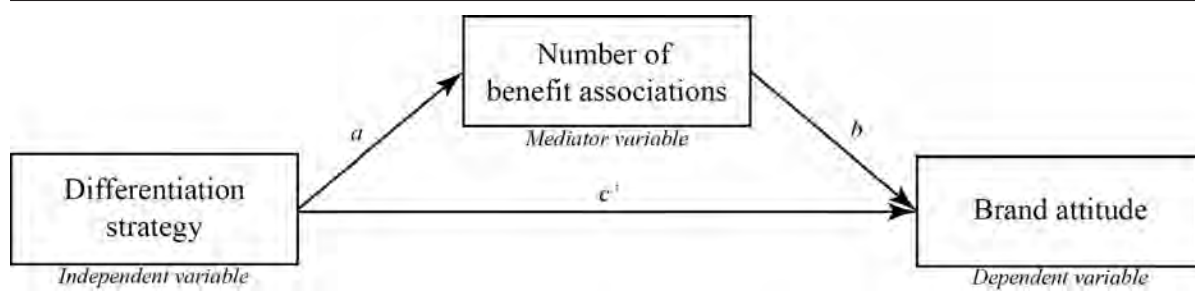
The Sobel test requires parameters from the unstandardized coefficients;   and standard error from the two relations from the independent variable to the mediator variable (a), and from the mediator variable to the dependent variable (b). The parameters β and standard error derived from the regressions will be further analyzed through Daniel Soper's (2012) Sobel Test Calculator. This calculator generates the Sobel Z-value and corresponding P-value.

4.4.1 Results

Based on the regression analysis with regard to the "Drøm" brand we found that an associative differentiation strategy had a significant effect on the number of benefit associations generated (p = 0,015). However, there was no significant effect of the number of benefit associations on brand attitude (p = 0,530). We found no significant result of the following Sobel test (p = 0,339) and we could thus not discard the null hypothesis of no indirect effect. The results of the regression analysis and Sobel test are presented in table 6.

Table 6: DRØM Associative - Results of regression analysis and Sobel test

Relations from and to	β	Std. Error	Sig.	Sobel Z-value	P-value
Associative vs. Control → Q3	.225	.029	.015*	.415	.339
Q3 → Attitude toward brand	.059	.142	.530		

For the instrumental differentiation strategy there was no significant effect on the number of benefit associations generated (p = 0,981). The effect of the number of benefit associations

generated on brand attitude was also non-significant (p = 0,214). Based on the results of the regression analysis the following Sobel test was non-significant (p = 0,476) and we could not reject the null hypothesis.

Table 7: DRØM Instrumental - Results of regression analysis and Sobel test

Relations from and to	β	Std. Error	Sig.	Sobel Z-value	P-value
Instrumental vs. Control → Q3	-.002	.033	.981	-.060	.476
Q3 → Attitude toward brand	.113	.116	.214		

With regard to the regression analysis of the SHEA brand we found a significant effect of the associative differentiation strategy on the number of benefit associations generated (p = 0,003). Again, there was no significant effect of the number of benefit associations generated on brand attitude (p = 0,445). Based on the results from the regression analysis the result of the Sobel test was non-significant (p = 0,250). The results from the regression analysis and Sobel test are illustrated below.

Table 8: SHEA Asociative - Results of regression analysis and Sobel test

Relations from and to	β	Std. Error	Sig.	Sobel Z-value	P-value
Associative vs. Control → Q3	.326	.039	.003*	.672	.250
Q3 → Attitude toward brand	.085	.126	.445		

The instrumental differentiation strategy for the SHEA brand also produced a significant effect on the number of benefit associations generated (p = 0,013). Consistent with our other findings with regard to the number of benefit associations effect on brand attitude there was a non-significant effect for the instrumental differentiation strategy (p = 0,284). The following Sobel test resulted in a non-significant outcome and we could thus not reject the null hypothesis.

