MASTERARBEIT

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„The Feedback Effects of Service Extensions on a Product Parent Brand.

The Differences Between Product and Service Brand Extensions and the Main Drivers of Feedback Effects in the Service Context."

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Abstract

The purpose of this master thesis is to examine the feedback effects of service extensions on the brand image of a product parent brand. Therefore, findings of previous studies on brand extensions and feedback effects are transferred to the service context and it is examined whether previously identified drivers of feedback effects are valid in the context of asymmetric service extensions, from the product to the service sector. Specifically, the importance of service satisfaction for the occurrence of feedback effects is researched in this thesis.

An empirical study is conducted to detect the feedback effects of service extensions on the brand image of a product parent brand. The study reveals that image feedback effects do occur if product brands introduce service extensions. Particularly, service satisfaction is found to be the main driver of image feedback effects in this case, which in turn highlights the role of service quality when it comes to service extensions.

The results of the study imply that service quality, which is seen as the originator of service satisfaction, plays an essential role when introducing service extensions, especially when asymmetric service extensions, originating from a product parent brand, are concerned. This discovery opposes previous research findings, in the respect that service quality is proven to be more important than the perceived degree of fit, in the context of service extensions and their feedback effects on the product parent brand image. Furthermore, the strong parent brand used in the study is not found to be dilution resistant, which indicates the importance of the awareness of the drivers of feedback effects, to be able to introduce successful service extensions that enhance the parent brand, instead of diluting it.

So far, there has been no evidence of the drivers of feedback effects of product-to-service brand extensions. Therefore, the present study contributes a valuable part to the existing literature on brand extensions and feedback effects in a service setting.

Key words: service extensions; service satisfaction; image feedback effects; service quality
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1. Introduction

Introducing brand extensions, which means using an established brand name for new products or revised versions of products (Elliott & Percy, 2007), has become an acknowledged branding strategy. It helps to increase new product acceptance (Lei, Pruppers, Ouwersloot, & Lemmink, 2004), allows capitalization on previously acquired brand equity and reduces market entry risk by market entry barrier reduction (van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001).

Brand extensions have already been extensively researched, especially in the goods domain. However, in an increasingly homogeneous product landscape, service aspects play a more and more important role, which is proven by the fact that strong brands increasingly add service aspects to their offerings, as for instance Hewlett Parker, introducing imaging solutions and services (Lei, Prupper, Ouwersloot, & Lemmink, 2004). In addition to that, services represent the fastest growing economic sector and contribute a large part to the global economy, accounting for two thirds of the economic output and for nearly 20% of global trade (World Trade Organization, 2013).

Services substantially differ from products in that they are characterized by intangibility, inseparability of production and consumption, perishability and heterogeneity (Shostack, 1977). These characteristics imply that mistakes during the service delivery can hardly be kept secret from the consumer, that the personal interaction between the service provider and the customer influences the individual quality perception and accordingly the service evaluation and that controlling the service quality is difficult for the service provider due to the individuality of each service process. Therefore, the service encounter, where personal interaction and the actual service environment are experienced and finally the outcome quality is determined, involves uncertainty about the delivered service quality, which leads to a different risk perception when it comes to services in comparison with goods, as service quality can hardly be determined prior to consumption (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010).

Due to the substantial differences between the characteristics of goods and services, some of the benefits of brand extensions, such as image transfer, seem even more important in a service context, as services cannot be interpreted visually in advance and
possess less tangible elements. When it comes to brand extensions, the quality perception, which differs substantially between goods and services, should be taken into consideration, especially in the evaluation of service extensions (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000). Perceived service quality results, in comparison with the prior expectations, either in dissatisfaction or satisfaction with the extension. This in turn is expected to produce the feedback effects (van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001), which describe the impact of the extension evaluation on the parent brand (Lane & Jacobson, 1997). In general, brand extensions have already been heavily researched. In particular, the concept of perceived fit has been heavily discussed in the literature on product brand extensions and is generally classified as one of the main drivers of feedback effects in the goods domain (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). Due to the differences between goods and services, the findings on feedback effects from the goods domain, like the role and impact of perceived fit for instance, are expected to take a different shape in the service context, as other factors, such as perceived service quality, assume greater importance in the evaluation of services compared to goods. Nevertheless, the feedback effects of service brand extensions on a product parent brand and especially the impact of service quality and customer satisfaction on the feedback effects on the parent brand, in the service context have not yet been investigated.

Given this research gap and the growing importance of services as well as brand extensions, feedback effects of service extensions on a product parent brand, provide an interesting and important field for marketing research. The numerous distinctions between goods and services touched upon above, suggest that the evaluation of brand extensions and more importantly, the feedback effects on the parent brand differ between product and service extensions (van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001). Nevertheless, service extensions, especially extensions from the product into the service sector have hardly been investigated (van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001). Brand extensions can be useful if they enhance the brand image or reinforce attributes associated with the brand (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009). However, brand extensions can also harm the parent brand and for instance dilute the brand meaning (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009; Roedder John, Loken, & Joiner, 1998). Particularly such feedback effects on the parent brand image, have been examined for product extensions but not for asymmetric brand extensions from the product into the service sector. These facts highlight the need for scientific research in the field of brand
extensions from the product into the service sector. Therefore, the following research question has been developed to guide the purpose of the study:

“How do feedback effects of service extensions influence the product parent brand image?”

To answer the research question, first the necessary theoretical background is explained and elaborated upon. The differences between services and goods are highlighted and a literature review on brand extensions and feedback effects is given. Out of the first part of the thesis, hypotheses about the feedback effects on the parent brand are developed, which are tested in the empirical study following it. Second, the empirical part investigates how feedback effects of service extensions influence the product parent brand. Therefore, a well known and established brand from the sports industry is chosen and four hypothetical service scenarios are developed, in order to project the feedback effects on the parent brand. All of the fictitious service scenarios are characterized by the same degree of tangibility and interaction, ensuring proper comparability. In order to conduct the research, a questionnaire is designed, that tests the quality perception of the parent brand, before and after the brand extension, the service itself, in particular service satisfaction and quality, and the feedback effects of the service extensions on the parent brand. The service scenarios are pretested, to detect whether they fulfil the requirements for the study and represent a high and a low fit extension to the brand in question, a second pre-test follows, in order to see if the scenarios represent the same level of interaction and tangibility but different service quality and satisfaction levels. Finally, the study is conducted and the feedback effects on the parent brand are tested and elaborated upon in order to answer the research question and give theoretical implications.
2. Literature Review

2.1. Brands and Branding

Brands are intangible assets that constitute value to companies (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). In general, they can be defined as following:

“A Brand is a name, term, sign, symbol or design or combination of them, intended to identify goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors”

(Kotler & Keller, 2006, p. 274).

Branding a product hence means adding brand elements, like a logo or a slogan to the products offered by the company, and by doing so, addressing a certain target group that identifies with the brand. This aims at positioning the brand in the heads of consumers, which means that it occupies a certain place in the minds of the target market, distinctive from competitive brands (Kotler & Keller, 2006).

In addition to that, a brand creates reputation and awareness and thereby guarantees recognition in the market (Keller, 2008). As services differ from goods in terms of tangibility, they cannot be marked as easily as goods by the brand elements mentioned above. Therefore, service brands can be described more precisely as distinctive ideas of services in the consumer’s mind, whereas the service appears alike, with constant or increasing quality over a long time span (Meffert & Bruhn, 2009).

When it comes to service branding, several difficulties stemming from the characteristics of services, which are explained in detail later on, arise. A service brand has to help and ascertain the consumer in the choice of the service, which is why service brands, lacking tangible elements, need a particularly strong identity, which is transported to the end-consumer during the service delivery and is ideally identical with the arising image of the service brand in the head of the consumer (Meffert & Bruhn, 2009). In service branding and positioning it is of special importance to understand the conception of customer value and to include it in the service delivery process, in order to ensure that the consumer has a distinctive picture of the service brand in mind (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).
Brands in general exist in the heads of people, and therefore add intangible dimensions to the product or service, that ensure differentiation from the brands and products of competing companies. They serve different functions for consumers as well as for companies. First, they simplify consumers’ choices by telling what they stand for, guaranteeing the brand promise and representing values like prestige for instance, the consumer can identify with. If customers are once familiar and satisfied with a brand and are able to identify themselves with it, it can serve as a risk reducer in the buying process, signalling a certain quality level (Keller & Lehmann, 2006), which is especially important in the context of service brands (Meffert & Bruhn, 2009). Second, for the brand owner or company some key functions of a brand are the ability to protect it through trademarks, the communication function that helps to create and shape the brand image and the resulting consumer brand loyalty (Keller, 2008). Thus, providing brand equity, the brand also serves an important financial function for the company (Keller & Lehmann, 2006).

Brands can be divided into corporate and product brands. Corporate brands refer to the manufacturer of products or the service provider, whereas product brands relate to the product level. Hence, corporate brands are more likely to possess intangible characteristics that can be applied to several product classes, which is the basis for high credibility and extendibility. Consequently, they provide a better basis for brand extensions than product brands (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000).

To manage brands successfully and to assess their performance, it is essential to properly understand the concept of brand equity (Keller & Lehmann, 2006), which describes the value of a brand either from a financial point of view, or from the customers’ standpoint, including all the subjective assessments beyond the objective value and is a measure of brand strength. Customer-based brand equity is constituted by the supplementary value that a firm adds to its products (Martínez, Montaner, & Pina, 2009) and is reflected by the attraction of customers towards the brand (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). The financial-based brand equity refers to the worth of a brand in monetary terms (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). Brand equity can be modified through the introduction of brand extensions. It can either be enhanced, in that the brand has a higher value to the customer or in financial terms after the brand extension, but lowered as well, as in the case of dilution of the brand image for example, which is explained later, on page 38.
2.2. Services

The service sector is of increasing importance in the worldwide economy as its share of the gross domestic products around the world is augmenting (Statista, 2013). In Austria for example, the service sector accounts for 69.3% of the gross domestic product, which is the largest share of the Austrian GDP. Still, the Austrian service sector in numbers is slightly behind the average of the EU 27, where the service sector accounts for 73.6% of the average GDP (Wirtschaftskammer Österreich, 2010). These numbers highlight the economic importance of this sector, but in addition to that, services are essential in providing companies with proper means to differentiate from the competition (Lovelock & Yip, 1996). Nearly all products possess service components, whereas the difference between services and manufactured goods is the degree to which the characteristics of services, which will be explained in the following section of the thesis, are present (Rushton & Carson, 1989). Goods are often the basis for services (Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004), and by adding services or service elements to their offering, companies can increase customer satisfaction, retain customers in the long run, build customer loyalty and accordingly increase their overall profit margins (Brown, Sichtmann, & Musante, 2011). Moreover, the service component, as after sales service for instance, in many products rises and gets more and more important in the overall quality evaluation, as it differentiates one seller from another (Lei, Pruppers, Ouwersloot, & Lemmink, 2004). Nevertheless, the marketing practices applied in the goods sector cannot be simply transferred to the service sector, primarily based on the substantial differences between the two categories (Rushton & Carson, 1989), and the need to investigate services and specifically brand extensions in the service context is constantly increasing. Therefore, services, their characteristics, their attributes, as well as brand extensions from the goods into the service sector and the feedback effects on the product parent brand, will be focused on in the following chapters as the discrepancies in the characteristics between goods and services are expected to produce differences in the brand extension evaluation and following the feedback effects on the parent brand.

2.2.1. Characteristics of Services

While goods can be seen as bundles of attributes, satisfying consumers’ needs, services are rather regarded as “promises of satisfaction” (Walker, 1995, p. 5), directed towards consumers’ needs. Products are homogeneous, manufactured, physical goods and hardly
personalized, whereas services are performed (Rushton & Carson, 1989) and therefore individually produced for the consumer, each having unique characteristics (Walker, 1995).

The most important differences between goods and services are the following four characteristics of services:

- Intangibility
- Heterogeneity
- Inseparability
- Perishability

(Shostack, 1977; Shostack, 1987; Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004).

The first essential difference between services and goods is the degree of tangibility, which can be visualized on a goods-service spectrum (Rushton & Carson, 1989; Lei, Pruppers, Ouwersloot, & Lemmink, 2004).

As can be seen above, services can be classified based upon their degree of **tangibility**. In general, services are rather intangible, which means that the consumer cannot smell, touch, see, hear or feel whatever service he or she is purchasing, in advance (Ghobadian, Speller, & Jones, 1993). Hence, services lack corporality, which implies
that physical ownership cannot be acquired and the service can only be experienced but not owned (Shostack, 1977). The intangibility of services has significant implications for marketing as it is far more difficult for consumers to imagine what the product (i.e. service) is about, lacking corporality. In consequence, it is often difficult to evaluate the service prior purchase (Rushton & Carson, 1989). Furthermore, services are typically characterized by the **inseparability** of production and consumption, which means that the customer is directly involved in the production process. The service process, which can be thought of as replacing the physical product, might vary because of different sequences, effects of judgement or different choices (Shostack, 1987). Therefore, mistakes during the production process cannot be hidden and automatically influence the consumers’ perceived service quality. Participating in the service delivery process, the consumer and the service employees represent important parts of the whole procedure (Shostack, 1987; Ghobadian, Speller, & Jones, 1993). Another important aspect is the **heterogeneity** of services. This characteristic refers to the fact that services usually cannot be reproduced in an exact manner, as the personal contact between the consumer and the seller is indispensable and unique in every situation. The behaviour of both is a critical process component and inhibits the standardization of services. There is always a human element inherent in a service, which is why it is always prone to some degree of variation (Rushton & Carson, 1989). A decisive point hereby is, that the consumer has to actively communicate what he or she is expecting. The service provider in turn has to be capable of absorbing and processing this information correctly, to fulfil the service quality expectations, which might vary and modify during the service delivery process (Ghobadian, Speller, & Jones, 1993). In addition to that, services cannot be stored but have to be produced when demanded, which means they are **perishable**. This is the fourth important characteristic and distinction between goods and services (Rushton & Carson, 1989; Ghobadian, Speller, & Jones, 1993).

### 2.2.2. Attributes of Services

Goods as well as services possess search, experience and credence attributes, as can be seen in Figure 1 on page 14. Notable is, that services are richer in experience and credence attributes than goods. The services’ attributes play a decisive role in the evaluation of the service. Depending upon the kind of attributes the service possesses, an evaluation in advance is possible, hardly possible or not possible at all (Walker, 1995).
Search attributes are characteristics of the service that can be evaluated before the purchase or consumption and therefore help the consumer to estimate what he or she will get in exchange for the price he or she pays. Therefore, search attributes provide information either about the price or the quality to the end-consumer prior purchase. An alternative way to obtain information is to actively experience the product or service (Nelson, 1970). Hence, experience attributes, as for instance reliability or the ease of use, cannot be evaluated prior to the purchase but estimated through reviews and reports of other consumers and experienced during the service (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).

Credence attributes are the hardest ones to evaluate, even after the consumption of the service. The customer usually lacks the knowledge to assess the value of credence attributes (Darby & Karni, 1973) and therefore, the service quality. If the service is rich in credence attributes, as a medical service for instance, it cannot be evaluated (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). Hence the customer has to rely on the service provider when it comes to credence attributes (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).

The afore listed attributes and characteristics of services influence the evaluation of services (Rushton & Carson, 1989) and the consumer’s perception of risk. Therefore, they must be taken into account when it comes to service quality and the consumer’s evaluation of service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985), which will be explained in detail on page 19 f.. The consumer has a different risk perception as regards services in comparison to goods, as goods usually incorporate a lot of search attributes that can be assessed and evaluated through visual inspection in advance, whereas services possess a higher number of credence attributes, as can be seen on the goods service continuum on page 14 (Elliott & Percy, 2007). In general, the more difficult the evaluation of the service is, for instance due to a high number of credence attributes, the higher the perceived risk of the consumer is. Especially first time users, not having any references or personal experience with the service, might encounter a higher perceived risk when purchasing a service instead of a product, whereas the perceived risk depends on the gravity of the outcome (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).

Different types of risk the consumer faces when purchasing a service are: financial, functional, temporal, physical, psychological, social, and sensory risks. Uncertainty and the connected risk can be reduced by the company, by providing previews, using evidence management, using the corporate brand as figurehead or for instance installing safety procedures (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). Furthermore, service guarantees...
provide a good possibility to reduce the performance risk and lower the financial risk associated with a service, especially in the case of sophisticated services (Lei, de Ruyter, & Wetzels, 2008).

Manufactured goods in general have a lower degree of service intensiveness, defining service intensiveness as the involvement of the consumer in the service process and the interaction between the provider and the consumer. Service intensiveness is highly interrelated with the extent to which the service possesses tangible elements, displayed on the goods-service continuum on page 14, in that the higher the intangibility is the higher the service intensiveness is. Accordingly, the degree of risk perception varies, depending on how much interaction takes place, how tangible the service is, how many tangible elements are inherent in the service, as well as what is being processed and how the consumer is involved. Consequently, the evaluation and quality perception of a service differs from the evaluation and quality perception of manufactured goods (Lei, Prupper, Ouwersloot, & Lemmink, 2004).

When it comes to service brand extensions, well known parent brands can be used to build trust and therefore reduce the risk inherent with the service. The brand imposed onto the extension serves as quality indicator and provides credibility, similar as in product extensions. As services typically possess more credence attributes than goods, consumers have to rely on cues like the brand image, to assess the quality of the service prior purchase and thereby diminish the risk inherent in the acquisition of a service product (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000).

2.2.3. Categories of Services

Services might additionally be divided into four different categories according to what or who the direct recipient of the service is and whether tangible or intangible actions are used. Tangible actions are typically actions affecting people’s bodies or possessions, whereas intangible actions refer to the mental processing or processing of intangible property (Lovelock C. H., 1983).

The first category, **people processing** encompasses services where tangible actions are directed towards people’s bodies. This could for instance be passenger transportation, or as in the following empirical study, personal training lessons. For this type of service, people have to actually enter the service system and physical location where the service
is delivered as they themselves participate in the service delivery process (Lovelock & Yip, 1996). Additionally, the customer has to be willing to cooperate in the service process and specify what he or she wants, to receive the desired benefit or outcome (Lovelock C. H., 1983).