Table 9: SHEA Instrumental - Results of regression analysis and Sobel test

Relations from and to	β	Std. Error	Sig.	Sobel Z-value	P-value
Instrumental vs. Control → Q3	.281	.047	.013*	1.061	.144
Q3 → Attitude toward brand	.124	.115	.284		

4.4.2 Discussion

We find no support for hypothesis H_3. In running Sobel tests we failed to detect that the number of benefit associations positively mediate the effect of differentiation strategy on brand attitude. It therefore seems like the number of benefit associations had no implications for the respondents' overall evaluations of the brands. This contradicts our expectations, as we believed we

would be able to reveal such a relationship. Our expectation came from a perception that the more benefit associations that respondents could generate would give them a wider basis for the formation of positive attitudes.

We might have failed to detect a relationship due to our questionnaire. Supphellen (2000) argues that one should conduct long personal interviews when eliciting associations, and this could potentially have given us different results. Further, we might have been too strict on what counted as a benefit or not. Hence, the fact that we followed the definition of benefits by Keller (1993) could be an explanatory factor. Considering that the respondents were only exposed to the advertisements once, they might be unsure whether or not their elicited associations were actual traits for the brand. In so, respondents may have avoided judgments made on initial associations in determining their brand attitude. Cacioppo and Petty (1979) argue that consumers judge arguments as more valid after several exposures. We thus believe that if the respondents had been exposed to the brand advertisements several times and through different channels, this would make a relationship more likely to occur.

5. General Discussion

In this thesis we have tried to answer three research questions regarding differentiation based on secondary benefit associations. Two research questions were formulated in order to examine whether the differentiation strategies, associative- and instrumental benefit differentiation, varied in their effect on brand attitude and in their ability to generate benefit associations. The third research question was formulated in order to examine whether the number of benefit associations mediated the effect of the differentiation strategies on brand attitude.

Our research compares a fundamental view of brand positioning, instrumental benefit differentiation, to a more recent approach, namely associative benefit differentiation. The study provides theoretical- and practical implications. In this part we will present these implications along with the study's limitations and suggestions for future research.

5.1 Theoretical Implications

Recent research debates the fundamental view that positioning should be based on performance benefits. The fundamental view of brand positioning originates from the concept of unique selling propositions by Reeves (1970). Reeves (1970) explains that brands must (1) provide specific benefits that are compelling reasons for purchase, (2) competitors cannot match the benefits, they need to be unique, and (3) the value proposition must be able to attract new customers. However, Keller (2008) argues that brands could create points of differentiation on either performance benefits or imagery associations. Our thesis reveals that an emphasis on the latter, namely associative benefit differentiation generates more benefit associations toward the brand.

An ability to generate more benefit associations should enhance brand awareness by linking the brand to more product categories and consumption contexts. It seems that although brands could obtain positive brand attitudes through the use of both differentiation strategies, associative benefit differentiation should evoke the brand in more consumption contexts, resulting in higher recall. This is likely to trigger purchase in situations characterized by low-involvement (Nedungadi, 1990). Our thesis reveals that associative benfit differentiation should be more efficient than instrumental benefit differentiation in creating brand awareness. These findings contradict the view of both Reeves (1970) that propose that instrumental benefit differentiation is most effective, and Keller (2008) that argue that they have similar effectiveness.

We have argued that benefit associations are likely to lead to positive brand images. Keller (1993) argues that the associations held in memory reflect the brand image. Petty, Haugtvedt, and Smith (1995) states that the more knowledge associated with an object, the more resistant the object would be to change. Considering that associative benefit differentiation evokes more benefit associations, this differentiation strategy is likely to lead to a richer, more positive, and more sustainable network of associations than instrumental benefit differentiation. This would

in turn make a brand positioning strategy based on associative benefit associations more defensible and difficult to attack for competitors. An associative benefit differentiation could thus be more effective than instrumental benefit differentiation in delivering sustainable points of difference.

5.2 Managerial Implications

Unfortunately our study failed to find support for a number of hypotheses. However, our study provides some practical implications to marketers. Firstly, we find that instrumental benefit differentiation does not have a more positive effect on brand attitude than associative benefit differentiation. This implies that marketers could potentially achieve positive brand attitudes by pursuing both differentiation strategies. More importantly, our results reveal that associative benefit differentiation generates more benefit associations.