The second category is called **possession processing** and describes tangible actions directed towards physical possessions of people, as for instance laundry services. In contrast to the first category, possession processing does not imply simultaneous production and consumption, as customers are less personally involved in the service process (Lovelock C. H., 1983).

The third category, **mental stimulus processing**, encompasses intangible actions directed towards people’s minds, as for instance education. This implies that ethical standards have to be established, as people’s attitude or behaviour might be influenced. However, no physical but mental presence is necessary, to receive such a service. The core of a mental stimulus processing service is, in contrast to the afore mentioned types, information based, which means that it can be stored digitally and consumed at a later point or repeatedly (Lovelock C. H., 1983).

The fourth category, **information processing**, comprises services where intangible actions are directed towards intangible assets, like for instance financial services. Information processing is the most intangible form of a service. Nevertheless, any kind of information can be stored on a tangible or digital platform (Lovelock C. H., 1983).

No matter what kind of category, the service encounter plays an significant role when it comes to the evaluation of the service. It refers to the time span during which the customer interacts with the service provider and describes the period where the service actually takes place and the consumer is in contact with the service provider, comprising all elements of the encounter, like physical appearance, waiting times and the service personnel (Walker, 1995). Hereby, services can be classified according to high or low contact service encounters. High contact service encounters describe services including personal contact and interaction throughout the service, whereas low contact service encounters describe services with little or no physical contact (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).
Depending on the category of service, the consumer has to be physically present and enter the place where the service is performed or not. Consequently, if experiencing direct contact, the consumer’s evaluation of and satisfaction with the service will be affected by the personal interaction with the staff, the appearance of the service facility or even the presence of other consumers (Lovelock C. H., 1983). Hence, it is essential to bear in mind the category of services and whether there is a large amount of contact between the service provider and the end-consumer or not, as the quality of and the satisfaction with a service might differ depending on the category. Therefore, when examining feedback effects of service brand extensions on product parent brands, the service category should be kept in mind.

2.2.4. Service Quality

To offer high quality is essential in today’s business environment, in both, services and manufactured goods (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). However, there are substantial differences between manufactured goods and services when it comes to quality (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1988). In general, service quality is a complex, multidimensional construct consisting of several components. There is no clear cut between the definitions of customer satisfaction and perceived service quality in the scholarly work reviewed for this thesis, as both concepts are highly interrelated (Caruana, 2002), which makes it even more difficult to accurately define perceived service quality and rises the need to take more than one model into consideration. One definition of service quality that meets the requirements of this study is the following:

“Quality in a service organization is the measure of the extent to which the service delivered meets the customer’s expectations”

(Ghobadian, Speller, & Jones, 1993, p. 49), whereas perceived service quality is based on the consumer’s subjective judgement (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988) and is composed by prior customer expectations, the actual process and outcome quality (Ghobadian, Speller, & Jones, 1993) and therefore involves outcomes as well as processes (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). Further definitions of service quality relate to the continuity with which the customer expectations are met or the accumulation of mistakes during and after the service delivery (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). Perceived service quality in
general has large impact on the behavioural intention, the purchase behaviour and the repurchase intention (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000). This is highly related to and influenced by the word of mouth people spread either when they are satisfied or dissatisfied with a service. By ensuring high service quality and fostering a positive word of mouth, the company can convince new customers of trying the service, and retain them by satisfying them with high service quality (Ghobadian, Speller, & Jones, 1993). Customer satisfaction stemming from high quality services, leads to favourable behavioural intentions of consumers, like the willingness to pay a price premium or to raise the purchase quantity for instance, whereas problems during the service delivery and negative experiences are more likely to result in unfavourable reactions, such as negative word of mouth for example (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996).

As services possess lots of credence attributes, consumers cannot derive the quality in advance but only experience service quality during the service delivery or judge it after the consumption of the service. Therefore, the subjective purchase risk is substantially higher in the context of services, compared to goods (Sichtmann, Klein, & Ostruk, 2008).

The quality dimensions identified by different authors can be summarized into five main service quality dimensions, consumers use to rate the overall service quality, which are tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).

To detect the critical points, where the rating of the five quality dimensions takes place, a very basic division of services can be used, namely the separation into the potential dimension, the process dimension and the outcome dimension. First, the potential dimension refers to the personal requirements of the service provider, like administrative competences for instance, commonly evaluated before the actual service is experienced. Second, the process dimension refers to the whole process of the service encounter, comprising the servicescape, which refers to setting where the service encounter takes place and comprises most tangible elements but also intangible elements which can be sensually perceived (i.e. smelled and tasted). And third, the outcome dimension describes the total quality evaluation after the whole service process (Meffert & Bruhn, 2009).
A further method of categorizing service performance is the division into the technical and functional dimension of the service. The technical dimension describes the core service, aimed at the satisfaction of the consumers’ needs, whereas the functional dimension refers to the supplementary services, or in other words, the way the core service is delivered (Walker, 1995).

In particular, the afore mentioned five quality dimensions could be used for a manipulation of service scenarios, like the ones used in the empirical part of the thesis for instance:

- The service encounter with its tangible elements / the appearance of the place where the service takes place, also called servicescape
- The reliability of the service
- The responsiveness of the service provider
- The assurance of the service provider
- The empathy of the service provider

The first point, the servicescape comprises the physical appearance of the service encounter, the overall impression, competence and appearance of the personnel and therefore shapes the service experience. It plays a fundamental role in the overall evaluation of the service process and is highly related to the service quality dimension “tangibles” (Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004). The servicescape incorporates the physical elements of the service and therefore provides the possibility to shape the customers’ emotional reaction, to design the entire service process and flow of activities performed during the service and to differentiate from the competition through an individual design of the service facility (Bitner, 1992). The latter four points relate to the personal contact between the service provider and the customer during the service delivery (Meffert & Bruhn, 2009).

2.2.5. Customer Expectations

Expectations describe what the consumer thinks and feels the service company should offer (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988) and are formed during the search and decision making process as well as depending upon personal needs, prior experiences, word of mouth communication, the brand image and others’ experiences (Ghobadian, Speller, & Jones, 1993). They create a frame of reference, which is used to judge the
service (Oliver, 1980) and might change in the course of time as they depend upon the specific situation. The expectations can be divided into desired, adequate and predicted service, as can be seen in the illustration beneath (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985).

![Diagram showing factors influencing service expectations](image_url)

Figure 2: Factors Influencing the Expectations of Services (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011)

The desired service describes what the customer wishes to receive (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993). This desire is shaped by the company’s promises and the personal belief in what might be possible to be delivered in combination with the personal needs. An adequate service can be thought of as the minimum the customer expects and accepts without being dissatisfied. On the one hand, it is shaped by situational factors, like the weather, and anticipated service levels from competitors’ services. On the other hand, it is affected by the predicted service, which is composed by the company’s service promise (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011), past experiences and experiences others’ delivered through word of mouth communication (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). In between desire and adequacy, there lies the so called zone of tolerance, which describes the variation the customer is willing to accept and where he or she does not pay specific attention to the performance of the service. The zone of tolerance varies from person to person and also depends on other factors, such as price for instance (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993). Outside the zone of tolerance, the customer will either be satisfied and react positively, or dissatisfied and react negatively (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011).

### 2.2.6. Customer Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction in general, is related to a certain situation (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988) and results from comparing the expectations about what is
probably going to happen, one has before the consumption of the service and the actual performance and perception of the good or service, evaluated after the consumption (Homburg, Koschat, & Hoyer, 2005; Bolton & Drew, 1991). Hereby, performance can be conceptualized with perceived quality and therefore be seen as global judgement or attitude (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). The actual performance of the service can, up to a certain degree, be influenced by the service provider, for instance through the setting of quality standards (Ghobadian, Speller, & Jones, 1993). The outcome of the comparison between the expectations and the actual performance can either be negative disconfirmation, resulting in dissatisfaction with a product or service, positive disconfirmation resulting in satisfaction, or confirmation, resulting in a neutral position, as can be seen in the figure beneath. Hence, customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a service is dependent on the discrepancy between expectations and actual performances (Bolton & Drew, 1991), whereas satisfaction can be thought of as a positive overall feeling about a service (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000). Furthermore, Parasuraman et al. (1994) propose that satisfaction with a specific transaction, resulting from service quality, product quality, in this specific case referring to the quality of the tangible goods used in the service, and price, influences the global impression about and the brand image of a firm. Therefore, the overall satisfaction and global brand image is influenced by various transactions (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1994) and customer satisfaction is expected to assume an important role when it comes to the feedback effects of service brand extensions on the product parent brand.

![Expected Performance vs Perceived Performance](https://via.placeholder.com/150)

- **Positive Disconfirmation**
  - $P > E$
  - Satisfaction

- **Confirmation**
  - $P \sim E$
  - Neutral

- **Negative Disconfirmation**
  - $P < E$
  - Dissatisfaction

*Figure 3: The Disconfirmation Model of Consumer Satisfaction (Oliver, 1980; Walker, 1995)*
In this simple customer satisfaction model, also called disconfirmation model, satisfaction arises at a point in time after the consumption. Therefore, it might be necessary to apply a more complex model, like the one explained subsequently, when it comes to the determination of service satisfaction (Walker, 1995).

In general, the satisfaction process of services is expected to be different from the product satisfaction process, which is conceptualized after the purchase, as a direct result of the process nature of services (Walker, 1995). Therefore, the service satisfaction process is better described using three stages, which are first pre-consumption, second consumption, and third post-consumption. This division into three stages helps to understand where satisfaction/dissatisfaction arises during the service encounter and displays the stages separately, still keeping the interrelation in mind. Furthermore, core and secondary services are taken into consideration, as well as the consumers’ zone of tolerance and the deliberation of expectations and the actual service, in each of the stages. In addition to that, when it comes to the determination of consumers’ service satisfaction, the consumer is generally not expected to feel dissatisfaction with a continuous service unless the basic expectations change for some reason. The information used to build the expectations, is updated automatically whenever useful information is provided, including the service delivery process (Walker, 1995).

The first instance of comparing the expectations with the actual performance in the service encounter happens before the core service is delivered. The **pre-consumption stage** refers to the servicescape (i.e. the physical appearance of the service encounter) but also to the service provider’s personality (such as friendliness for instance). The first stage therefore comprises lots of tangible elements, which can be evaluated far more easier than intangible elements or credence attributes. The assessment of the first stage can already have large impact on the overall satisfaction with the service and influences the expectations towards the following stage, the actual consumption (Walker, 1995). The evaluation of the **consumption stage**, where the core service is performed, can, as described above in the disconfirmation model, either be as expected, better or worse than expected. It is generally assumed that the consumers’ expectations are in large parts fulfilled if the core service is performed adequately. Even though, secondary services are still present during this stage and therefore still influence the overall service satisfaction evaluation (Walker, 1995). In the third stage, the **post-evaluation** of the
service takes place. Facets such as payment procedures fall into this stage, which also represent secondary services. The consumers’ focus is again shifted towards the secondary services, similar as in the first stage of evaluation (Walker, 1995).

The division into the described three stages just outlined, offers the benefit of properly defining the core service. Thereby, it gets clear what the consumer actually buys, but it also shows that not only the core service delivery influences consumer satisfaction (Walker, 1995). All together, the overall consumer satisfaction process results from the three related stages described above. Generally, the more intangible elements the core service encompasses, the more important the evaluation of the first and the third stage actually is, comprising tangible elements of the service (Walker, 1995). In the following hypothetical service scenarios, all three stages are briefly commented on and therefore assumed to influence the perceived service quality and the customer satisfaction.

2.3. Brand Extensions

The term ‘brand extension’ in general describes the utilization of a well-established brand name for new products or revised versions of products. Furthermore, the term ‘sub-brand’ can be utilized to describe a combination of a new and an existing brand, whereas a well-known brand that introduces brand extensions is typically called ‘parent brand’. If various brand extensions are introduced under the same parent brand, the parent brand might also be called ‘family brand’ (Keller, 2008).

Brand extensions are always related to the identification of growth opportunities, as the current product range is extended when introducing new products. Brand extensions can be one part of a whole branding strategy and usually permit the company to maximize the overall profit, to spread the risk over a larger number of products and to attract more consumers by using the brand name to cover a larger variety of offerings (Elliott & Percy, 2007). Thus, the brand image and brand awareness, constituting important aspects of brand equity, can be leveraged by introducing brand extensions (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009). Furthermore, brand extensions are especially popular as they permit the implementation of a new item for consumption with relative ease and lower risk than the establishment of a totally new and unknown brand (Völechner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2008). They are the natural consequence of increasing
competition and the maturing mass markets firms are confronted with, as there is a
general need for growth in order to remain successful and survive in the market. Brand
extensions offer a good possibility for the firm to assert their position in less saturated
markets than it is currently serving, by entering new segments. This in turn implies, that
in order to attract new buyers in a new segment of the market, the brand that is extended
must prove the ability of newly creating a competitive advantage through its reputation
and image (Kapferer, 2004).

Further reasons for brand extensions, considering the productivity of the company, are
the shared advertising costs for instance, primarily through a strong brand name that
experiences frequent product innovations, a stronger position in the market compared
with distributors’ brands, the avoidance of diminishing product categories, additional
categories to seasonal products, in order to make use of free production capacity and to
deal with legal restrictions on some product categories like cigarettes for instance.
Brand extensions might also be utilized to build and develop a brand in a new market,
by entering with the core brand, communicating and explaining the core benefit and
thereby building trust, and later on introducing sub- brands. A well known example for
this procedure is the brand Nivea, entering new markets with general care products,
followed by hygiene and hair care products, each communicating the core brand benefit
but also the specific daughter brand personality (Kapferer, 2004).

There are different possibilities and strategies to introduce either a brand extension, or a
brand stretch, which relates to an extreme form of brand extension, an extension out of
the core business of the brand (Kapferer, 2004). Hereby, it can be divided between two
general types of brand extensions, namely category and line extensions. Category
extensions refer to the introduction of a new product in a distinct product category
whereas line extensions describe the introduction of a product targeting a new consumer
segment within the same category, which can be completed by launching different
flavours for example (Keller, 2008).

In addition to that, one can distinguished between horizontal and vertical extensions.
Horizontal extensions refer to the launch of a new good (Rastogi, 2012), whereas
vertical extensions refer to the process of introducing a product or service either of
inferior or higher quality or at a higher or lower price level than the original product or
service (Lei, de Ruyter, & Wetzels, 2008).
2.3.1. Service Brand Extensions

The term ‘service brand extension’ refers to the introduction of a service under either a product or a service parent brand name, whereas asymmetric brand extensions form the goods into the service sector are of special interest in this particular case (Martinez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008). Recently, more and more companies have used the established brand awareness and the image of their product brand for the introduction of services (Sichtmann, Klein, & Ostruk, 2008). In this context, brand extensions can be seen as an instrument for enhancing the relationship with the customer by adding services to the company’s offering (Martinez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008).

Asymmetric brand extensions, from the goods into the service sector, imply a switch from a manufacturing company to a service provider, changing from product orientation to service orientation (Brown, Sichtmann, & Musante, 2011), which might bear several difficulties and challenges.

When talking about service brand extensions it is important to always keep the substantial differences between goods and services in mind, as the degree of tangibility and the inseparability of production and consumption for instance (Rushton & Carson, 1989). Services are often defined and understood as performances rather than objects, which leads to the assumption that the evaluation processes of service brand extensions are different from product extension evaluation processes (van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001).

Especially the intangibility of services and the simultaneity of production and consumption imply a different evaluation process of goods and services, as services cannot be inspected in advance and therefore the performance, in terms of perceived quality, can hardly be estimated prior to consumption (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). Accordingly, the characteristics of services imply a greater risk associated with the purchase of a service compared to the acquisition of a product. Therefore, consumers strongly depend on the signals available for the evaluation of quality and risk reduction, as the parent brand name and the image for example (Lei, de Ruyter, & Wetzes, 2008). In addition to that, the belief of the consumer, that the provider possesses the right skills to provide the extension, plays an important role when it comes to service extensions (van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001).
The perceived risk might be reduced by the usage of a corporate parent brand (Sichtmann, Klein, & Ostruk, 2008), with a strong corporate image, reflecting the associations, beliefs and attitudes the consumer has in mind when thinking about a company. Therefore, a well-built corporate brand, with a strong brand personality and image can be highly valuable in guaranteeing the quality of a service and foster positive word of mouth, which is especially important in the service domain. It can act as a filter, having a great impact on the perception and therefore influence the extension per se but also the assessment of the extension, in particular with regards to quality and the feedback effects on the parent brand, which will be discussed later on (de Ruyter & Wetzel, 2000).

### 2.3.2. Advantages and Disadvantages of Brand Extensions

Brand extensions in general might bring along advantages as well as disadvantages, depending on whether they are successfully implemented and the brand equity is successfully transferred onto the extension or not (Elliott & Percy, 2007). On the one hand, brand extensions might have lots of advantages if they are well implemented and carefully planned. The benefits can be classified into two main categories, which are: helping new product acceptance and providing positive feedback effects on the parent brand (Keller, Apéria, & Georgson, 2012).

Brand extensions can prevent the failure of new products by for example by providing credibility and familiarity through the established parent brand, and therefore facilitate new product acceptance. As customers inevitably for a certain set of expectations towards a brand after some time, in terms of quality and performance of products, the usage of an established brand name automatically shapes the image of the extension if the existing information and expectations are transferred to the extension. In addition to that, the perceived risk of consumers is reduced if the parent brand is already known and corporate credibility and trustworthiness are transported. Therefore, product trials are generated more easily and accordingly product acceptance is aided. Given an established brand name and demand for the extension from the consumers’ side, choosing a brand extension instead of developing a new brand might also help in gaining retailer distribution (Keller, Apéria, & Georgson, 2012) and thereby reduce market entry barriers (van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001). A further benefit of brand extensions is the reduction of marketing, communication and advertising costs due to arising synergies between the extension and the established brand (Buil, de
Cernatony, & Hem, 2008). As the brand is already known, awareness does not have to be created and introductory campaigns can focus on the product itself. Hence, the advertising expenditures are used more efficiently (Keller, Apéria, & Georgson, 2012) and the consumer is given the possibility of variety seeking, while still remaining loyal to the brand (Keller, 2008). In addition to the advertising efficiencies, costs can be saved when it comes to the labelling and packaging of new products, due to economies of scale. While creating a new brand is time and resource intensive, relying upon brand extensions not only saves costs but also increases the time to market. Moreover, especially the creation of a new appealing brand name is challenging as there is already a huge number of existing trademarks (Keller, Apéria, & Georgson, 2012).