An important premise for associative benefit differentiation is that the customer must perceive the secondary benefit associations as relevant to the brand. In so, brands have to pursue secondary benefit associations that are relevant for their products in order to evoke benefit associations.

Our results imply that marketers should pursue associative benefit differentiation, as this strategy generates a larger amount of benefit associations than instrumental benefit differentiation. By pursuing associative benefit differentiation marketers could obtain more sustainable points of difference, meaning that it should be more viable as a long-term positioning strategy. In addition, marketers should pursue the associative benefit differentiation strategy in order to make the brand more resistant to competitive attacks.

In industries where the most important performance benefits are shared by several brands, associative benefits could make it more feasible to differentiate from competitors. In competitive markets, such as that of luxury watches or luxury cars, associative benefits could become a more sustainable source of differentiation than instrumental benefits. By focusing on associative benefits brands could make it easier for consumers to retrieve the associative benefits from memory and use them to distinguish brands from each other. We thus advise marketers to distinguish themselves and obtain a sustainable position by differentiating based on secondary associative benefits. Associcitive benefit differentiation provides a wider range of differentiation possibilities that is harder for competitors to imitate than the tangible performance benefits emphasized in instrumental benefit differentiation.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research

In this part we will cover general limitations, the reliability and validity of our study as well as suggestions for future research.

5.3.1 General Limitations

In this thesis we conducted an experiment through the use of questionnaires. Our research design could thus be a limitation to this study. Supphellen (2000) argues that one should elicit associations through personal interviews. As we wanted to test different variables as well, we chose a questionnaire for our data collection. This might limit our ability to elicit the number of actual associations held toward the different brands, which in turn could have implications for our findings.

Further, our study is conducted with regard to the product categories body lotion and flavored water. The results presented in this study are thus only applicable to similar categories in the fast moving consumer goods market. We are not able to draw any conclusions as to how brands that provides services, or that focuses on other product categories, should differentiate.

In our study we examine personal relevance with regard to associative- and instrumental benefit differentiation. There is reason to believe that personal relevance may occur due to category- and stimuli relevance. We only examine category relevance for the different brands and a limitation to our research is thus our lack of ablility to examine the entire concept of personal relevance.

5.3.2 Reliability

Reliability is defined by Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill as "the extent to which your data collection techniques or analysis procedures will yield consistent findings" (2009, p.156). The reliability can be assessed by asking three questions, as suggested by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Jackson: "(1) Will the measure yield the same results on other occasions?, (2) Will similar observations be reached by other observers?, and (3) Is there transparency in how sense was made from the raw data?" (2008, p.109). Parts of our reliability will thus be covered under statistical conclusion validity.

Our thesis is cross-sectional, meaning that we look at particular phenomenon at a particular time (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). By having a cross-sectional study we cannot conclude that our findings will be applicable in determining brand attitude and brand associations over time. In so, it seems that our thesis has more implications for a brand's tactical positioning, rather than strategical brand positioning. We are not able to draw any conclusions to the effectiveness of the differentiation strategies over a longer period of time, where several exposures are likely to occur. Our cross-sectional study does not allow us to test our reliability through a test-retest method.

Errors and biases may have occurred in our evaluation of the associations generated by respondents. Other researchers may attribute different interpretatios to the associations than we did, and this would thus lower our reliability (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). However, our

data is mostly based on rating scales and the observer bias or error should thus be somewhat restricted. Threats related to the respondents (error and bias) can be reduced by ensuring anonymity and making sure that the respondents are informed that there are no wrong answers (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). In order to deal with the threats related to the respondents we took great care in our study to ensure that the respondents knew that the questionnaires were completely anonymous.

The Cronbach's Alpha tests revealed that there was high internal reliability of the operationalized variables. We can thus conclude that our research has high internal reliability.

5.3.3 Validity

While reliability is concerned with the robustness of our research design, validity is concerned with investigating whether there is a causal relationship between variables (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Validity is defined as: "(1) The extent to which data collection method or methods accurately measure what they were intended to measure. (2) The extent to which research finding are really about what they profess to be about." (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009, p.603). When working with validity it is usual to divide the construct into internal and external validity, which is presented initially before assessing the statistical conclusion validity and construct validity.

Internal Validity

Internal validity is concerned with the ability of the questionnaire to measure what you intend to measure (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). In general, Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) present history, testing, instrumentation, mortality, maturation, and ambiguity about causal direction as threats to the validity. Our study is most likely not subject to influence from previous product exposure considering that we use fictitious brands and advertisements. We thus avoid history to threaten our validity.

The testing threat occurs when respondents are of the perception that results may disadvantage them in one-way or another (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Our survey was anonymous, and mostly asked the respondents to assess statements and elicit associations. We thus avoid any perceptions concerning the results of the questionnaires. Further, Neuman (2011) argues that the testing effect might also threaten internal validity when more than the treatment alone affects the dependent variable. We avoid the testing effect by not exposing our sample to a pre-test.

Instrumental threats occur when the sample group has been subject to external effects in-between testing (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). In our study we test the participants once, the instrumental threat is therefore likely to be minimal. However, respondents in the delivery

and collection survey might affect respondents via Qualtrics, considering that the surveys were not conducted at the same time.

Our study might be exposed to a mortality threat, meaning that respondents do not complete the questionnaire. Although this will not affect the final results it could affect the response rate and amount of completed surveys. Further, we can see that maturation might also occur, where respondents perceive the survey as too time-consuming. This could lead to careless responding or uncomplete questionnaires. As the completion of our experiment was a pre-requisit for course approval, we regard the chances of mortality threats to be low.

External Validity

External validity refers to the extent of the generalizability of the research results, that is, if the research results are proportionately relevant in other situations (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). According to Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) this may be a particular worry if your research is based on a small sample from a homogenous group of participants that are distinctly dissimilar than others.

We can see that our study has limitations in its external validity. We consider our sample size of 294 respondents distributed to six questionnaires to be insufficient to be relevant in other situations. Further, our groups of respondents are rather homogenous. 92,5% of our sample is within the age group 19 to 25 and mostly students. External validity is therefore a problem in our study and could have been avoided by pursuing a more diverse sample with different age groups. However, there is usually a trade-off between internal and external validity. By achieving a higher external validity we would have to pursue a sample that is representative for the population, which could reduce our control of the experiment. This would have weakened our internal validity. As we investigate causal relationships high internal validity is preferred over high external validity.

Statistical Conclusion Validity

Statistical conclusion validity is concerned with whether the conclusions we reach about relationships in our data are reasonable (Trochim, 2006). Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) refer to two types of errors that could occur when drawing conclusions from samples, namely Type I and Type II errors. Type I errors occur when researchers come to a conclusion that something is true when in reality it is not, hence Type I errors occur if we obtain significant results to our hypotheses although this is not the case in reality. Type II errors are the opposite of Type I, meaning that they occur when researchers conclude that something is not true, when in reality it is. We can thus see that Type II could occur if we fail to find significant results. In general, it is more important to minimize Type I errors than Type II errors (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

In analyzing our data we have employed ANOVA, Chronbach's Alpha tests, and Sobel tests. ANOVA is a commonly used method to detect significant differences between variables. Considering that we seek to find causal relationships between variables, we regard this as a suitable technique to analyze our data. Further, we used Chronbach's Alpha tests to measure the extent to which the individual statements comprising the scales of our recoded variables were connected. Chronbach's Alpha is a reknowned method to check for internal reliability of variables explaining a concept. We employed Sobel tests to see if brand associations mediated the differentiation strategies' effect on brand attitude. Magne Supphellen recommended the Sobel test to us, as it is a commonly used way to examine simple mediation structures. In general, we regard our measures of analyzing data as highly reliable. By using reknowned and verified measures to analyze our data, we decrease the possibility of Type I errors.

Statistical conclusion validity is dependent on the statistical power of our study. The statistical power is the probability that a test will avoid Type II errors (Trochim, 2006). The sample size of our study has implications for our statistical power. Our sample consists of 294 respondents distributed to six questionnaires, meaning that we have a rather narrow sample for each questionnaire. Further, the descriptive statistics of our respondents reveal that our sample is rather homogenous. This will negatively affect our statistical power. In analyzing our results we employed a 5% significance level, which is a standard measure (Johannessen, Christoffersen & Tufte, 2004). We use appropriate measures to enhance our statistical conclusion validity, however the narrow and homogenous sample reduces the statistical power of this study.