Other benefits of brand extensions relate to the positive feedback on the parent brand which are explained in detail in a later section of the thesis (‘Positive Feedback Effects’).

On the other hand some general downsides might come along with the introduction of brand extensions. For instance, retailer resistance, as there are simply too much brands in one category, so that retailers are not able to add further products to their offering, or cannibalization of parent brand sales, as a line extension, like for example low-fat products, might cause consumers to switch within the brand. Even though this is seen as a possible downside of brand extensions, parent brand cannibalization is still preferred to consumers switching to competitive brands (Keller, Apéria, & Georgson, 2012).

Another disadvantage is the negative feedback effect that might damage the parent brand in terms of quality perception or the overall brand image. The negative feedback effects are referred to in detail in the section ‘Negative Feedback Effects’.

2.3.3. Extension Similarity

The majority of scholarly work on brand extensions refers to extension similarity as one of the main drivers of extension evaluation in the product domain (Buil, de Cernatony, & Hem, 2008). The perception of fit between the parent brand and the brand extension, or extension similarity is generally defined as
“a function of salient shared associations between the parent brand and the extension product”

(Thorbjornsen, 2005, p. 251), and measures the subjective distance between the parent brand and the extension (Kapferer, 2004). Usually, different dimensions like similarity, typicality and relatedness influence the perceived degree of fit (Thorbjornsen, 2005), which is found to be one of the most significant drivers of brand extension success, and to impact the consumers’ evaluation of the brand extension (Buil, de Cernatony, & Hem, 2008).

When talking about perceived fit, Aaker and Keller (1990) distinguish between product related fit and producer related fit. In terms of product fit, the extension can either be a complement or a substitute. A complementary extension means that the original and the extension product are used together or in similar situations to satisfy a need, whereas a substitute describes the replacement of the original product by the extension. The producer related fit refers to the belief of the consumer in the ability of the producer, in particular in terms of skills and resources, to provide the extension (Aaker & Keller, 1990).

When determining the extension similarity, a brand schema theory can be applied, which distinguishes between a product-related schema, characterised by functional and concrete product associations, and a non-product-related schema, characterised by abstract image associations with the brand. The similarity at the product level is dependent upon the rapport between the parent brand and the extension, such as in the case of similar usage situations, whereas the similarity at image level, also called image consistency, relates to the extent to which the extension is able to mirror the parent brand image (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000).

Accordingly, when talking about the perceived fit and extension similarity it can be differentiated between two types of fit, namely category fit and image fit. The first one describes the similarity between the old category that has been served traditionally and the new product category, entered with the extension. If the usage situations resemble each other or the products or services possess similar attributes, the degree of category fit, or product similarity will be perceived as high (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000). The second one, the image fit alludes to the image congruency between the parent brand
image and the image of the extension. The image congruency will be high if the extension and the original brand have the same meaning to consumers and if the extension reflects the brand concept successfully (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009). This is especially important when the extension expands the product offering into a new market. Therefore, both, category and image fit are measured in the empirical study, by asking the respondents whether the extension fits to the other products offered by the brand (category fit) and whether the extension fits the overall image of the parent brand (image fit). In this context the transferability and competence of the provider, which refer to the company’s ability and skills to produce products in another category as well, is found to be an important driver of the degree of fit (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000), as already identified by Aaker and Keller (1990). When offering services, especially the ability to interact with the consumer is seen as an important competence of the provider (Sichtmann, Klein, & Ostruk, 2008).

In general, the perception of fit will be high if the brand meaning of the extension and the original product are the same and additionally, both evoke the same image-based associations (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000). Extensions with a high degree of fit are more likely to be evaluated positively, since the extension is more credible and trustworthy if it fits the parent brand and the positive quality perceptions are likely to be transferred to the brand extension. This relationship has already been observed in various studies (Martínez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008; de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000, Buil, de Cernatony, & Hem, 2008). Accordingly, in case of a low level of similarity between the parent brand and the extension, the fit will be regarded as low and the extension will be evaluated less favourably and will hardly be accepted by consumers, no matter how strong the parent brand is (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000).

The perception of fit is also regarded as relevant in the service environment, as an addition to quality aspects (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010). Nevertheless, the general similarity of the extension and the brand is found to be more important in the service context than the single attributes associated with other products of the company (Sichtmann, Klein, & Ostruk, 2008). As fit is regarded as important in the field of product brand extensions, and there is no clear evidence of whether fit impacts service extension evaluation and accordingly feedback effects, in the subsequent empirical part, hypothetical service scenarios for high as well as low fit service extensions are included. The inclusion of both, high and low fit service
extensions aims to detect differences in the occurrence of feedback effects on the parent brand according to the degree of fit.

2.3.4. Evaluation of Brand Extensions

Given the growing number of brand extensions, it is of increasing importance to understand the consumers’ evaluation of brand extensions. The consumers’ assessment of brand extensions depends largely on what kind of, or if any information in addition to the parent brand, about the brand extension is available. If no additional information about the extension is offered, consumers usually rely on the existing parent brand knowledge and information about the extension category in general. If this is the case, four basic conditions must hold true for a positive extension evaluation: positive associations about the parent brand, some of the positive associations must be evoked by the brand extension, negative associations with the parent brand are not taken over to the extension and no negative associations are elicited by the extension itself (Keller, 2008).

According to the prior academic work on general brand extensions not only the parent brand knowledge and familiarity (Völkner & Sattler, 2006) is considered in the evaluation but a large number of additional factors. The most obvious ones are the perception of fit between the parent brand and the extension, the perceived quality of the parent brand and the extension (Kapferer, 2004; Aaker & Keller, 1990), the image of the parent brand, which consists of the individual associations the consumer has with the brand (Keller, 2008) and the information available about the extension (Lei, Pruppers, Ouwersloot, & Lemmink, 2004).

Aaker and Keller (1990) put forward that there is a relation between the perceived quality of the parent brand and the consumers’ opinion about a brand extension into an unrelated category. Hereby, the extent to which the quality of the parent brand and other positive associations are transferred to the extension is a consequence of the degree of fit between the parent brand and the extension. The better the fit between the two, the more associations are generally transferred and the better the attitude towards the extension will be (Aaker & Keller, 1990).
Furthermore, Lei et al. (2004) state that the extension evaluation is mainly based on the initial attitude towards the brand and the perceived degree of fit, but nevertheless other factors such as quality influence the arising attitude towards the extension.

In general, corporate brands are more likely to successfully introduce brand extensions than product brands, as corporate brands possess more intangible elements that might cover different product categories. Moreover, corporate brands, representing the manufacturer of products or provider of services, provide more credibility, which is also influencing the extension evaluation (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000).

Briefly summing up the most important and most commonly mentioned factors that drive the extension evaluation, it can be stated that the perceived fit influences the extension evaluation in case of product brand extensions. Furthermore, parent brand quality and the quality difference between the original product and the extension is seen as important and finally, the parent brand image influences the attitude towards the extension in case of product brand extensions.

2.3.5. Evaluation of Service Brand Extensions

The evaluation of service brand extensions has been found to differ considerably from the evaluation of product brand extensions due to the high number of distinctions between services and goods, by various authors (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000; Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010; van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001). As a consequence of these differences, some of the benefits of brand extensions, like the image transfer, seem even more important in a service context, as services cannot be interpreted visually in advance and possess less tangible elements. Especially the quality perception, which differs substantially between goods and services (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985), should be taken into consideration when it comes to the evaluation of service brand extensions (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010) and the feedback effects on the product parent brand.

The image of the parent brand, seen as intangible dimension of the brand (Kapferer, 2004), is particularly important when it comes to service brand extensions, as it provides credibility and reduces the risk for the consumer, keeping in mind that services are characterized by the possession of credence attributes and intangible elements. A corporate brand might therefore influence the service extension evaluation, especially if
the extension lies in a field where the company has no previous experiences. Companies typically extend their businesses with service extensions into new markets. Consequently, not only the corporate brand image is of importance but one particular component of the image, which is the innovativeness of the company (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000).

The higher the credibility of the brand and company is, the higher and better the extension evaluation generally is. This is especially important when it comes to brand extensions from the product into the service sector, as services, as explained in detail before, are characterized by the possession of credence attributes. These imply that the consumer has to trust the service provider and needs to make use of information signals, such as the corporate image, as cues for the extension evaluation (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000). Not only the credibility but also the trust in the parent brand is found to positively influence the service extension evaluation (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010). In addition to that, de Ruyter and Wetzels (2000) found out that service extensions to related markets are preferred over extensions to unrelated markets (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000).

It is suggested in the study of van Riel et al. (2001), that in the evaluation of service extensions other aspects than in the evaluation of product brand extensions are significant. Nevertheless, they confirm that there is a positive relationship between the perceived quality of the parent brand and the extension evaluation, also in a service context. Moreover, they affirm that the perceived fit assumes a relevant role in both, product and service brand extensions. The perceived fit between the extension and the parent brand is found to be positively related with the attitude towards the extension. Furthermore, if the parent brand and the extension match in some way, it is more probable that the perceived quality of the parent brand is transmitted to the extension. The complementarity, which describes the degree to which the usage situation of the original and the extension resemble each other, is found to be more important in service than in product brand extensions (van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001; Sichtmann, Klein, & Ostruk, 2008). Overall, if service parent brands are concerned, high extension similarity is found to positively impact the perceived service quality of the extension (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010).

However, in contrast to the previous findings on product brand extensions, Völckner et al. (2010) put forward that the parent brand quality, and not the extension similarity, is
the dominant driver of service extension evaluation. In particular when placing the focus on the service quality dimensions, the perceived interaction quality and the perceived outcome quality of the parent brand are detected to significantly impact the service extension evaluation (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010). This highlights that there are contradictory opinions in the literature about the evaluation of brand extensions, especially service brand extensions.

Nevertheless, the success of the service extension per se is independent from the consequential influence of the extension on the parent brand, as will be discussed in a later section of the thesis.

When talking about service brand extensions from a service parent brand, the parent brand service quality is found to be a stronger driver of the extension evaluation than the perception of fit (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010), which is contradictory to the findings on product brand extensions and highlights the importance of quality in the service context.

Specifically, Völckner et al. (2010) state that in the extension evaluation, the overall quality assessment as well as the evaluation of the single service quality dimensions (interaction quality, physical environment quality and outcome quality) is superior if the perceived quality of the parent brand is higher. More precisely, interaction quality refers to the personal contact between the consumer and the service provider that happens during the service delivery. The physical environment quality describes the influence of the tangible environment of the place where the service delivery process occurs, on the consumers’ quality evaluation. This is of importance as the consumer is usually present at the service delivery due to the inseparability of production and consumption. Moreover, the outcome quality refers to the final outcome, the consumer is left with (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010).

Furthermore, the sympathy and trust towards the parent brand, which usually results from previous affirmative experiences, can positively impact the assessment of the service extension (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010). In addition to that, Lei et al. (2004) affirm that extensions that are less service intensive than the original product will be evaluated better than extensions with high service intensiveness (Lei, Pruppers, Ouwersloot, & Lemmink, 2004).
2.4. Feedback Effects

In general, feedback effects can occur in a positive or negative way and are independent from the success of the brand extension per se. They describe the effects the brand extension has on the parent brand image in the post-evaluations of the parent brand (Keller, 2008; Lane & Jacobson, 1997).

Feedback effects depend amongst other things on whether the brand that is extended has a high, medium or low brand equity. High equity brands as Nivea for instance, are said to evoke more positive associations and a more facetted picture in the heads of consumers. They are associated with high quality and have more loyal consumers than low equity brands. Such high brand equity can thus be more easily capitalized on by introducing brand extensions (Buil, de Cernatony, & Hem, 2008). Brand extensions are a good strategy to enhance the product offering if they reinforce the associations with the brand and thus produce positive feedback effects, in terms of strengthening the brand image and the brand equity (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009).

Even if the brand extension per se is successfully implemented, it can harm the parent brand and the parent brand image (Völckner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2008), such as by introducing confusing associations (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009), depending amongst other things on the extension similarity and the quality of the extension compared with the quality of the parent brand (Buil, de Cernatony, & Hem, 2008).

In general, feedback effects can be analysed in two different ways. First, panel data can be utilized to detect whether cannibalization between the products occurs. Second, consumer survey data can be used to analyze whether the parent brand image is affected by the launch of a new product under the same brand name or not. Furthermore, consumer survey data is important to find out how factors like the degree of fit or quality influence the feedback effects on the parent brand (Völckner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2008).

In the illustration below, a simplified process from the parent brand across the brand extension to the feedback effects on the parent brand, is displayed. First, the brand assets that can be transmitted from the parent brand to the extension and parent brand quality and image, shape the extension perception together with the extension similarity. Second, the concept of the brand extension and the brand attributes inherent in the
extension, impact the extension evaluation and consequently shape the feedback effects on the parent brand.

2.4.1. Positive Feedback Effects

When talking about positive feedback effects the following points are of special importance: First, the clarification and enlargement of the brand meaning, which means that as a result of the extension the brand name evokes a more complete and broader picture of the brand meaning (like weight watchers not only standing for weight loss but also for maintenance). Second, the enhancement and strengthening of the parent brand image, which is the case if positive existing brand associations are strengthened, if the favourability of certain associations is improved or if new, positive brand associations are added (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009). Third, the amplification of market coverage, as the absence of certain brand benefits, added through the extension, might have prevented some consumers from buying the brand. Fourth, the revitalization of the brand, achieved by arising interest through the new product offering, and fifth, the permission of subsequent extensions (Keller, Apéria, & Georgson, 2012).

Furthermore, expanding the brand’s extendibility might be considered a positive feedback effect, if this expansion does not simultaneously create dilution effects. Such enhancement of the extendibility occurs when extensions and the original product category are image consistent and the category associations are broadened. In this case the company might introduce further brand extensions and enhance the product category associations (for example watches are not only seen as utility but also as accessories), while the existing brand beliefs remain the same. In her study from 2001 Milberg suggests, that an explanation of the relation and the connection between the brand and
the extension to the customer, enhances the brand’s extendibility and therefore favours positive feedback effects (Milberg, 2001).

Furthermore, advertising spillover effects (particularly reciprocal spillover effects) can be seen as positive feedback effects. Hereby, a distinction between forward spillover effects, which is the case when advertising for the parent has an effect on the extension, and reciprocal spillover effects, which refer to the situation in which the extension is promoted and the parent brand profits from this advertising, in terms of brand recall for instance, has to be made. However, forwards spillover effects are found to be weaker than reciprocal spillover effects (Balachander & Ghose, 2003).

2.4.2. Negative Feedback Effects

Negative feedback effects generally refer to the fact that the parent brand image is worse after the extension evaluation than before, which might be very difficult to reverse. In case of experiencing negative feedback effects, the brand might not be exclusively allied with a certain product anymore, which leads to a dilution of the quality perception and brand image. In this context, an extension might also hurt the overall parent brand image, by introducing new associations that are regarded as inconsistent but nonetheless are incorporated into the image of the brand. In addition to the image, the overall brand meaning can be diluted, especially if the identification with a certain product category is diminished (Keller, Apéria, & Georgson, 2012). This especially occurs if consumers are exposed to negative information about the extension, as put forward by different studies (Völckner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2007; Ahluwalia & Gürhan-Canli, 2000). Furthermore, dilution can also occur at the product level in that the flagship product, carrying the brand name is perceived as less strong or not dominant in the category any more. This goes hand in hand with the risk of depressing the company’s overall sales, and in the long run, a lower quality perception of the whole brand, as the flagship product acts as important example for everything the brand stands for (Roedder John, Loken, & Joiner, 1998). In addition to that, highly familiar brands are more likely to experience dilution and negative feedback effects than unfamiliar brands (Thorbjornsen, 2005). Moreover, prestige brands are especially prone to dilution if downscale brand extensions, which means that the extension is of inferior quality than the original product, are introduced (Dall’Olmo Riley, Pina, & Bravo, 2012).
A so called negative fit effect appears if non-related extensions, or low fit extensions are perceived as being less reliable than the original product. This negatively influences the attitude towards the extension and accordingly the success of the extension per se, as well as the feedback effects on the parent brand. Hence, the degree of fit is seen as driver of negative feedback effects. The negative feedback effect might either affect brand attributes or the general brand associations. Even though the core parent brand personality is found to be more stable and less prone to dilution than general beliefs about the brand or product (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009).

The most severe form of negative feedback effects is the dilution of the parent brand name through negative associations introduced by a brand extension (Martinez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008). Dilution generally refers to a negative change of the consumers’ beliefs about and attitude towards the parent brand, which can be thought of as feedback on the parent brand, that might either affect the whole brand image or single elements of the brand image (Loken & Roedder John, 1993; Roedder John, Loken, & Joiner, 1998). Dilution might even reduce the sales of other products marketed under the same brand and therefore have grave consequences for the parent brand (Buil, de Chernatony, & Hem, 2008). Especially prestige brands are more likely to run the risk of diluting the brand meaning when introducing brand extensions, as the self expression benefits, evoked by a flagship product might be modified if the extension does not have the same quality level or does not communicate the self expression benefit (Roedder John, Loken, & Joiner, 1998).

The occurrence of brand name dilution can be observed from different perspectives, which is connected with the models of brand schema modification, explained on page 48 f.. Hereby, it can be stated that the extent to which the information about the extension is inconsistent with the parent brand and the fact whether the extension is perceived as typical or not, determine the vulnerability of the brand name or attribute dilution (Loken & Roedder John, 1993). In particular, Loken & Roedder John (1993) find evidence for brand name dilution in their empirical study, in that favourable attributes associated with the parent brand are diminished through an unsuccessful brand extension. However, they also discover that general quality beliefs are dilution resistant in both cases, high and low typicality, whereas distinctive and more specific characteristics are diluted (Loken & Roedder John, 1993).
Furthermore, brand extensions that are inconsistent with or do not fit the parent brand image or the original product category, are found to limit the extendibility of the brand, which inhibits further brand extensions and is therefore seen as negative feedback effect (Milberg, 2001).