Construct Validity

Construct validity is concerned with whether our measurements questions actually measure the presence of the construct we intend them to measure (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). In so, construct validity entails how well we can generalize our measurement questions to the different constructs. When assessing construct validity it is normal to examine discriminant validity, which is concerned with whether the measures that should not be related are in fact unrelated (Trochim, 2006). Table 10 illustrates the correlation of our operationalized variables.

To provide evidence of discrimant validity there should be higher correlation between related variables compared to unrelated variables. This is illustrated in table 10, where related variables are those within the red squares. Table 10 reveals that we higher correlation between the related variables. We thus have satisfactory levels of discriminant validity, and acceptable construct validity.

Table 10: Correlation table for operationalized variables

		Q9B	Q10B	Q11B	Q12B	Q19	Q20	Q21	Q22	Q27	Q31	Q32
Q9B	Pearson Correlation	1	.705	.644	.609	.330	.232	.360	.288	.128	.042	−.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.029	.473	.793
	N	294	294	294	293	294	294	294	294	294	294	294
Q10B	Pearson Correlation	.705	1	.568	.555	.266	.228	.323	.237	.130	.120	.053
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.026	.039	.368
	N	294	294	294	293	294	294	294	294	294	294	294
Q11B	Pearson Correlation	.644	.568	1	.601	.305	.240	.328	.262	.136	.016	.046
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.019	.789	.434
	N	294	294	294	293	294	294	294	294	294	294	294
Q12B	Pearson Correlation	.609	.555	.601	1	.321	.320	.451	.370	.137	.037	.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.019	.533	.959
	N	293	293	293	293	293	293	293	293	293	293	293
Q19	Pearson Correlation	.330	.266	.305	.321	1	.458	.467	.274	.116	.091	.039
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.046	.120	.508
	N	294	294	294	293	294	294	294	294	294	294	294
Q20	Pearson Correlation	.232	.228	.240	.320	.458	1	.508	.365	.114	.104	.104
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.052	.076	.074
	N	294	294	294	293	294	294	294	294	294	294	294
Q21	Pearson Correlation	.360	.323	.328	.451	.467	.508	1	.381	.098	.092	.086
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.093	.114	.142
	N	294	294	294	293	294	294	294	294	294	294	294
Q22	Pearson Correlation	.288	.237	.262	.370	.274	.365	.381	1	.028	.090	.046
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.631	.126	.429
	N	294	294	294	293	294	294	294	294	294	294	294
Q27	Pearson Correlation	.128	.130	.136	.137	.116	.114	.098	.028	1	.481	.691
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.029	.026	.019	.019	.046	.052	.093	.631		.000	.000
	N	294	294	294	293	294	294	294	294	294	294	294
Q31	Pearson Correlation	.042	.120	.016	.037	.091	.104	.092	.090	.481	1	.666
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.473	.039	.789	.533	.120	.076	.114	.126	.000		.000
	N	294	294	294	293	294	294	294	294	294	294	294
Q32	Pearson Correlation	−.015	.053	.046	.003	.039	.104	.086	.046	.691	.666	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.793	.368	.434	.959	.508	.074	.142	.429	.000	.000	
	N	294	294	294	293	294	294	294	294	294	294	294

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

5.3.4 Future Research

The limitations and findings of this study provide implications for future research. In our research we distinguish between instrumental benefit differentiation and associative benefit differentiation. However, a combination of the two differentiation strategies could possibly be more effective in generating positive brand attitudes and benefit associations. Future research should thus include a combination of the two strategies in order to evaluate whether such a combination is more effective than the individual strategies.

We have argued that the secondary associations based on benefits needs to be relevant for the brand. Future research should examine the concept of association relevance. An examination of the concept should determine what is perceived as relevant and not in order to provide important theoretical- and managerial implications to brand positioning. In our thesis we also study personal relevance through measuring category relevance. There is reason to believe that the stimuli presented in the differentiation strategies could also evoke personal relevance. Future research should thus test whether stimuli evoke personal relevance, and if this could explain our findings further.