### 2.4.3. The Role of Brand Image in the Context of Feedback Effects

In the context of feedback effects, the brand image assumes a central role, since brand extensions might influence and alter the perception of the whole brand, and therefore impact the parent brand image, or at least components of the image. Associations created by brand extensions might either enhance and strengthen the brand image or negatively affect the parent brand image (Martínez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008), as associations with the brand extension are embedded into the existing networks, according to the associative network theory. This theory describes the brand image as a mental scheme, consisting of stored information, also called nodes, which are interconnected by links that represent the strength of brand associations (Martínez Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009; Keller, 2008).

A general definition of the **brand image** is the following:

> “the consumers' perception about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumers’ memory”

(Keller, 2008, p. 51),

whereas brand associations are subjective networks and structures, representing any kind of stored information about the brand, in the heads of consumers. Therefore, brand images enable consumers to distinguish between competing brands through the different associations towards them (Martínez & de Chernatony, 2004).

When talking about service brand image, the image describes the attitudes towards the service provider. The image of a service brand represents an important quality indicator and therefore influences the risk perception of the consumer (Meffert & Bruhn, 2009). The image is built up by expectations and attitudes towards the brand or service provider, arising from personal experiences, feelings and narrations and is thus a direct result of different learning processes (Linxweiler, 2004). The corporate image might serve as quality indicator, and therefore influence the consumers’ satisfaction evaluation
with the service, the word of mouth spread by consumers and customer loyalty (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000), whereas customer loyalty in the service sector is determined by the degree to which the customer repeats the purchase, has a positive overall attitude towards the service provider and the degree to which a different service provider is considered when the need for the service is present (Caruana, 2002).

Furthermore, the brand image comprises cognitive and affective elements, and hence describes the whole, subjective and changeable picture about the brand the consumer has in mind, in contrast to the relatively stable brand identity, defined by the company (Messing & Kilian, 2004). The more experiences people have with the brand and the more information about a brand is available, the broader and more stable the image of the brand generally is. Nevertheless, just some core characteristics, defined by the brand identity emboss the brand and determine the sympathy towards it (Herbst, 2005). To be aware of these core characteristics is especially important if brand extensions are planned to be introduced, as they play a crucial role when determining the perceived degree of fit between the parent and the extension. Generally, brand extensions always introduce a new set of attributes to the brand, which might either enhance or dilute the parent brand image, depending, amongst other factors, on whether the extension fits the parent brand or not (Loken & Roedder John, 1993).

It has been suggested by various scholars that especially the image of service brands is interrelated with perceived service quality. The brand image might serve as pre-purchase quality indicator and therefore assumes a significant role in customer retention, service evaluation and service satisfaction (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000). When it comes to service brand extensions, the perceived quality might be shaped by the parent brand image, consumers have in mind before the extension. Especially if services are involved in the brand extension process, the initial brand image, comprising the quality perception, is seen as a driver of the extension evaluation (Martinez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008). Therefore, in order to examine the feedback effects of service brand extensions on the parent brand, the brand image, conceptualized with perceived quality, is used as main indicator for the feedback effects on the product parent brand in the later empirical study.
2.5. Potential Drivers of Feedback Effects of Service Brand Extensions on the Parent Brand Image

2.5.1. Service Satisfaction

As already reviewed above, there are proven differences between the evaluation of service and product brand extensions. Consequently, the drivers of feedback effects, in the case of service brand extensions, are expected to be different from the ones stemming from product brand extensions.

In general, the existence, degree and direction of feedback effects might be influenced by the differences in quality levels between the extension product and the parent brand, by the parent brand strength, the perceived extendibility of the parent brand, by the degree of fit between the parent brand and the extension product (Völckner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2008) and by the availability of extension information (Ahluwalia & Gürhan-Canli, 2000).

In addition to that, in the service context, the perceived quality, that has already been identified as central element in the context of service brand extensions by various authors (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010), resulting in either satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a service (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000), is supposed to assume an important role. The degree of fit is expected to play a minor role in the occurrence of feedback effects, due to the superordinated function of quality. The impact of extension information is not considered further, as all scenarios included in the empirical study provide the same level of information in order to be able to measure the impact of service quality and satisfaction on the feedback effects.

The distinct character of service quality, in comparison with the quality of goods has to be considered when researching service brand extensions (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010) and their feedback effects on the parent brand. The result of the quality evaluation of the service extension, according to the evaluation methods mentioned before, is either satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the service. This, in either case, provides new information about the parent brand to the customer, regardless of the fit. Using the original brand as reference point, it therefore largely depends on the extension quality whether the feedback effects on the parent brand are more likely to be positive or negative (Völckner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2008).
On the one hand, good quality of the extension, providing additional positive information is more likely to result in positive feedback effects or at least in no modification of the parent brand perception. On the other hand, bad or low quality of the extension, is probably going to result in parent brand dilution and negative feedback effects. If the parent brand is characterized by premium or high quality, the extension might hardly meet or exceed the existing quality standards. Thus, negative feedback effects are more probable for high quality and prestige than for low quality and weak brands (Völckner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2008).

Given the importance of quality in the service context in addition to the findings of previous studies (i.e. that quality is the dominant driver of extension evaluation in the service context (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010)), described above, the service extension quality and the resulting (dis)satisfaction are seen as important potential drivers of feedback effects of service brand extensions on a product parent brand.

Völckner et al. (2008) propose that it is likely that positive or at least no feedback effects on the parent brand arise when customers are satisfied with the service extension. Consequently, H1a is formulated building upon the finding of Völckner et al. (2008):

**H1a: Customer satisfaction with a service extension has a positive influence on the post image evaluation of the parent brand.**

On the contrary, in case customer satisfaction is low, resulting from a low quality service scenario, it is more likely that negative feedback effects arise and influence the parent brand image. This coincides with the findings of Völckner et al. (2008). Consequently, the following hypothesis is formulated:

**H1b: Customer dissatisfaction with a service extension has a negative influence on the post image evaluation of the parent brand.**

As already argued above, the brand image is an important quality indicator in the service context (Meffert & Bruhn, 2009). Parent brand quality is already found to be the dominant driver of the extension evaluation in the service domain (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010). Furthermore, in the context of feedback effects, Martínez & de Cherantony (2004) reveal that the original parent brand quality is
positively related to the final evaluation of the parent brand image (Martínez & de Chernatony, 2004). As parent brand strength and image are seen as particularly important in the service context, since consumers face greater uncertainty when purchasing services than when purchasing goods (Sichtmann, Klein, & Ostruck, 2008), the parent brand strength and quality is also seen as crucial element when it comes to feedback effects of service brand extensions.

If a brand already has a very strong image and its evaluations are high throughout, it is difficult to achieve further positive feedback effects. Therefore, strong brands are, according to Völckner, Sattler and Kaufmann (2008), more likely to experience negative feedback effects. This is connected to the so called ceiling- effect, which describes the difficulty to further strengthen strong brands, as the perception of the brand is already positive and its evaluation is already very high (Völckner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2008).

### 2.5.2. Prospect Theory

As this thesis concentrates on service brand extensions, the prospect theory is seen as relevant when it comes to the extension evaluation and following feedback effects on the parent brand.

Companies offering services face increasing pressure to deliver at least adequate services, continuously matching the consumers’ expectations, and to satisfy their consumers in order to retain them in the long run. If a service failure occurs, the company either has the possibility to re-establish customer satisfaction and strengthen customer loyalty, or not to react to the failure and risk the loss of customers (Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999).

In order to properly understand the relevance of compensation and recovery in case of a service failure, the prospect theory developed by Kahneman and Tversky (1997) is of great relevance. The prospect theory in general “suggests that losses are weighted more heavily than gains” (Maxham III & Netemeyer, 2002, p. 58) and that “in individual decision making, resources are weighted differentially according to their utility” (Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999, p. 359).

Transferred to the service context, this means that dissatisfaction with a service is weighed more heavily and has a larger impact on decisions and actions following it than
service satisfaction (Maxham III & Netemeyer, 2002). In addition to that, the evaluation of the service heavily depends on the individual’s utility. Moreover, customers remember negative service experiences longer than positive ones, which also impacts the service evaluation (Maxham III & Netemeyer, 2002) and accordingly the feedback on the parent brand in the case of brand extensions. The idea of the prospect theory is confirmed by the concept of asymmetric disconfirmation, which claims that satisfaction with a service is more heavily influenced by a negative performance than by a positive one (Mittal, Ross, & Baldasare, 1998). Therefore, these theories are seen relevant in the context of service brand extensions, where the perceived quality of the extension leads to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a service.

Depending on the type of loss suffered from a service failure the customer typically prefers different types of recovery. The recovery effort is evaluated depending on whether the service failure occurred in the core service and affects the service outcome, or during the service delivery process. The first type of loss, economic loss, occurs if outcome failures, such as overbooking of an airplane, happen. As recovery for an economic loss, economic resources are usually expected. In this case, a social resource, like an apology for an example, will not effectively impact the consumer’s perception of distributive justice. The second type of loss, social loss occurs when process failure happen, like for instance impolite personnel in a hotel. In this case the perception of justice will be influenced by recovery attributes like the communication of respect or an apology, in other words, social resources. In contrast, economic resources are expected to influence the interactional justice less than the distributive justice. In consequence, it can be concluded that the better the recovery effort matches the type of failure, the better the perceived justice is (Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999).

Stating that negative experiences are weighted more heavily than positive ones, the prospect theory is seen as important when it comes to the evaluation of service brand extensions and the feedback effects on the parent brand. Specifically, dissatisfaction with a service, arising from poor service quality and a disconfirmation of expectations, is expected to have a larger impact than satisfaction and to result in negative feedback effects on the parent brand. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

**H2: The negative effect of a service failure on the post-image evaluation will be stronger than the positive effect of a positive service experience.**
Hereby, service failure (customer dissatisfaction) results from a service scenario with low quality, and a positive service experience (customer satisfaction) results from a high quality scenario, which will be tested with manipulation checks in the empirical study.

2.5.3. Perceived Fit Between the Extension and the Parent Brand

As already reviewed, the perceived fit between an extension and the parent brand impacts the extension evaluation and is therefore of essential value for the success of the extension. Consequently, the extension similarity influences the feedback effects on the parent brand, in particular in case of product brand extensions (Buil, de Cernatony, & Hem, 2008).

Successful high fit extensions probably enhance the parent brand image and result in positive feedback effects, as numerous associations are shared between the brand and the extension and pre-existing associations are likely to be strengthened and enhanced. If customers perceive a high degree of fit between a brand and its extension, the possibility that they buy more products of the brand in question is higher and accordingly, the parent brand’s awareness, visibility and usage is increased (Buil, de Cernatony, & Hem, 2008). On the contrary, low fit extensions might weaken the credibility and lower the trust of consumers in the brand. Therefore, they are regarded as problematic when it comes to feedback effects, according to Buil, de Cernatony & Hem (2008). Low fit extensions are found to decrease the corporate credibility and therefore produce a negative feedback effect, even if the attitude towards the extension per se is positive (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009). As no, or only a small number of attributes can be transferred from the parent brand to the extension in low fit situations, consumers base their evaluations more on the core attributes and actual benefits of the extension. The lack of transferable attributes implies that the quality of the extension is more difficult to determine in advance, which in turn increases the consumers’ perceived risk. Moreover, low fit extensions are found to be less accepted by consumers, regardless of the parent brand strength (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000). Hence if product brand extensions are concerned, perceived fit is seen as driver of feedback effects (Buil, de Cernatony, & Hem, 2008; Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009).

Given the findings on low and high fit brand extensions, it can be assumed that fit acts as driver of feedback effects, in the case of product brand extensions. The following illustration shows the consequences of fit or misfit, disregarding other factors like
quality perception, influencing the extension evaluation and the feedback effects on the parent brand, that might either be positive (brand reinforcement or expansion) or negative (brand name dilution).

Grounded upon previous findings on the impact of the perceived fit in product brand extensions, it is therefore necessary to include high and low fit service extensions in the empirical part of the thesis. Especially in the service context, the extendibility of the parent brand and the ability of the service provider to transfer its skills to the extension, are important components of the perceived fit (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000). It is approved that negative feedback effects are less likely to occur if consumers belief in the parent brand’s ability to provide a trustworthy extension product, especially in the domain of service brand extensions (Völckner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2008).

Nevertheless, fit strongly influences the extension evaluation and attitude towards the extension but according to Martínes & Pérez (2009) has no direct impact on the final brand image. This means that the perception of fit has an indirect influence on the feedback effects on the parent brand via the extension evaluation (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009), and therefore only acts as moderator in case of asymmetric service extensions and plays a subordinated role, as quality is thought to assume a more important role than fit in the service context, due to the afore mentioned differences between services and goods, distinct characteristics of services and the lack of additional information about the extension (Loken & Roedder John, 1993). Specifically, as in the service context quality is found to proceed satisfaction, which both influence the behavioural intention (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000). Therefore, service quality and the consequential satisfaction with a service is expected to be the dominant driver of

Figure 5: The Consequences of Product and Concept Fit and Misfit (Kapferer, 2004)
feedback effects in case of service brand extensions, while fit is expected to act as moderator.

**2.5.4. Extension Information**

When it comes to extension information it can be distinguished between congruent or consistent information, and incongruent or inconsistent information. Both are said to be evaluated differently. First, congruent information can lead to polarization in a high motivation situation, and reinforce the brand and strengthen the associations in low motivation situations (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 1998). Second, inconsistent information is incorporated according to different models, which are explained subsequently.

The literature review on brand extensions and feedback effects reveals that feedback on the parent brand name occurs if extension information is highly accessible and relevant for the judgement (Ahluwalia & Gürhan-Canli, 2000). Whether available information about an extension is used in the evaluation of a brand extension and how this leads to feedback effects on the parent brand, can be described using different schemata and theories. In general, extensions with high similarity, evoking similar associations as the parent brand, will result in minor modifications and an assimilation of the existing schema, whereas extensions with low similarity, inducing different brand associations are likely to alter the parent brand image as the additional associations are embedded into the existing network. This means that accommodation occurs and the brand schema is modified (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009, Thorbjornsen, 2005). However, as consumers get more and more familiar with the introduced extension and the associations with the brand extension, that are integrated into the existing brand schema, feedback effects are supposed to diminish over time (Völckner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2008).

Consumers typically possess schemata of family brand names. These schemata are composed of the entire knowledge about the brand, its attributes and the values associated with it (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 1998). Therefore, the family brand name represents and stands for all the information the consumer possesses about the brand (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000). Two dimensions of brand schemata can be distinguished according to previous academic studies, which are first the product related
or functional associations and second, the image based associations (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000).

There are four different models that deal with the incorporation of inconsistent extension information and parent brand schema modifications. In general, the extent to which additional information is processed and incorporated into the existing schema, and following the occurrence of dilution and enhancement effects, no matter which model is looked at, depends upon the level of motivation of the consumer (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 1998).

The first one of these categorization models, the bookkeeping model shows that every kind of information is integrated incrementally into existing structures and schemata. Depending on how strong the parent brand is and on how the brand schema looks like, brand dilution through inconsistent information occurs (Loken & Roedder John, 1993). The bookkeeping model is widely supported, especially regarding high motivation conditions, regardless of the fit of the extension (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 1998) in the literature on product brand extensions. This means that feedback effects occur when there is a low fit between the extension and the parent brand but also when there is a high fit between the two, as both, the high and low fit extension introduce additional information, which causes the consumer to revise the brand beliefs and therefore dilutes brand attributes if the additional information is inconsistent with the existing brand schema (Loken & Roedder John, 1993).

The second one, the typicality-based model argues that the gravity of inconsistent information depends on how typical the extension is for the brand and on how typical the inconsistent information is. In other words, if extension information is inconsistent, the extension is perceived as atypical, or as low fit extension and a transfer of the extension information to the parent brand is not very likely to occur (Loken & Roedder John, 1993). Rather, ‘sub-types’, classifying inconsistent information separately, as exception, are built from the atypical information. On the contrary, when looking at typical extensions, no sub-types are built and dilution is more likely to occur (Martínes Salinas & Pina Pérez, 2009). In general, the sub-typing model is mostly supported in low motivation situations (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 1998). Moreover, the transfer of information to the parent brand, and therefore dilution or enhancement will happen with a higher probability if the extension category is similar to the parent brand category (Loken & Roedder John, 1993).
Third, the accessibility-diagnosticity model states that whether additional information will be incorporated into the existing brand schema or not depends on the accessibility of the input in memory, the perceived diagnosticity of the input for the judgement and the accessibility of other inputs in memory. Generally, it can be argued that the higher the accessibility of information, the higher the probability that the information will be incorporated and that this incorporation will result in a brand dilution or enhancement. Diagnosticity in this case refers to the ability of the quality level of the brand extension for instance to predict the quality level of the parent brand. It is assumed that the higher the perceived fit between the extension and the brand actually is, the higher the diagnosticity between the two will be (Ahluwalia & Gürhan-Canli, 2000).

The more shared dimensions and associations between the parent brand and the extension exist the higher the extension similarity will be. In the accessibility-diagnosticity model, this leads to the assumption that the shared dimensions are diagnostic or at least informative and therefore have an impact and feedback effect on the parent brand. It is mentionable that the diagnosticity of information depends, together with the extension similarity, on its valence, in other words, whether the extension information is positive or negative (Ahluwalia & Gürhan-Canli, 2000).

Ahluwalia and Gürhan-Canli (2000) found out, that the accessibility of extension information works as moderator of the feedback effects on the parent brand. On the one hand, highly accessible information, leads to feedback effects in high and low fit situations. But on the other hand, lowly accessible information causes consumers to incorporate negative rather than positive information in case of a high fit extension, and to incorporate positive information rather in case of a low fit extension. Accordingly, by making information about the extension accessible, especially during the purchase decision, the positive effect of available extension information can be increased (Ahluwalia & Gürhan-Canli, 2000).

Fourth, the conversion model argues that schemata and existing structures only change if there is extremely atypical information about the extension, that does not match the parent brand at all (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 1998).

Gürhan-Canli and Maheswaran (1998) found out that generally, in high motivation situations, the bookkeeping model is supported whereas in low motivation conditions the sub- typing model is favoured (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 1998). Loken and
Roedder John (1993) also express their support for the afore mentioned bookkeeping and typicality- based model, depending on the order of the measures used. The typicality- based model is supported when typicality is measured first and the bookkeeping model is supported when family brand beliefs are asked for first (Loken & Roedder John, 1993).

According to the bookkeeping model, dilution and therefore feedback effects will occur if any inconsistent information is spread, regardless of the perceived fit, as new information is integrated incrementally into the existing brand schema. Otherwise, the typicality- based model states that the weight that is based on the inconsistent information, depends on whether the extension is perceived as typical or not. Accordingly, in case of atypical extensions, dilution is less likely to occur, as the new product is not regarded as typical for the family brand. Taking both models into account, it can be stated that the extent to which the information is inconsistent and the fact whether the extension is perceived as typical or not, determine the vulnerability of the brand name or attribute dilution (Loken & Roedder John, 1993).

So far, there has been no evidence for this phenomenon in the area of service extensions. Keeping in mind that services are characterized by the fact that consumption and production happen simultaneously and that services are heterogeneous and intangible, which implies differences in the quality and extension evaluation, as described above, the general findings on brand schema modification in the goods domain cannot be transferred to service extensions, without further investigation. Therefore, it is investigated in the following study, whether fit does or does not influence the modification of the final brand image, either in satisfaction or dissatisfaction situations. In addition to the models of brand schema modification, the following main points are taken into consideration in the hypothesis development: So far, it has mainly been proven that degree of fit has a direct influence on the extension evaluation (Aaker & Keller, 1990; van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001), but there is little evidence about the direct influence of perceived fit on feedback effects. According to van Riel et al. (2001) a high degree of fit between the parent brand and the extension leads to a direct positive evaluation of the extension, which in turn has a direct influence on the feedback effects. Respectively, a low degree of fit between the brand and the extension, leads to a lower evaluation of the extension (van Riel,
Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001), which again impacts the final brand image of the parent brand.

In line with that, Martinez et al. (2004) propose that fit does not directly produce feedback effects on the global brand image. Nevertheless, they argue that fit does influence the extension evaluation, but not directly the emergence of feedback effects. They have further proven that the extension evaluation has a direct influence, also called feedback effect, on the post-image of a brand (Martinez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008). In addition to that Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran (1998) find support for the moderating effect of fit, motivation and extension information, in case of both, positive and negative feedback effects (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 1998; Lane & Jacobson, 1997). Therefore, the following conclusion can be drawn: Post-image scores higher after a positive service extension scenario characterized by a high degree of fit, than after a positive service extension scenario characterised by a low degree of fit, as the high fit extension is expected to yield higher extension evaluations. Hence, the perceived fit is expected to act as moderator as proposed by Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran (1998). As a result, hypothesis 3a is formulated and will be tested in the empirical study.

H3a: Service satisfaction will have a stronger impact on the parent brand image in case the perceived fit between the parent brand and the service extension is high.

The assumptions concerning the influence of fit on feedback effects is a contradictory field within existing academic research, as most experts are convinced that high fit leads to a positive extension evaluation and accordingly, positive feedback effects (Keller & Aaker, 1992). However, according to Völckner et al. (2008) a low degree of fit in negative scenarios leads to the contrary: Negative feedback effects on the post-image are stronger in case low degree of fit exists. The reason for their assumption is that an extension with a low degree of fit might induce a more diverse set of associations than those with the parent brand and therefore can harm the parent brand image (Völckner et al., 2008). Aaker and Keller (1990) also acknowledged that consumers could be critical concerning extensions, which are lying out of the company’s core-competences (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Milberg et al., 1997). Therefore, a different hypothesis for a low degree of fit and feedback effects is developed, which claims that post-image scores lower after a negative service extension scenario characterized by a low degree of fit, than after a
negative service extension scenario characterised by a high degree of fit. This is tested with H3b.

H3b: A service failure will have a stronger impact on the parent brand image in case the perceived fit between the parent brand and the service extension is low.

Building upon the literature review on services, brand extensions and service brand extensions, satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a service is included as expected main driver of feedback effects. Service satisfaction is supposed to assume and important role, as quality, an important factor in extension evaluation (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010), and satisfaction are highly interrelated and can hardly be separated in the service context (Meffert & Bruhn, 2009).

### 2.6. Model Illustrating the Expected Feedback Effects of Asymmetric Service Extensions on the Parent Brand Image

Summarizing the literature review on brand extensions, service extensions in particular, extension evaluation in the product and service domain and feedback effects, the following model illustrating the expected feedback effects of asymmetric brand extensions from the goods into the service sector can be set up:

![Figure 6: Model Illustrating the Expected Feedback Effects of Asymmetric Service Extensions (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Martinez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008)](image)

In this study the perceived quality of the service extension is highlighted, to meet the requirements and anomalies of asymmetric brand extensions from the product into the
service sector. Therefore, as displayed above, the perceived quality of the extension, the starting point in the model, is expected to result either in satisfaction or dissatisfaction, which is supposed to act as main driver of feedback effects of service brand extensions. Since the comparison of expectations and outcome, influenced by quality, is expected to cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the service (Bolton & Drew, 1991), which consequently is expected to produce feedback effects on the parent brand, service satisfaction is of special interest and the central element of the empirical study. Hereby, it is shown in the illustration, that customer satisfaction is expected to have a positive influence on the brand image and that customer dissatisfaction is expected to have a negative influence on the brand image. In addition to that it is also portrayed that the negative effects are stronger than the positive ones.

Moreover, the perceived degree of fit is expected to moderate the feedback effects on the parent brand in that in case of high fit, the positive feedback effects are expected to be stronger, and in case of low fit, the negative feedback effects are stronger. So, in line with the study of Martínez and de Cherantony (2004), fit is not expected to directly influence the final brand image, but to moderate the feedback effects via the perception of quality and following customer satisfaction (Martínez & de Chernatony, 2004).

The quality of the hypothetical service extension is expressed through the different service scenarios. Service quality has been identified as important factor in a service context (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010), and is expected to impact the perceived quality of the extension, and to result in (dis)satisfaction, and consequently to act as main driver of feedback effects on the parent brand. The perceived quality of the extension, after the service experience, either results in customer satisfaction, a neutral perception or dissatisfaction according to the disconfirmation model of consumer satisfaction (Walker, 1995). Therefore, not only the perceived quality of the extension, but also the resulting satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a service are further thought to produce feedback effects on the parent brand image, which is measured before and after the exposure to the service extension, in order to detect feedback effects on the product parent brand.
3. Methodology

To be able to base the analysis of feedback effects amongst other factors on the customer satisfaction with a service, manipulation checks are conducted prior to the statistical analysis. As in previous studies fit is found to influence the extension evaluation and feedback effects on the parent brand (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000; Martinez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008), high and low fit service extensions are included in the survey, and it is examined whether there are differences in the feedback effects of service brand extensions depending on the degree of fit. Following, one high and one low service quality scenario for both, the high and low fit versions is included in the study. It is important that the scenarios clearly differ from each other in terms of quality as this plays an important role when it comes to the consumers’ satisfaction and dissatisfaction with a service. Customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a service results from the comparison of pre- expectations towards the service and the actual performance of the service (Bolton & Drew, 1991), in terms of quality, as already explained in the theoretical part of the thesis. On the one hand, satisfaction arises from the confirmation of the expectations, which means that the service is better or at least equal as expected. On the other hand, dissatisfaction results from the disconfirmation of expectations towards the service, which means that the service is worse than expected and therefore the customer is dissatisfied (Bolton & Drew, 1991). While the high service quality scenario in both cases, high and low fit, is expected to cause service satisfaction, the low quality scenarios, in case of high and low fit, are expected to cause dissatisfaction with a service. Following, the influence of service satisfaction on the feedback effects of service brand extensions on the product parent brand is examined.

Therefore, three hypotheses are developed, based upon the findings of the literature review on brand extensions, services and feedback effects, described in the theoretical part of the thesis. The organization of the hypotheses is divided according to what are assumed to be the most important factors in service brand extension evaluation and the feedback effects on the parent brand, namely perception of fit, service quality and customer satisfaction. Service satisfaction is included as expected main driver of feedback effects, as quality, an important factor in extension evaluation (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010), and satisfaction are highly related and can hardly be distinguished in the service context (Meffert & Bruhn, 2009). This division
particularly helps to detect how feedback effects arise and to analyze the research question in detail. Furthermore, the split allows to examine the feedback effects of service brand extensions on the parent product brand in more detail than any other study before, including customer satisfaction as a new potential driver of feedback effects.

3.1. Research Design

The study on hand is an academic, descriptive research aimed to answer the previously formulated hypotheses, based upon previous research findings from the literature review. Furthermore, relationships between two or more groups can be analysed by applying a descriptive research design. Therefore, a quantitative method is applied and survey sampling is appropriate to answer the research question and to test the hypotheses (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002).

Given the purpose of the research, to find out how service brand extensions influence the consumers’ attitude towards a product parent brand, a questionnaire is developed and a survey is conducted. This provides the possibility to test the attitude of consumers and to proceed the findings statistically, in order to test the hypotheses.

The blueprint displayed beneath, which guides the research process, shows the research design for the study on hand:

![Research Design Diagram](image-url)
The two pre-tests hereby serve to conduct the manipulation checks. Specifically, it is tested with the first pre-test whether the service scenarios represent a high and a low fit service extension to the parent brand. The second pre-test aims to test whether high quality in a service scenario results in customer satisfaction and whether low quality in a service scenario results in dissatisfaction. Subsequently, the final questionnaire, testing the feedback effects of service brand extensions on the product parent brand is developed. Nonetheless, the manipulation checks are undertaken again with the complete sample, before conducting the analysis of the hypotheses, in order to ensure, that the assumptions concerning fit and customer satisfaction are met.

3.1.1. Parent Brand and Service Extensions

Since consumers are asked to indicate their attitude towards a brand, it is feasible to work with an actual brand in the study (Martinez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008). As parent brand for this research the famous sports brand Nike is chosen, because strong corporate brands provide credibility, which is especially important in the field of service brand extensions due to the high level of credence attributes, which force the consumer to rely on obvious cues such as corporate image to infer service quality in advance (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000). Nike rates at rank 26 at the Forbes list of the most powerful brands, being the best rated brand from the sports industry, and being present in over 170 countries all over the world (Forbes, 2012). Therefore, the brand is seen as appropriate to ensure comparability with other empirical studies researching global brands, also from other industries. Nike is furthermore familiar to most Austrian people (with a brand familiarity of 89% (Maier, 2012)), in contrast to some smaller sports brands.

This study examines hypothetical service extensions, which provides the benefit that the stimuli used can be selected and manipulated by the author. This is a method already successfully applied by other authors and seen as appropriate for the purpose of the study (Völckner, Sattler, Henning-Thurau, & Ringle, 2010). The selection and development of the hypothetical service extensions is described in detail under the headlines ‘First pre-test’ and ‘Second pre-test’.
3.1.2. Data Collection and Sample

After the literature review, primary data is collected, as secondary data to answer the specific research question appropriately is not available (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002). Data collection is conducted, using four different versions of questionnaires, each containing one of four developed service scenarios, as can be seen in Figure 7. The questions used remain the same, for all four versions of the questionnaire, just the service scenarios vary from questionnaire to questionnaire. The survey is conducted via paper and pencil in December 2012 / January 2013, in Austria. Each of the respondents is confronted with only one of the four versions of the final questionnaire.

The total sample size is 120, to ensure the reliability of results and include enough respondents for each questionnaire version, to be able to analyze the subgroups implied by the different versions. The respondents are chosen according to a quota sampling, which is a non-probability sampling method, as a random sample would have been too costly and time consuming. A quota sample is chosen as this method assures that the sample is as representative as possible with a non-probability sample. In a quota sample, elements of the population are chosen in such a way that the proportion of the sample elements possessing a certain characteristic is approximately the same as the proportion of the elements with the characteristic in the population (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002).

The table displayed beneath shows the quota applied in the survey, resulting in a total of 120 respondents, split according to age groups and gender:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>18-29</th>
<th>30-49</th>
<th>50+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5 respondents per questionnaire version = 20 respondents</td>
<td>5 respondents per questionnaire version = 20 respondents</td>
<td>5 respondents per questionnaire version = 20 respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5 respondents per questionnaire version = 20 respondents</td>
<td>5 respondents per questionnaire version = 20 respondents</td>
<td>5 respondents per questionnaire version = 20 respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40 respondents</td>
<td>40 respondents</td>
<td>40 respondents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Quota Sampling
The quota applied assures that 30 respondents are asked per service scenario, in order to ensure comparability of the scenarios.

### 3.2. Pre-tests

#### 3.2.1. First Pre-Test

To begin with, several potential service extensions are grouped according to their level of tangibility and interaction, using the graphic displayed beneath. The focus of this survey lies on service brand extensions characterized by high interaction and high tangibility. First, high interaction, because interaction is seen as a critical success factor in the service evaluation and because the interaction between the service provider and the customer provides various options to manipulate the hypothetical service scenarios, as for instance the responsiveness of the service provider. Second, high tangibility is chosen because such services are most similar to products and possess lots of tangible elements. This facilitates the consumers’ evaluation of the service and therefore is supposed to drive the feedback effects on the product parent brand via the dimensions quality and customer satisfaction.

![Interaction Tangibility Matrix](image)

Figure 8: Interaction Tangibility Matrix

After the selection of six services, out of the quadrant marked in bold, that represent potential service extensions (three of them potential high fit service extensions and three of them potential low fit service extensions) for the brand Nike, the fit with the product brand and the tangibility and interaction levels are tested in the first pre-test. Additionally, four disturbing factors, that means services from the opposite quadrant,
are included in the questionnaire, to create variance and avoid respondent bias. The following potential service extensions are tested in the first pre-test, the first three thought as high fit extensions, the second three thought as low fit extensions and the last four ones being disturbing factors: personal trainer lessons, fitness centre, sports medicine consultancy, beach club, adventure holidays, cooking classes (“Fitness through healthy nutrition”), cinema, online music store, internet banking and life insurance.

The first pre-test was conducted in November 2012 in Vienna. 20 respondents were asked, applying a paper and pencil method. The respondents were sampled according to a judgemental sampling and no quota was applied in the first pre-test, as the pre-test is thought to give the researcher a direction and no statistical analysis and hypotheses testing is based on the pre-test.

The first two questions, ‘How well do you know the brand Nike?’ and ‘Which product do you associate with Nike?’ in the pre-test are thought as initial screening questions. The first one is measured on a seven point Likert scale (1=not good at all to 7=very good), whereas the second one is an open question, asking for spontaneous associations. People who do not know the brand at all or associate non-sports products that are not part of Nike’s product portfolio, with the brand in question are excluded from the sample, as somebody who does not know the brand is thought to be unable to determine the fit between an extension and the brand. All people participating in the first pre-test turned out to be familiar with the brand Nike and therefore passed the initial screening questions.

The third question, ‘How do you rate the quality of Nike?’, is also measured on a seven point Likert scale (1=not good at all to 7=very good). This question is included in the questionnaire to give the researcher a broad idea of the perceived quality of the parent brand. The overall quality of the brand Nike is rated with an average of 6.20. This rating indicates already a high quality perception of the brand Nike.

In the next part the perceived fit between the product parent brand and the potential service extension is tested. Two questions, ‘How well do the following services fit the other services offered by the brand Nike?’ and ‘How well do the following services fit the overall picture you have in mind about the brand Nike?’, are measured on seven point Likert scales (1=very badly to 7=very well) for all the services tested in the pre-
test. To determine one high and one low fit scenario to be developed for the second pre-test, the services that scored highest and lowest in the fourth and fifth question, are chosen as hypothetical service extensions. Those are: the personal trainer (65% think that a personal training service fits Nike very well (M=6.25); and 60% think that a personal training service fits their image of the brand Nike very well (M=6.45)) and the cooking classes (25% indicate that cooking classes do not fit the brand Nike at all (M=2.85); 15% indicate that cooking classes do not fit the overall image of Nike at all (M=3.15).

Next, the interaction level is tested for all services in the pre-test, to ensure that the services entering the final study have the same interaction level, which is important for the comparability of the services. To ensure that the term interaction is understood the same way by all respondents, a description of the term interaction is provided. The interaction is measured with the question ‘How high do you estimate the interaction between the client and the service provider in the following service?’, applying a seven point Likert scale (1= no or hardly any interaction to 7= very high interaction). Last, the tangibility of the service is asked for, to ensure that all services entering the final study represent the same level of tangibility. Therefore, the respondents are asked to rate the tangibility on a seven point Likert scale (1= mainly intangible to 7=mainly tangible). To ensure understanding of the terms used, a detailed description of tangibility is provided. The answers to these questions confirm that the two chosen service extensions represent the desired level of interaction and the desired level of tangibility and therefore can be compared with each other in the final analysis (interaction of a personal trainer: M=6.75; tangibility of a personal trainer: M=4.55; interaction of cooking classes: M=5.8; tangibility of cooking classes: M=5.6).

To summarize the results of the first pre-test briefly, Nike is perceived as a high quality brand. The personal trainer represents a potential high fit service extension, with high interaction and high tangibility and the cooking classes represent potential low fit service extension, with high tangibility and high interaction, for the brand Nike.

3.2.2. Second pre-test

The second pre-test aims to find out whether the four chosen and developed high and low fit scenarios, based on the findings of the first pre-test actually represented high and
low customer satisfaction, due to the different interaction and outcome quality levels described in the scenario.

Therefore, four hypothetical service scenarios are developed, a low and a high quality scenario, resulting in customer (dis)satisfaction for the personal trainer service extension and a low and a high service quality scenario, causing customer (dis)satisfaction for the cooking class service extension, as can be seen in the Appendix on page 95 ff. The scenarios are developed according to Rungtusanatham et al. (2011), in that specific components of the scenario are manipulated, and others, like the service scape are held stable. Specifically, the service quality dimensions ‘interaction quality’ (for instance the responsiveness) and ‘outcome quality’ (for instance the result of the personal training lessons) are manipulated in the service scenarios, as these two are found to significantly impact the extension evaluation by Völckner et al. (2010). All three stages, relevant for the evaluation of a service and expected to trigger satisfaction, pre-consumption, consumption, and post-consumption, are briefly described in the scenarios.