Further, our study is cross-sectional and thus only examines effects of a single exposure. Ca-

cioppo and Petty (1979) emphasize the importance of multiple exposures to marketing stimuli in order to judge arguments as valid. Keller (2008) argues that repeated exposure could lead to stronger associations. Future research should therefore test the effectiveness of the differentiation strategies after several exposures. It could also be beneficial to elicit associations based on the guidelines provided by Supphellen (2000), in order to employ a more valid elicitation technique. Considering that we seek to find causal relationships, this has affected our ability to generalize our results. Future research should therefore seek to strengthen the external validity of our results.

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Appendix - Questionnaire

In this appendix we present the questions and stimuli included in the six questionnaires. As the same questions are presented in all of the questionnaires we only include one set of questions, however, all of the different stimuli are included to make the appendix comprehendible.

Denne spørreundersøkelsen inneholder en annonse for et produkt som skal lanseres. Du skal vurdere annonsen for så å svare på noen spørsmål tilknyttet denne. Det er viktig at du ikke skriver navnet ditt på skjemaet da det skal være en anonym undersøkelse. Vi ønsker at du følger førsteinntrykket ditt og svarer så rask som mulig. Det finnes ingen riktige eller gale svar i denne undersøkelsen.

I denne undersøkelsen vil du bli spurt om kategorien "vann med smak". Med dette menes alt av vann på flaske som er tilsatt smak, både med og uten kullsyre.

Eksempler på eksisterende merker som produserer vann med smak

Bonaqua og Olden

I denne undersøkelsen vil du bli spurt om fuktighetskrem / body Lotion. Med dette menes krem som smøres på kroppen, ikke ansiktkrem, håndkrem eller annet.

Eksempler på eksisterende merker som produserer body lotion

Nivea og Dove

1 - Foretrekker du vann med eller uten smak?

☐ Med (1)
☐ Uten (2)

2 - Hvor mye vann med smak (0,5 l) drikker du i gjennomsnitt?

☐ Aldri (1)
☐ Mindre enn 1 i uken (2)
☐ 1-2 i uken (3)
☐ 3-6 i uken (4)
☐ 1-2 per dag (5)
☐ 3 eller mer per dag (6)

3 - Hvis du drikker vann med smak, hvilken merke foretrekker du?

☐ Bonaqua (1)
☐ Olden (2)
☐ Imsdal (3)
☐ Farris (4)
☐ Annet (5) _____
☐ Jeg husker ikke navnet på merket (6)
☐ Jeg drikker ikke vann med smak (7)

Du skal nå bli presentert for en reklame for et produkt som snart skal lanseres. Se nøye på reklamen, da du vil bli spurt om denne i undersøkelsen. Reklamen er kun på én side.

Drøm - Without

Produktlansering

TV 2 hjelper deg: 9/10 på smak!

Drøm

Drøm er en forfriskende og tørsteslukkende drikk basert på rent kildevann. Vannet inneholder naturlig fruktekstrakt, og er kun søtet med naturlig fruktjuice. Du kan få Drøm både med og uten kullsyre.

TV 2 hjelper deg har gitt Drøm 9 av 10 mulige poeng på smak.

Drøm har tre forfriskende smaker:
- Drøm med smak av Sitron
- Drøm med smak av Jordbær
- Drøm smak av Pære

Drøm - Associative

Produktlansering

TV 2 hjelper deg: 9/10 på smak!

Drøm

Drøm er en forfriskende og tørsteslukkende drikk basert på rent kildevann. Vannet inneholder naturlig fruktekstrakt, og er kun søtet med naturlig fruktjuice. Kommer både med og uten kullsyre.
TV 2 hjelper deg har gitt Drøm 9 av 10 mulige poeng på smak.