The second pre-test was conducted in November / December 2012 in Vienna, Austria. 20 respondents were asked, applying a paper and pencil method. The respondents are independent from the ones asked in the first pre-test and sampled according to a judgemental sampling. Like in the first pre-test no quota was applied in the second pre-test. 10 respondents were asked to rate the low customer satisfaction personal trainer and the high customer satisfaction cooking class scenario and 10 respondents were asked to rate the high customer satisfaction personal trainer and the low customer satisfaction cooking class scenario.

At the beginning, the first three general questions are the same as in the first pre-test, in order to check whether the chosen respondents were familiar with the brand Nike and therefore were able to answer the questions about the brand extensions accurately. The fourth question in the second pre-test is the following: ‘How do you rate the perceived service quality of the brand Nike in the service scenario?’, and is measured on a seven point Likert scale (1= not good at all to 7= very good). The next question ‘How do you rate your personal satisfaction with the personal trainer/ cooking class?’, is also measured on a seven point Likert scale (1= very unsatisfied to 7= very satisfied) and is supposed to reflect the service satisfaction level. The sixth question ‘How high is your willingness to proceed with the personal training / cooking classes or would you book
the service again?’, is also measured on a seven point Likert scale (1=very low to 7=very high) and indicates the repurchase intention.

The service quality of the high customer satisfaction personal trainer scenario is rated with a mean of 6.9 by the respondents on a seven point Likert scale. The personal satisfaction of this scenario is rated with a mean of 6.8 by the respondents and the willingness to book the service again with a mean of 6.7 on a seven point Likert scale. This indicates that high service quality results in customer satisfaction in the high fit scenario. Consequently, the personal trainer service can be proceeded in the final questionnaire. The service quality of the low customer satisfaction personal trainer scenario is rated with a mean of 1.7 by the respondents on a seven point Likert scale, indicating a low quality. The personal satisfaction in this case is rated with a mean of 1.6 and accordingly the willingness to book the service again is rated with a mean of 1.1 by the respondents on a seven point Likert scale. These results suggest that the low service quality in the high fit scenario, leads to customer dissatisfaction. Therefore, the proposed scenario can be further used in the final questionnaire. The service quality of the high customer satisfaction cooking class scenario is rated with a mean of 6.8 by the respondents on a seven point Likert scale. The personal satisfaction with this scenario is rated with a mean of 7.0 and the willingness to book the Nike cooking class again is rated with a mean of 6.6 on a seven point Likert scale. All the mean values being high, this low fit service scenario is perceived as a service resulting in high customer satisfaction by the respondents and therefore can be proceeded in the final questionnaire. The service quality of the low customer satisfaction cooking class scenario is rated with a mean of 1.3 by the respondents on a seven point Likert scale. Accordingly, the personal satisfaction is low, with a mean of 1.1, and the willingness to book the Nike cooking class again is very low with a mean of 1.0 on a seven point Likert scale. This means that the low fit, low quality service scenario results in customer dissatisfaction and can therefore be used in the final questionnaire.

3.3. Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for feedback effects of service brand extensions on a product parent brand includes the previously identified potential drivers of feedback effects in the service context as well as an indicator for the occurrence of feedback effects, which
in this case is the parent brand quality, particularly the change in parent brand quality perception.

Arising from different associations towards a brand, the brand image is a multidimensional construct, that is hard to measure and interrelated with other constructs, as quality for instance (Martínez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008). Therefore, in this study, the brand image is operationalized with quality, in order to measure feedback effects on the parent brand. To measure the brand quality, proven multi item measures are used and applied in the questionnaire, as briefly indicated in the table below, and described in the Appendix on page 106 f. In this context, the general brand image towards the brand name, Nike, and not the image of a specific product of the Nike brand is measured (Martínez & de Chernatony, 2004). Given the importance of the perceived quality of the parent brand (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000), even if it is a product brand, the parent brand quality is already measured in the pre-tests of the empirical study and again at the beginning and at the end of the final questionnaire, using multi item measures and additionally, one single question on overall brand quality.

The fit between the service extension and the product brand is imposed in advance in this study, in that high and low fit service extensions are included. It is tested with the manipulation checks in the pre-tests whether the low and high fit scenarios are indeed perceived as such, and checked again with the complete sample, before the analysis of the hypotheses.

For the present research on the feedback effects of service extensions it is suggested that the service quality of the extension is of high importance for the feedback effects on the parent brand. Therefore, the afore mentioned service quality dimensions (interaction, physical environment and outcome quality) are taken into consideration in the development of the service scenarios, to include service scenarios in the final questionnaire that in deed represent high and low quality services. The perceived quality of the extension is tested with a multi item scale (Taylor & Bearden, 2002), as can be seen in the table displayed below.

Following, measures to test the validity of the study are included in the questionnaire, which are also described in the table below (Bilstein, Hogreve, Fahr, & Sichtmann, 2012).
The customer satisfaction with the service extensions is first tested in the second pre-test, in the manipulation checks, and tested again with the complete sample. Scenarios describing high service quality, resulting in high customer satisfaction and scenarios describing low service quality, resulting in customer dissatisfaction are included in the study. Customer satisfaction is measured with an approved multi item scale (Homburg, Koschate, & Hoyer, 2005), as indicated in the table below and described in the Appendix on page 106f..

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure Used</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand Familiarity</strong></td>
<td>Diamantopoulos, Smith, &amp; Grime (2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How familiar are you with the brand Nike?</td>
<td>(7 Point Likert Scale: 1=not familiar/ experienced/ competent/ informed at all to 7=very familiar/ experienced/ competent/ informed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parent Brand Quality</strong></td>
<td>Völckner &amp; Sattler, (2006); Yoo, Donthu, &amp; Lee, (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do the following statements fit the brand Nike?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Nike offers better quality than other brands</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Nike positively distinguishes from other brands</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) The quality of Nike is extremely high</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7 Point Likert Scale: 1= does not apply at all to 7=totally applies)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived Degree of Fit</strong></td>
<td>Taylor &amp; Bearden, 2002; Völckner &amp; Sattler, (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you agree with the following statements?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Personal trainer lessons / cooking classes fit the image of Nike</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Personal trainer lessons / cooking classes fit the other products offered by Nike</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) It seems logical that Nike offers personal trainer lessons / cooking classes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Offering personal trainer lessons / cooking classes seems proper for Nike</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Personal trainer lessons / cooking classes match the overall picture of Nike</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7 Point Likert Scale: 1=do not agree at all to 7=totally agree)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the brand Nike offered this service extension, it would be...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... above average quality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... of better quality than the same by competitors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... of very good quality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7 Point Likert Scale: 1= do not agree at all to 7= totally agree)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reality Check</strong></td>
<td>Bilstein, Hogreve, Fahr, &amp; Sichtmann (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How realistic is the above described scenario?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) It was easy to imagine the described situation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) I was able to put myself into the scenario.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7 Point Likert Scale: 1=do not agree at all to 7=totally agree)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Service Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td>Homburg, Koschate, &amp; Hoyer (2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How satisfied would you be with the Nike personal training/ cooking class?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) All in all I would be very satisfied with the Nike service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) The service would meet my expectations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) The scenario described an ideal personal training / cooking class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7 Point Likert Scale: 1=do not agree at all to 7=totally agree)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Measures Used in the Questionnaire
In addition to the multi item measures, an open ended question, single questions and demographic questions are included in the final questionnaire, which is included in the Appendix on page 100 f..

First, an initial screening question is included in the questionnaire. The first question, ‘Which product do you associate with the brand Nike?’, is an open ended question that is included in order to detect whether the respondent is familiar with the brand Nike or not. Question number two as well serves as screening question and tests the brand familiarity applying a multi item scale measuring brand familiarity developed by Diamantopoulos et al. (2005). The multi item measure used, is displayed in the table above, and should help to determine whether the respondents are able to accurately answer the following questions about the Nike service brand extension. The third question ‘How do you rate the quality of the brand Nike?’ measures the perceived overall quality of the brand Nike on a seven point Likert scale (1=not good at all to 7=very good), and serves as indicator for the parent brand image. Following, the fourth question consists of the perceived brand quality construct, developed by Völckner and Sattler (2006) and Yoo, Donthu, and Lee (2000), as can be seen in the table above and in the Appendix on page 106 f.. Answering the fifth question, the respondents are asked to display their picture of the brand personality of the brand Nike, in a semantic differential developed according to Mahnik and Mayerhofer (2006). The semantic differential measures the brand personality, which together with the perceived quality constitutes the brand image. In the semantic differential adjectives which can be assigned to the following dimensions: sincerity, excitement, competency, sophistication and persistence, are used to determine the brand personality (Mahnik & Mayerhofer, 2006). Ongoing, question six measures the perceived fit between the hypothetical service extensions and the brand Nike using a multi item measure developed by Taylor and Bearden (2002) and Völckner and Sattler (2006). The next question, question number seven measures the hypothetical extension evaluation by using a multi item measure developed by Taylor and Bearden (2002), before presenting the service scenario to the respondents. This question is relevant as it measures the consumers’ expectations before the service, which in comparison with the actual performance will determine the perceived quality and customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the service and therefore impact the evaluation of the brand extension and the feedback effects on the parent brand (de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000).
Following, one of the hypothetical service scenarios is presented to the respondents.

Question number eight, serves to check how realistic the respondents perceive the service extension scenario used in the questionnaire. Hereby, a multi item measure developed by Bilstein, Hogreve, Sichtmann and Fahr (2012) is used, as can be seen in the table above. Question number nine is similar to question number seven, using the same multi item measure developed by Taylor and Bearden (2002), with the difference that the actual extension evaluation, after presenting the scenario to the respondent, is measured. Next, the customer satisfaction with the service extension is asked for. Therefore, a multi item measure for customer satisfaction developed by Homburg, Koschate and Hoyer (2005) is used, as displayed in the table above. Question number eleven and twelve again relate to the brand quality of Nike (for the measures and scales applied see page 65, Table 2). The questions remained, with the difference that the respondent already is familiar with the hypothetical service extension. Brand personality is also tested again, using the same semantic differential as already described above (see description of question five on page 66). Brand quality and brand personality, both relating to the brand image, are measured again to detect the differences in the parent brand evaluation after the service extension. Additionally, as back up questions for the brand quality and brand personality, question number fourteen and fifteen are asked: ‘Has your picture of the brand Nike changed after reading the service scenario?’ and ‘If yes, how has your attitude towards the brand Nike changed after reading the service scenario?’ The first one is measured on a binary scale (yes or no), whereas the second one is measure on a seven point Likert scale (1=strongly negative changed to 7=strongly positive changed). Finally, demographic questions are included in the questionnaire, as can be seen in the Appendix on page 102, for statistical reasons and further analysis.

3.4. Data Analysis

Subsequently, the different versions of the final questionnaire will be labelled as following:
Table 3: Labelling of the Questionnaire Versions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Version</th>
<th>Scenario</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Version 1</td>
<td>High fit positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nike Personal Trainer –high satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Version 2</td>
<td>High fit negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nike Personal Trainer- low satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Version 3</td>
<td>Low fit positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nike Cooking Class- high satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Version 4</td>
<td>Low fit negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nike Cooking Class- low satisfaction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4.1. Data Cleaning

Data Cleaning is conducted before the data analysis stage in order to ensure reliable and valid results of the study. For the purpose of data cleaning first, question number two is looked at in order to detect whether the respondents are familiar with the brand in order to ensure that the questionnaire can be answered accurately. Hereby, no respondent had to be eliminated. Second, question number five, the semantic differential, is looked at, in order to detect respondents who did not pay attention to the questionnaire and tick the same category throughout the whole measure, as this would not display the true brand personality. Hereby, three respondents had to be eliminated.

In addition to that, the descriptive statistics were looked at, in order to detect errors in data entering and missing values.

In order to make up for the three missing respondents, three new respondents, fulfilling the quota were asked to participate in the study, so that the final sample consists of 120 respondents.

3.4.2. Validity and Reliability

Before analysing the data, first reliability and validity checks are conducted for the multi item measures used in the questionnaire. First, the reliability of the measures is tested by calculating Cronbach’s Alpha. In general, scales with alpha values above 0.8 are said to be highly reliable. As can be seen in the table below, all the multi item measures used in the questionnaire are highly reliable, with alpha values above 0.9.
Second, in order to check the validity of the survey, question number eight is used, in that the means and standard deviations are checked. The question is, as already mentioned, measured on a 7 point Likert scale (1=totally disagree to 7=totally agree). First, the total means and standard deviations are computed and second, the means and standard deviations for each scenario separately are investigated to see whether the study conducted is valid. In the two questions of the construct used, the means are above 5, as can be seen in the table beneath, which is why the study conducted is perceived as valid.

The detailed validity checks for each version of the questionnaire can be seen in the Appendix on page 110.

### 3.4.3. Descriptive Statistics

The total sample consists of 120 respondents. 50% of the respondents are female and 50% are male, which is implied by the quota applied. 91.7% of the respondents are Austrians, other nationalities mentioned are Germany, Slovakia, Hungary and Poland. The average age of the respondents is 38.5 years. 64.2% of the respondents are living in the urban area, the other 35.8% are living in the rural area. The majority of the respondents (49.2%) has a university degree, further 29.2% possess the A-level, 19.2%
have done an apprenticeship and 2.5% completed compulsory school. Furthermore, 70% of the respondents are currently employed, 22.5% are studying, 0.8% are currently unemployed, 2.5% are retired and 4.2% chose the response category ‘other’. Corresponding to the educational level of the sample, the income level is rather high, 23.3% earning more than € 2550 per month, 40% between € 1551 and € 2550, 19% between € 650 and € 1550 and 16.7% less than € 650.

### 3.4.4. Manipulation Checks

To begin with, it is tested whether the Nike personal trainer and the cooking classes indeed represent high and low fit service extensions to the parent brand Nike, like suggested in the pre-tests:

The two high quality service scenarios and the two low quality scenarios represent high and low fit service extensions. This is proven by an independent T-tests, using the versions as independent variables and the aggregated multi item scales measuring fit as dependent variables. Hereby, the high fit scenarios (M=5.17, SE= 0.18) rate on average higher on fit than the low fit scenarios (M=1.8, SE=0.11). There is a significant difference between the means (t(118)=15.845, p<0.05, effect size r=0.82) which means that high and low fit scenarios actually represent different levels of fit.

After the fit between the scenarios and the parent brand, it is tested whether the different high and low quality scenarios indeed result in high and low customer satisfaction situations: The positive high and low fit scenarios (M=5.87, SE=0.18) on average yield higher satisfaction levels than the negative high and low fit scenarios (M=1.83, SE=0.15). There is a significant difference between the two mean values (t(114.5)=16.92, p<0.05, effect size r=0.85), which means that the high and low quality scenarios in deed represent different customer satisfaction levels.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the manipulation via the hypothetical service scenarios works as intended, and it can be proceeded with the statistical analysis of the hypotheses.

### 3.4.5. Analysis of the Hypotheses

**H1a:** Customer satisfaction with a service extension has a positive influence on the post image evaluation of the parent brand.
In order to test hypothesis 1a, a paired sample t-test is conducted for the customer satisfaction scenarios, version 1 and 3 of the questionnaire. To test whether the customer satisfaction with the service brand extension has an effect on the image of the product parent brand, the aggregated multi item measure for brand quality, measured before and after presentation of the service is used as dependent variable, whereas the versions representing customer satisfaction are used as independent variable.

For version 1 and 3, the customer satisfaction scenarios, the brand quality before (M=4.92, SE=0.18) on average is lower than the brand quality after (M=5.26, SE=0.18). There is a significant difference between the two (t(59)=-3.036, p<0.05, effect size r=0.37), which means that H1a is supported, in that the customer satisfaction scenarios have a significantly positive influence on the post image evaluation of the parent brand. In addition to the analysis with the aggregated multi item measure, the t-test is conducted with the single brand quality question. Hereby again, brand quality before is on average lower (M=5.45, SE=0.16) than brand quality after (M=5.88, SE=0.17) and there is a significant difference between the mean values (t(59)=-3.156, p<0.05, effect size r=0.38).

In addition to that, question 14 and 15 in the questionnaire are used to determine whether the perception and the image of the parent brand have changed after the service scenario. Therefore, the frequency tables are looked at:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Customer Satisfaction Scenarios</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception has changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Perception Change Customer Satisfaction Scenarios

The mean of 5.5 (measured on a seven point Likert scale) shows that if the perception of the parent brand has changed, it has changed positively, which underlines the result of the above described t-test.

**H1b:** Customer dissatisfaction with a service extension has a negative influence on the post image evaluation of the parent brand.
In order to test hypothesis 1b, a paired sample t-test is conducted for the customer dissatisfaction scenarios, version 2 and 4. To test whether the customer dissatisfaction with the service brand extension has a negative effect on the image of the product parent brand, the aggregated multi item measure for brand quality, measured before and after presentation of the service is used as dependent variable, whereas the version again is used as independent variable.

For version 2 and 4, the customer dissatisfaction scenarios, the brand quality before (M=4.89, SE=0.17) on average is higher than the brand quality after (M=3.47, SE=0.19). There is a significant difference between the two (t(59)=7.498, p<0.05, effect size r=0.7), which means that H1b is supported, in that the customer dissatisfaction scenarios have a significantly negative influence on the post image evaluation of the parent brand. In addition to that, the paired sample t-test is conducted with the single brand quality questions used as dependent variables. Hereby again, the quality before (M=5.52, SE=0.14) is on average higher than the brand quality after the service scenario (M=3.65, SE=0.22). There is a significant difference between the means (t(59)=8.303, p<0.05, effect size=0.73).

Again, question 14 and 15 in the questionnaire are used to determine whether the perception and the image of the parent brand have changed after the service scenarios. Therefore, frequency tables are looked at:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Customer Dissatisfaction Scenarios</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65% yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35% no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M=2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD=1.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Perception Change Customer Dissatisfaction Scenarios

The mean of 2.56 shows that if the perception of the parent brand has changed, it has changed negatively, which again underlines the result of the above described t-test, in that customer dissatisfaction with a service causes a negative change in the perception of the parent brand.
To conclude the analysis of hypothesis 1 it can be said that the hypothesis is supported and that customer (dis)satisfaction with a service extension has a (negative) positive influence on the post image evaluation of the parent brand.

The differences in the change of the quality perception of the parent brand, can be illustrated as following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Parent Brand Quality Before</th>
<th>Parent Brand Quality After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfaction</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The illustration highlights that a service resulting in satisfaction has a positive influence on the parent brand quality perception, in that the mean value rises, whereas a service resulting in dissatisfaction has a negative influence on the parent brand quality perception.

**H2: The negative effect of a service failure on the post-image evaluation will be stronger than the positive effect of a positive service experience.**

To analyse hypothesis 2, an independent t-test is conducted, comparing the high customer satisfaction scenarios, questionnaire version 1 and 3 with the customer dissatisfaction scenarios, questionnaire version 2 and 4, with regard to brand quality, using the versions as independent variables. Therefore again, brand quality is used as indicator for the brand image, and first the single brand quality question and second the aggregated multi item measures for brand quality are used as dependent variables. To
compare the negative and the positive effect a new variable, named total quality difference, is computed for the single brand quality question, taking the absolute values resulting from the subtraction of total brand quality before from total brand quality after. The same variable is computed for the multi item measures, to be able to draw conclusions on the effects size of a positive and a negative service experience.

First, the customer satisfaction scenarios (M=0.66, SE=0.12) on average show lower changes in the total brand quality evaluation than the customer dissatisfaction scenarios (M=2.08, SE=0.22). There is a significant difference between the two (t(118)=-5.633, p<0.05, effect size r=0.46). This implicates that the average change in the perception of the parent brand caused by a customer dissatisfaction scenario is significantly greater than the average change caused by a customer satisfaction scenario. This means that the negative effect of a service failure on the post-image evaluation is stronger than the positive effect of a positive service experience.

The illustration beneath visualizes the magnitude of the change in parent brand quality evaluation in case services resulting in satisfaction or dissatisfaction:

![Average Change in Parent Brand Quality Evaluation](image)

Figure 10: Average Change in Parent Brand Quality Evaluation

Second, using the multi item measure for brand quality, again the customer satisfaction scenarios (M=0.89, SE=0.16) on average show lower changes in the brand quality evaluation than the customer dissatisfaction scenarios (M=1.57, SE=0.17). There is a significant difference between the two (t(117.77)=-2.937, p<0.05, effect size r=0.26).
Once again this shows that the average change in the perception of the parent brand caused by a customer dissatisfaction scenario is significantly greater than the average change caused by a customer satisfaction scenario. This means that the negative effect of a service failure on the post-image evaluation is stronger than the positive effect of a positive service experience.

To conclude the analysis of hypothesis 2 it can be said that hypothesis 2 is supported and therefore, the negative effect of a service failure on the post-image evaluation is stronger than the positive effect of a positive service experience.

**H3a: Service satisfaction will have a stronger impact on the parent brand image in case the perceived fit between the parent brand and the service extension is high.**

To analyze this hypothesis, the low and the high fit version of the questionnaire representing high customer satisfaction are used as independent variables. Again, the brand image which is measured with brand quality, in that the brand quality evaluation before is subtracted from the brand quality evaluation after the presentation of the extension, is used as dependent variable.

An independent t-test is used in order to detect whether there are differences between the high and low fit versions in the difference in the evaluation of the brand quality before and after the scenario. The hypothesis cannot be supported neither for the multi item measure nor for the single brand quality question, as no significant result can be observed in the t-tests.

**H3b: A service failure will have a stronger impact on the parent brand image in case the perceived fit between the parent brand and the service extension is low.**

Respectively, hypothesis 3b is analyzed using the low and the high fit version of the questionnaire representing customer dissatisfaction as independent variables. As indicator for the brand image, consistently with the analyses above, brand quality is used as dependent variable. Again, the difference in the quality evaluation is computed, in that the brand quality evaluation before is subtracted from the brand quality evaluation after the presentation of the extension.
An independent t-test is used in order to detect whether there are differences between the high and low fit versions in the difference in the evaluation of the brand quality before and after the presentation of the scenario. The hypothesis cannot be supported neither for the multi item measure nor for the single brand quality question.

To shortly conclude hypothesis 3 it can be said that fit does not influence the post image evaluation of the parent brand, neither in case of customer satisfaction nor in case of customer dissatisfaction.

### 3.4.6. Additional Analysis

The additional analysis is conducted to provide a better understanding of feedback effects of service brand extensions on a product parent brand, including the service extension evaluation.

The impact of fit on the service extension evaluation is tested as following, in order to determine whether fit has or does not have an influence on the extension evaluation in the proposed model: An independent t-test is conducted, using the versions as independent variables and the service quality evaluation after the exposure to the service scenario (question number nine in the questionnaire) as dependent variable. Hereby, the mean values of both satisfaction scenarios, high (M=5.45, SE=0.24) and low fit (M=4.67, SE=0.27) differ significantly from each other (t(56.861)=2.148, p<0.05, effect size r=0.27), in terms of service quality evaluation. Respectively, the mean values of both dissatisfaction scenarios, the high (M=3.08, SE=0.31) and the low fit scenario (M=1.32, SE=0.09) differ significantly from each other (t(58)=5.385, p<0.05, effect size r=0.58). This implies that fit has an influence on the service extension evaluation in terms of service quality.

To analyse whether the service quality has an influence on the service extension evaluation, again an independent t-test is used. Hereby, the versions are used as independent variables and service quality after the presentation of the service scenario is used as dependent variable. The mean values for service quality after the presentation of the scenario of the low fit scenarios, high customer satisfaction (M=4.67, SE=0.27) and low customer satisfaction (M=1.32, SE=0.09), differ significantly from each other (t(58)=11.671, p<0.05, effect size r=0.84). This means that the perceived service quality of the extension, after the presentation of the scenarios, is higher in case a positive
scenario was presented. Accordingly, the mean values for the high fit scenarios, high customer satisfaction (M=5.44, SE=0.24) and low customer satisfaction (M=3.08, SE=0.31), also differ significantly from each other in terms of service quality evaluation (t(58)=6.005, p<0.05, effect size r=0.62). Respectively, this indicates that also in case of high fit, a positive scenario results in a higher quality evaluation of the extension. This means that the customer satisfaction with a service has an influence on the service extension evaluation, measured with service quality.

Furthermore, a correlation between the initial brand image, measured with the variable brand quality before, and the service extension evaluation before the exposure to the service scenario is conducted. The correlation is significantly positive for both, the personal trainer service (r=.602, p<0.05), and the cooking classes (r=.393, p<0.05) which means that the service quality evaluation increases if the initial brand image increases. Hereby, the service extension evaluation before is used for the correlation, as the variable service extension evaluation after would include the perceived quality.
4. Results and Discussion

Despite the growing importance of services and asymmetric service extensions, research on brand extensions still mainly focuses on product brands and product brand extensions and the feedback effects of those on the parent brand.

The research on hand contributes to the literature in that it investigates the feedback effects of asymmetric service extensions, on a product parent brand and highlights the differences between product and service brand extensions. Particularly, the influence of quality and the arising customer satisfaction with the service on the feedback effects is researched. Therefore, a framework for asymmetric brand extensions, from the goods into the service sector, building upon previous research findings is developed, taking into account the characteristics of services and the difficulties of service brand extensions in comparison to product brand extensions. In contrast to previous studies, this research is based on quasi experiences and not only the extension product. This is especially important in the service context as the quality evaluation is impossible in advance and therefore the performance is crucial to determine quality.

Generally, it is found out that image feedback effects also do exist for asymmetric service brand extensions, which confirms the results of several previous studies on product to product brand extensions or service to service brand extensions (Martínez, Polo, & de Chernatony, 2008; Völckner, Sattler, & Kaufmann, 2008). In line with the findings of Völckner et al. (2008) on product extension quality compared to the parent brand quality, customer satisfaction (which implies that the service quality at least matches the expectations and therefore is of the same or higher quality than the parent brand) with a service extension is found to have a positive feedback effect on the parent brand image. Respectively, customer dissatisfaction (implying a lower quality of the extension than the parent brand) with a service extension has a negative influence on the post image evaluation of the parent brand, and therefore evokes a negative feedback effect.

Furthermore, image feedback effects are found to be stronger in case of a negative service experience, which again is in line with the previous findings of Völckner et al. (2008), and underlines the importance of quality in the service context, as a negative service experience implies a lower quality of the extension than the parent brand. Moreover, this finding highlights the valence of the prospect theory and the concept of
asymmetric disconfirmation in that a negative service experience is weighted heavier than a positive one. Keeping in mind the implications of the prospect theory, “*that losses are weighted more heavily than gains*” (Maxham III & Netemeyer, 2002, p. 58), it is proven by the study on hand, that the negative feedback effect of a service failure on the post-image evaluation of the parent brand is stronger than the positive feedback effect of a positive service experience.

Therefore, service satisfaction which is highly interrelated with the quality of the service (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985), is seen as the main driver of feedback effects on a product parent brand, stemming from service extensions.

One of the main drivers of brand extension evaluation and subsequently feedback effects is, according to many researchers, the perceived fit between the extension and the parent brand (Aaker & Keller, 1990; van Riel, Lemmink, & Ouwersloot, 2001). In contrast to previous research on product brand extensions, in this study the perceived fit is found to have no direct impact, and an overall weaker influence on the image feedback effects than service satisfaction, in the case of asymmetric service extensions. This can be concluded since service satisfaction does not have a stronger impact on the parent brand image in case the perceived fit between the parent brand and the service extension is high. Respectively, a service failure does not have a stronger impact on the parent brand image in case the perceived fit between the parent brand and the service extension is low.

Therefore, when it comes to the feedback effects of service extensions on the product parent brand, the fit between the two can be seen as negligible, whereas the quality of the service, leading to (dis)satisfaction is the most important driver of feedback effects. This can be concluded as following: The high and low customer satisfaction scenarios, in case of low fit, and the high and low customer satisfaction scenarios in case of high fit differ significantly from each other, when it comes to the evaluation of the final brand image, measured by the quality evaluation of the parent brand after the exposure to the service scenario. In addition to that, the high customer satisfaction scenarios, either in case of low or high fit, do not differ from each other, when it comes to the final brand image. Respectively, the low customer satisfaction scenarios, either in case of low or high fit, do not differ from each other when it comes to the final evaluation of the brand image. Therefore, the proposed model is supported, as can be seen in the figure.
below, and the impact of service satisfaction on the parent brand is displayed in the following figure.

Therefore, service quality in its three dimensions, and the resulting service (dis)satisfaction are seen as the main driver of feedback effects on the product parent brand, and satisfaction and not the degree of fit produces differences in the final quality evaluation of the parent brand. This new discovery in the field of service brand extensions enlarges the previous findings on service quality in the context of brand extensions of Völckner et al. (2010), who state that parent brand quality is the main driver of service extension evaluation. Furthermore, the result of the study leads to the conclusion that fit cannot be used as proxy for service quality.

Nonetheless it is found out, that the perceived fit moderates the service extension evaluation, measured by the final service quality (after the presentation of the service scenario). The high satisfaction scenarios differ from each other in the final service quality evaluation, the high fit scenario yielding higher average scores. The low customer satisfaction scenarios also differ from each other in terms of service quality, again the high fit, low satisfaction scenario yielding higher scores. Therefore, it can be concluded, that the higher the perceived fit between the parent brand and the service extension is, the higher will be the extension evaluation. Talking about the extension evaluation, it can further be postulated that higher service quality leads to a better extension evaluation, as the high quality services yield better evaluations in terms of service quality, in both, the high and the low fit scenarios. The additional analysis of the service extension evaluation reveals that the initial brand image is positively related to the service extension evaluation, which is in line with the findings of van Riel et al.
(2001). This implies that a higher initial brand image leads to a higher extension evaluation.

However, service satisfaction, producing differences in the extension evaluation as well as in the final evaluation of the parent brand image, is seen as the dominant driver of image feedback effects on the parent brand in case of asymmetric service extensions, as the perceived fit does not influence the final brand image but only the extension evaluation. When it comes to image feedback effects, this implies that high service quality and service satisfaction are more important in the context of asymmetric service extensions than the perceived fit between the extension and the parent brand.

Concluding the results of the study it can be stated that asymmetric service extensions do produce feedback effects on a product parent brand. Particularly, it is highlighted that in a service context, quality and the arising customer (dis)satisfaction are the most important drivers of feedback effects. The perceived fit between the extension and the parent brand, is found to influence the extension evaluation, but not directly the feedback effects on the parent brand. However, fit is found to have a weaker influence on the extension evaluation than service quality, in case of service brand extensions, and therefore work as moderator instead of driver of feedback effects, whereas service satisfaction is seen as dominant driver. This unique finding contributes to the literature in that service satisfaction, arising from service quality, is identified as the main driver of feedback effects of service brand extensions.

The empirical study on the feedback effects of asymmetric service extensions on the product parent brand, has been conducted in Austria. As mainly the impact of service satisfaction is measured and the importance of service quality in the context of brand extensions is stressed, this is seen as limitation to the study, as the importance of the different service quality dimensions (Furrer, Shaw-Ching Liu, & Sudharshan, 2000) and accordingly, service satisfaction might vary across cultures (Chan & Wan, 2008). Furthermore, the small sample size and the fact that a non-probability sampling method has been applied to select the sample, are seen as limitations of the study.

As in the context of service brand extensions quality seems to be the most important and obvious difference to product brand extensions, the impact of service quality is measured in the empirical study. The way how additional information is incorporated into the existing networks in the case of service brand extensions, and which model of
brand schema modification is applied, provides an interesting field for further research, as this is not revealed in the research on hand.

Due to the lack of comparable real-life product to service brand extensions, hypothetical service extensions have been developed for the chosen parent brand. This can be seen as limitation as consumers judge the service situation without experiencing it, despite service experience being an important factor in the evaluation of services. Therefore, it is recommended to repeat the study with real-life extensions, to deepen the understanding of feedback effects of asymmetric service brand extensions. In the hypothetical service brand extensions, interaction and outcome quality have been manipulated, to produce high and low satisfaction scenarios. A different result might be obtained regarding the feedback effects on a product parent brand, manipulating other dimensions of service quality. The parent brand chosen for this study, Nike, is characterized by high quality perceptions. This might cause ceiling effects, described in the theoretical part of the thesis, and therefore limit positive feedback effects.

Summing up the limitations it can be recommended for further research to conduct the study again with a less known and lower quality brand or real-life service extensions, in an international context.
5. Zusammenfassung


Um Rückwirkungen (sowohl positiv als auch negativ) auf die Muttermarke zu messen, wird eine empirische Studie durchgeführt. Die Studie zeigt, dass rückwirkende Effekte auch bei Markenerweiterungen vom Produkt in den Dienstleistungsbereich auftreten. Es stellt sich heraus, dass Dienstleistungszufriedenheit der größte Einflussfaktor auf Rückwirkungen auf die Muttermarke ist, was darauf schließen lässt, dass der Qualität der Dienstleistung bei Markentransfers vom Produkt- in den Dienstleistungssektor ein hoher Stellenwert zukommt.

Die Ergebnisse der Studie zeigen, dass Dienstleistungsqualität eine essentielle Rolle spielt, wenn asymmetrische Markenerweiterungen eingeführt werden. Diese neue Erkenntnis stellt einen Widerspruch zu bisherigen Studien über Markenerweiterungen im Produktbereich dar, da hierbei die Nähe und Ähnlichkeit der Markenerweiterung als Hauptkriterium für das Entstehen von rückwirkenden Effekten gesehen wird und nicht die Qualität der neu eingeführten Erweiterung. Zudem stellt sich heraus, dass die für die Studie gewählte Marke Nike, nicht resistent gegen Verwässerung des Markenimages ist, was wiederum die Wichtigkeit des untersuchten Themas unterstreicht, da selbst internationale, starke Marken nicht vor Verwässerung sicher sind und es essentiell ist, Faktoren, die das Entstehen von solch rückwirkenden Effekten auf das Image beeinflussen, zu verstehen um einer etwaigen Verwässerung des Markenimages entgegenzuwirken und die Marke durch die Erweiterung zu stärken.
6. List of References


7. Appendix

7.1. Pre-Test 1

Die vorliegende Umfrage findet im Rahmen eines Forschungsprojektes der Universität Wien statt. Diese Studie dient ausschließlich akademischen Zwecken und wird nicht für geschäftliche Interessen an Firmen weitergegeben. Bei dieser Befragung handelt es sich um ein Forschungsprojekt über Markendehnung und die rückwirkenden Effekte auf die Muttermarke. In der Befragung gibt es keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten, wir fragen nach Ihrer persönlichen Einschätzung. Sie benötigen insgesamt ca. 5 Minuten für die Beantwortung.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme und Ihre Zeit!

Wie gut kennen Sie die Marke Nike? (1 = gar nicht gut, 7 = sehr gut)

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

Welches Produkt verbinden Sie spontan mit der Marke Nike?