Smaken av en sommerdrøm

Drøm har smaken av sommer. Vakre blomsterenger, beroligende bølgeskvulp og duftende jordbæråkre. Med det nye vannet Drøm kan du drømme deg til sommeren når som helst.
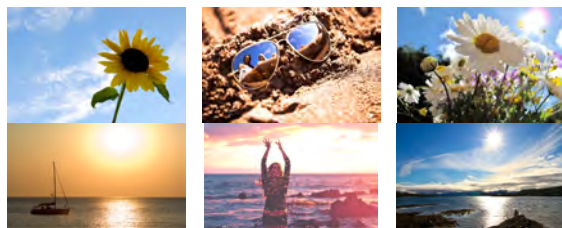
Smaken av en sommerdrøm
- Drøm -

Drøm - Instrumental

Produktlansering

Drøm

Drøm er en forfriskende og tørsteslukkende drikk basert på rent kildevann. Vannet inneholder naturlig fruktekstrakt, og er kun søtet med naturlig fruktjuice. Du kan få Drøm både med og uten kullsyre.
TV 2 hjelper deg har gitt Drøm 9 av 10 mulige poeng på smak.

All frukt og bær som er tilsatt i Drøm er høstet når de er på sitt mest smakfulle.

Drøm har tre forfriskende smaker:
- Drøm med smak av Sitron
- Drøm med smak av Jordbær
- Drøm med smak av Pære

SHEA - Without

Produktlansering

TV 2 hjelper deg: 9/10

SHEA Body Lotion
SHEA Body Lotion en hudvennlig fuktighetskrem med høy konsentrasjon av sheasmør, samt e- og a-vitaminer. Disse ingrediensene gjør at SHEA Body lotion gir god fuktighet og næring til huden.
TV 2 hjelper deg har testet SHEA Body Lotion sin evne til å gjøre huden fuktig og smidig, og gitt den 9 av 10 mulige poeng.

SHEA - Associative

Produktlansering

SHEA Body Lotion

SHEA Body Lotion en hudvennlig fuktighetskrem med høy konsentrasjon av sheasmør, samt e – og a-vitaminer. Disse ingrediensene gjør at SHEA Body lotion gir god fuktighet og næring til huden.

TV 2 hjelper deg har testet SHEA Body Lotion sin evne til å gjøre huden fuktig og smidig, og gitt den 9 av 10 mulige poeng.

Myk som babyhud
Gjennom tusenvis av år har kvinner i afrika brukt sheasmør til å pleie sine spedbarn. På samme måte har de smurt det rene sheasmøret på sin egen hud, for å holde huden sin like ung og myk som barnets.

SHEA Body Lotion er utviklet for deg som vil holde huden din ung og myk som babyhud.

SHEA - Instrumental

Produktlansering

TV 2 hjelper deg: 9/10

SHEA Body Lotion

SHEA Body Lotion en hudvennlig fuktighetskrem med høy konsentrasjon av sheasmør, samt e – og a-vitaminer. Disse ingrediensene gjør at SHEA Body lotion gir god fuktighet og næring til huden.

TV 2 hjelper deg har testet SHEA Body Lotion sin evne til å gjøre huden fuktig og smidig, og gitt den 9 av 10 mulige poeng.

Hvorfor er Sheasmør bra for huden din?
Sheasmør inneholder naturlige fettsyrer og vitaminer, blant annet E-vitamin, karotin og sårlegende allantoin.

Sheasmør er derfor bra mot tørr hud, hudsprekker, småsår og eksem. Det virker nærende, mykgjørende, motvirker uttørking og fremskynder leging av huden.

Sheasmør absorberes raskt av huden og kan brukes på alle deler av kroppen.

4 - Tenk på produktet Drøm som du nettopp ble presentert for. Skriv ned dine første tanker som melder seg. Prøv å skriv ned minst fem forskjellige ting.

5 - Prøv å forestill deg smaken til Drøm. Skriv ned de første tankene som melder seg. Prøv å skriv ned minst tre forskjellige ting.

6 - Tenk på vann fra Bonaqua. Skriv ned de første tankene som melder seg. Prøv å skriv ned minst fem forskjellige ting.

7 - Prøv å forestill deg smaken til Bonaqua. Skriv ned de første tankene som melder seg. Prøv å skriv ned minst tre forskjellige ting.

Videre følger det noen utsagn du blir bedt om å ta stilling til. Hvor enig er du i følgende utsagn?

8 - Gitt at jeg skal kjøpe vann med smak i nærmeste fremtid er det sannsynlig at jeg vil vurdere dette merket:

	Svært uenig (1)	Uenig (2)	Litt uenig (3)	Nøytral (4)	Litt enig (5)	Enig (6)	Svært enig (7)
Bonaqua (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Drøm (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Olden (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9 - Jeg har et positivt inntrykk av dette merket:

	Svært uenig (1)	Uenig (2)	Litt uenig (3)	Nøytral (4)	Litt enig (5)	Enig (6)	Svært enig (7)
Bonaqua (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Drøm (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Olden (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10 - Jeg liker dette merket:

	Svært uenig (1)	Uenig (2)	Litt uenig (3)	Nøytral (4)	Litt enig (5)	Enig (6)	Svært enig (7)
Bonaqua (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Drøm (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Olden (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11 - Jeg tror dette merket er av høy kvalitet:

	Svært uenig (1)	Uenig (2)	Litt uenig (3)	Nøytral (4)	Litt enig (5)	Enig (6)	Svært enig (7)
Bonaqua (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Drøm (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Olden (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12 - Dette merket skiller seg positivt fra andre i kategorien:

	Svært uenig (1)	Uenig (2)	Litt uenig (3)	Nøytral (4)	Litt enig (5)	Enig (6)	Svært enig (7)
Bonaqua (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Drøm (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Olden (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13 - Jeg tror/vet at smaken til dette merket er forfriskende:

	Svært uenig (1)	Uenig (2)	Litt uenig (3)	Nøytral (4)	Litt enig (5)	Enig (6)	Svært enig (7)
Bonaqua (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Drøm (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Olden (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14 - Jeg tror/vet at smaken til dette merket er naturlig:

	Svært uenig (1)	Uenig (2)	Litt uenig (3)	Nøytral (4)	Litt emig(5)	Enig (6)	Svært enig (7)
Bonaqua (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Drøm (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Olden (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

15 - Samlet sett vet/tror jeg at smaken til dette merket er god:

	Svært uenig (1)	Uenig (2)	Litt uenig (3)	Nøytral (4)	Litt enig (5)	Enig (6)	Svært enig (7)
Bonaqua (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Drøm (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Olden (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Videre følger noen utsagn vedrørende reklamen du ble presentert for innledningsvis. Hvor enig er du i følgende utsagn?

16 - Jeg synes reklamen var god

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

17 - Jeg synes reklamen var interessant

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

18 - Jeg likte reklamen

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

19 - Når jeg tenker på dette merket er det tydelig for meg hva det står for

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

20 – Merket er "lett å plassere" sammenlignet med andre merker

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

21 – Det er lett å forholde seg til dette merket

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

22 - Det er lett å skille dette merket fra andre merker

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

23 - Jeg kan levende forestille meg hvordan det er å bruke dette produktet

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

24 - Jeg ser tydelig for meg hvordan det vil oppleves å bruke merket

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

25 - Når jeg tenker på dette merket kan får jeg en sterk fornemmelse for hvordan det smaker

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

26 – Når jeg tenker på merket kan jeg nesten kjenne virkningen av å bruke det

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

Videre følger noen utsagn vedrørende ditt personlige forhold til "vann med smak" - kategorien. Hvor enig er du i følgende utsagn:

27 - "Vann med smak" - kategorien er relevant for meg

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

28 - Vann med smak er noe folk forbinder meg med

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

29 - Jeg drikker mer vann med smak enn de fleste

☐ Svært uenig (1)
☐ Uenig (2)
☐ Litt uenig (3)
☐ Nøytral (4)
☐ Litt enig (5)
☐ Enig (6)
☐ Svært enig (7)

Personopplysninger

30 - Alder

☐ 0 - 18 (1)
☐ 19 - 25 (2)
☐ 26 - 30 (3)
☐ 31 - 40 (4)
☐ 41 - 50 (5)
☐ 51 - 60 (6)
☐ 61 + (7)

31 - Kjønn

☐ Kvinne (1)
☐ Mann (2)