Wie stufen Sie die Qualität der Marke Nike ein? (1 = gar nicht gut, 7 = sehr gut)

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

Teil 1:
Zuerst wollen wir von Ihnen wissen, ob Sie sich vorstellen können, dass Nike die folgenden Dienstleistungen anbietet?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dienstleistung</th>
<th>Wie gut passen die folgenden Dienstleistungen zu den anderen Dienstleistungen die von Nike angeboten werden?</th>
<th>Wie gut passen folgende Dienstleistungen zu Ihrem Gesamtbild der Marke Nike?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Trainer</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Banking</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebensversicherung</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness Center</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beach Club / Animation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kino</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Abenteuer Urlaub (z.B., Rafting, Fallschirmspringen) | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Kochkurs | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Online Music-Store | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Sportmedizinische Beratung | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Teil 2:
Im nächsten Teil wollen wir wissen, wie hoch Sie die Interaktion zwischen Kunde und Mitarbeiter in den folgenden Dienstleistungen bewerten? Beispiel: Bei einem Frisör ist die Interaktion sehr hoch, weil die Anwesenheit von Mitarbeiter und Kunde erforderlich ist sowie eine intensive Betreuung des Kunden für die Dienstleistungserstellung unerlässlich ist. Bei einem Online-Wörterbuch hingegen, ist die Interaktion gering, weil die gleichzeitige Anwesenheit und eine intensive Betreuung für die Inanspruchnahme der Dienstleistung nicht notwendig sind.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wie hoch schätzen sie die Interaktion zwischen Kunde und Mitarbeiter in den folgenden Dienstleitungen?</th>
<th>1 = kaum bis gar keine Interaktion</th>
<th>7 = sehr hohe Interaktion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Trainer</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Banking</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebensversicherung</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness Center</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beach Club / Animation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kino</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abenteuer Urlaub (z.B., Rafting, Fallschirmspringen)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kochkurs</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Music-Store</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportmedizinische Beratung</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teil 3:
In wie weit ist die Dienstleistung bzw. einzelne Bestandteile der Dienstleistung für Sie tastbar/materiell?
Materiell bzw. tastbar bedeutet in dem Zusammenhang, dass man die Dienstleistung entweder fühlen, schmecken, riechen, sehen oder hören kann.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 = immateriell</th>
<th>7 = materiell</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Trainer</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Banking</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebensversicherung</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness Center</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beach Club / Animation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.2. Pre-Test 2.1

Die vorliegende Umfrage findet im Rahmen eines Forschungsprojektes der Universität Wien statt. Diese Studie dient ausschließlich akademischen Zwecken und wird nicht für geschäftliche Interessen an Firmen weitergegeben.

Bei dieser Befragung handelt es sich um ein Forschungsprojekt über Markendehnung und die rückwirkenden Effekte auf die Muttermarke. In der Befragung gibt es keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten, wir fragen nach Ihrer persönlichen Einschätzung.

Sie benötigen insgesamt ca. 5 Minuten für die Beantwortung.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme und Ihre Zeit!

**NIKE**

Wie gut kennen Sie die Marke Nike? \( (1 = \text{überhaupt nicht gut}, 7 = \text{sehr gut}) \)

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Welches Produkt verbinden Sie spontan mit der Marke Nike?

Wie stufen Sie die Qualität der Marke Nike ein? \( (1 = \text{überhaupt nicht gut}, 7 = \text{sehr gut}) \)

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**Teil 1: Nike Personal Trainer**

Im folgenden Teil wird Ihnen eine Szene mit einem Nike Personal Trainer vorgestellt. Bitte lesen Sie diese aufmerksam durch und versuchen Sie sich in die Situation hinein zu versetzen. Bitte bewerten Sie anschließend das Szenario nach ihrer wahrgenommenen Qualität und Zufriedenheit mit der Dienstleistung auf einer 7-stufigen Skala.

**Szenario: Nike Personal Trainer**

Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie buchen Personal Trainer Stunden bei einem Nike Personal Trainer.

Das erste Treffen mit dem Personal Trainer findet in einem Nike Personal Training Zentrum statt. Die Räumlichkeiten sind einladend, hell und sauber. Der Trainer trifft
eine viertel Stunde zu spät ein und empfängt Sie mit einigen knappen Worten. Die erste Personal Trainingseinheit beginnt mit einem Health Check, der vom Trainer selbst durchgeführt wird. Der Trainer erläutert die Übungen die für den Health Check erforderlich sind. Er zeigt sich wenig interessiert an der korrekten Ausführung der Übungen und gibt Ihnen nur wenige Tipps. Nach der Einheit werden Sie aufgefordert, dem Trainer Ihre persönlichen Ziele, die Sie mit dem Training erreichen wollen, per Email zuzuschicken.


Wie stufen Sie die von Ihnen wahrgenommene Dienstleistungsqualität von Nike in dieser Situation ein? (1 = überhaupt nicht gut, 7 = sehr gut)

Wie stufen Sie Ihre Zufriedenheit mit dem Nike Personal Training ein? (1 = sehr unzufrieden, 7 = sehr zufrieden)

Wie hoch wäre Ihre Bereitschaft das Nike Personal Training fortsetzen oder noch einmal in Anspruch zu nehmen? (1 = sehr niedrig, 7 = sehr hoch)

Teil 2: Nike Kochkurs („Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“)

Im folgenden Teil wird Ihnen ein Szenario vorgestellt, das einen Kochkurs mit dem Titel „Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“ angeboten von der Firma Nike beschreibt. Bitte lesen Sie dieses aufmerksam durch und versuchen Sie sich in die Situation hinein zu versetzen. Bitte bewerten Sie anschließend das Szenario nach ihrer wahrgenommenen Qualität und Zufriedenheit mit der Dienstleistung auf einer 7-stufigen Skala.

Szenario: Nike Kochkurs

Der Kochkurs mit dem Titel „Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“ angeboten von Nike, findet in einem freundlichen Kochstudio in zentraler Lage statt. Das Ambiente ist einladend und Sie fühlen sich auf Anhieb wohl und gut betreut. Die Leiterin des Kurses stellt sich zu Beginn des Kurses persönlich bei allen Teilnehmern vor.

Zu Beginn gibt die Leiterin des Kurses eine Einführung und stellt ein Konzept vor, das helfen soll, durch gesunde Ernährung in Kombination mit sportlichen Aktivitäten Ihre


**Wie stufen Sie die von Ihnen wahrgenommene Dienstleistungsqualität von Nike in dieser Situation ein? (1 = überhaupt nicht gut, 7 = sehr gut)**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**Wie stufen Sie Ihre Zufriedenheit mit dem Nike Kochkurs „Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“ ein? (1 = sehr unzufrieden, 7 = sehr zufrieden)**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**Wie hoch wäre Ihre Bereitschaft den Nike Kochkurs noch einmal in Anspruch zu nehmen? (1 = sehr niedrig, 7 = sehr hoch)**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

### 7.3. Pre-Test 2.2

Die vorliegende Umfrage findet im Rahmen eines Forschungsprojektes der Universität Wien statt. Diese Studie dient ausschließlich akademischen Zwecken und wird nicht für geschäftliche Interessen an Firmen weitergegeben.

Bei dieser Befragung handelt es sich um ein Forschungsprojekt über Markendehnung und die rückwirkenden Effekte auf die Muttermarke. In der Befragung gibt es keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten, wir fragen nach Ihrer persönlichen Einschätzung.

Sie benötigen insgesamt ca. 5 Minuten für die Beantwortung.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme und Ihre Zeit!

**NIKE**

**Wie gut kennen Sie die Marke Nike? (1 = überhaupt nicht gut, 7 = sehr gut)**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**Welches Produkt verbinden Sie spontan mit der Marke Nike?**

__________________________________________

**Wie stufen Sie die Qualität der Marke Nike ein? (1 = überhaupt nicht gut, 7 = sehr gut)**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Teil 1: Nike Personal Trainer

Im folgenden Teil wird Ihnen eine Szene mit einem Nike Personal Trainer vorgestellt. Bitte lesen Sie diese aufmerksam durch und versuchen Sie sich in die Situation hinein zu versetzen. Bitte bewerten Sie anschließend das Szenario nach ihrer wahrgenommenen Qualität und Zufriedenheit mit der Dienstleistung auf einer 7-stufigen Skala.

Szenario: Nike Personal Trainer

Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie buchen Personal Trainer Stunden bei einem Nike Personal Trainer.


Wie stufen Sie die von Ihnen wahrgenommene Dienstleistungsqualität von Nike in dieser Situation ein? 

(1 = überhaupt nicht gut, 7 = sehr gut)
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Wie stufen Sie Ihre Zufriedenheit mit dem Nike Personal Training ein? 

(1 = sehr unzufrieden, 7 = sehr unzufrieden)
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Wie hoch wäre Ihre Bereitschaft das Nike Personal Training fortsetzen oder noch einmal in Anspruch zu nehmen? 

(1 = sehr niedrig, 7 = sehr hoch)
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Teil 2: Nike Kochkurs („Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“)

Im folgenden Teil wird Ihnen ein Szenario vorgestellt, das einen Kochkurs mit dem Titel „Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“ angeboten von der Firma Nike beschreibt. Bitte lesen Sie dieses aufmerksam durch und versuchen Sie sich in die Situation hinein zu versetzen. Bitte bewerten Sie anschließend das Szenario nach ihrer wahrgenommenen Qualität und Zufriedenheit mit der Dienstleistung auf einer 7-stufigen Skala.

Szenario: Nike Kochkurs („Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“)


Die Einführung zu Beginn des Kurses durch die Kursleiterin fällt sehr knapp aus und das Konzept des Kurses und der Zusammenhang zwischen gesunder Ernährung und Fitness wird nicht erläutert. Die Leiterin des Kurses wirkt unvorbereitet und hat Mühe die Fragen der Teilnehmer zu beantworten. Sie könnten sich nicht vorstellen, den Kursinhalt in den Alltag zu integrieren.


Die Rezepte müssen Sie sich selbst notieren, Stifte und Papier werden von der Leiterin des Kurses nicht zur Verfügung gestellt.

Wie stufen Sie die von Ihnen wahrgenommene Dienstleistungsqualität von Nike in dieser Situation ein? (1 = überhaupt nicht gut, 7 = sehr gut)

Wie stufen Sie Ihre Zufriedenheit mit dem Nike Kochkurs „Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“ ein? (1 = sehr unzufrieden, 7 = sehr zufrieden)

Wie hoch wäre Ihre Bereitschaft den Nike Kochkurs noch einmal in Anspruch zu nehmen? (1 = sehr niedrig, 7 = sehr hoch)
7.4. Final Questionnaire

Die vorliegende Umfrage findet im Rahmen eines Forschungsprojektes der Universität Wien statt. Diese Studie dient ausschließlich akademischen Zwecken und wird nicht für geschäftliche Interessen an Firmen weitergegeben.

Bei dieser Befragung handelt es sich um ein Forschungsprojekt über Markendehnung und die rückwirkenden Effekte auf die Muttermarke. In der Befragung gibt es keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten. Sie werden nach Ihrer persönlichen Einschätzung gefragt.

Sie benötigen insgesamt ca. 15 Minuten für die Beantwortung.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme und Ihre Zeit!

---

TEIL 1: Fragen zur Marke Nike

1. Welches Produkt verbinden Sie mit der Marke Nike?

_________________________________________________

2. Wie gut sind Sie mit der Marke Nike vertraut? Bezüglich der Marke Nike bin ich...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nicht vertraut</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>vertraut</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nicht erfahren</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>erfahren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nicht sachkundig</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>sachkundig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nicht informiert</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>informiert</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Wie stufen Sie die Qualität der von Nike angebotenen Produkte ein? (1 = überhaupt nicht gut, 7 = sehr gut)

   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

4. In wie weit treffen die folgenden Aussagen auf die Marke Nike zu?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trifft überhaupt nicht zu</th>
<th>trifft voll zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Die Marke Nike ist qualitativ hochwertiger als andere Marken.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Die Marke Nike hebt sich positiv von anderen Marken ab.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ich schätze die Qualität der Marke Nike extrem hoch ein.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Bitte stellen Sie Ihren persönlichen Eindruck der Marke Nike auf der jeweils angegebenen Skala dar:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>innovativ</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>altmodisch</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>langweilig</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>unterhaltsam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stark</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>schwach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsympathisch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>sympathisch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prestigelos</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>prestigeträchtig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ehrlich</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>unehrlich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>authentisch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>unglaubwürdig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unattraktiv</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>attraktiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kompetent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>inkompetent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Im Folgenden geht es darum, wie Personal Trainer Stunden zur Marke Nike passen:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In wie weit stimmen Sie folgenden Aussagen zu?</th>
<th>Stimme überhaupt stimme voll nicht zu und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Trainer Stunden passen zum Image der Marke Nike.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Trainer Stunden passen zu den übrigen Produkten, die von der Marke Nike angeboten werden.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Es scheint logisch, dass die Marke Nike Personal Trainer Stunden anbietet.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Das Angebot von Personal Trainer Stunden eignet sich gut für die Marke Nike.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Das Gesamtbild, das ich von der Marke Nike habe, passt zu Personal Trainer Stunden.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. In wie weit stimmen Sie folgenden Aussagen zu?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wenn die Marke Nike Personal Trainer Stunden anbieten würde...</th>
<th>Stimme überhaupt stimme voll nicht zu und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>... werden diese überdurchschnittliche Qualität haben.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... wird die Qualität besser sein, als die Qualität von Personal Trainer Stunden der meisten anderen Anbieter.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... wird die Qualität sehr gut sein.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TEIL 2: Fragen zu Markenerweiterungen – Nike Personal Trainer Stunden

Lesen Sie folgende Situation bitte aufmerksam durch:

Im folgenden Teil wird Ihnen eine Szene mit einem Nike Personal Trainer vorgestellt. Bitte lesen Sie diese aufmerksam durch und versuchen Sie sich in die Situation hinein zu versetzen. Bitte beantworten Sie anschließend die Fragen zur Bewertung des Szenarios.

Szenario: Nike Personal Trainer

Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie buchen Personal Trainer Stunden bei einem Nike Personal Trainer.

Das erste Treffen mit dem Personal Trainer findet in einem Nike Personal Training Zentrum statt. Die Räumlichkeiten sind einladend, hell und sauber. Der Trainer trifft pünktlich zur


**BITTE NICHT MEHR ZURÜCK BLÄTTERN**

8. **Wie realitätsnah ist das beschriebene Szenario aus Ihrer Sicht?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ausdruck</th>
<th>Stimme überhaupt</th>
<th>stimme voll nicht zu</th>
<th>und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ich konnte mir die beschriebene Situation leicht vorstellen.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ich konnte mich gut in das Szenario hineinversetzen.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. **In wie weit stimmen Sie nun, nachdem Sie das Szenario gelesen haben, den folgenden Aussagen zu?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aussage</th>
<th>Stimme überhaupt</th>
<th>stimme voll nicht zu</th>
<th>und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Das Personal Training der Marke Nike...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... hat überdurchschnittliche Qualität.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... hat eine höhere Qualität, als das Training anderer Personale Trainer.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... hat eine sehr hohe Qualität.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. **Wie zufrieden wären Sie mit dem Nike Personal Training?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aussage</th>
<th>Stimme überhaupt</th>
<th>stimme voll nicht zu</th>
<th>und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alles in allem, wäre ich mit dem Nike Personal Training zufrieden.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Das Personal Training würde meinen Erwartungen entsprechen.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Das Szenario schildert eine ideale Betreuung durch einen Personal Trainer.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. **Nachdem Sie das Szenario gelesen haben, wie stufen Sie nun die Qualität der Marke Nike ein?**

   *(1 = überhaupt nicht gut, 7 = sehr gut)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualität</th>
<th>Stimme überhaupt</th>
<th>stimme voll nicht zu</th>
<th>und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
12. In wie weit treffen nun die folgenden Aussagen auf die Marke Nike zu?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aussage</th>
<th>trifft überhaupt nicht zu</th>
<th>trifft voll und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Die Marke Nike ist qualitativ hochwertiger als andere Marken.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Die Marke Nike hebt sich positiv von anderen Marken ab.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ich schätze die Qualität der Marke Nike extrem hoch ein.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. Bitte stellen Sie nochmals Ihren Eindruck der Marke Nike auf der jeweils angegebenen Skala dar:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eigenschaft</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>innovativ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>langweilig</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsympathisch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prestigelos</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ehrlich</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>authentisch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unattraktiv</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kompetent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>altmodisch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unterhaltsam</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schwach</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sympathisch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prestigeträchtig</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unehlich</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unglaubwürdig</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attraktiv</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inkompetent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. Hat sich Ihr Bild der Marke Nike nach der Dienstleistungs-Erfahrung geändert?
   ○ Ja
   ○ Nein

15. Wenn ja, wie hat sich Ihre Einstellung zu Nike verändert? (1 = stark negativ verändert, 7 = stark positiv verändert)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

16. Abschließende persönliche Angaben (werden ausschließlich für statistische Zwecke verwendet)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Höchste abgeschlossene Schulbildung</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ Pflichtschule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ Lehre/Fachschule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ Matura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ Universität/FH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ Sonstiges:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beruf</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ Student/Schüler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ erwerbstätig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ arbeitslos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ in Pension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ Sonstiges:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nettoeinkommen pro Monat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ Weniger als 650 EUR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ 650 – 1.550 EUR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ 1.551 – 2.500 EUR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ mehr als 2.500 EUR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Staatsbürgerschaft</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ Österreich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ Andere:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geschlecht</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ weiblich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ männlich</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wohnsitz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ Stadt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>○ Ländlicher Raum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Alter: _____ Jahre |
7.5. Service Scenarios

7.5.1. Nike Personal Trainer- High Fit Negative

Szenario: Nike Personal Trainer

Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie buchen Personal Trainer Stunden bei einem Nike Personal Trainer.


7.5.2. Nike Cooking Class- Low Fit Positive

Szenario: Nike Kochkurs

Stellen Sie sich bitte vor Sie nehmen an einem Kochkurs unter dem Motto „Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“, angeboten von Nike, teil.
Der Kochkurs mit dem Titel „Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“ angeboten von Nike, findet in einem freundlichen Kochstudio in zentraler Lage statt. Das Ambiente ist einladend und Sie fühlen sich auf Anhieb wohl und gut betreut. Die Leiterin des Kurses stellt sich zu Beginn des Kurses persönlich bei allen Teilnehmern vor.


**7.5.3. Nike Cooking Class- Low Fit Negative**

**Szenario: Nike Kochkurs („Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“)**

Stellen Sie sich bitte vor Sie nehmen an einem Kochkurs unter dem Motto „Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“, angeboten von Nike, teil.


Die Einführung zu Beginn des Kurses durch die Kursleiterin fällt sehr knapp aus und das Konzept des Kurses und der Zusammenhang zwischen gesunder Ernährung und Fitness wird nicht erläutert. Die Leiterin des Kurses wirkt unvorbereitet und hat Mühe die Fragen der Teilnehmer zu beantworten. Sie können sich nicht vorstellen, den Kursinhalt in den Alltag zu integrieren.

Die Rezepte müssen Sie sich selbst notieren, Stifte und Papier werden von der Leiterin des Kurses nicht zur Verfügung gestellt.

**7.5.4. Coding Of Questionnaire and Scales to be Used for Data Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>version</th>
<th>Scenario used in questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>high fit, positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>high fit, negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>low fit, positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>low fit, negative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same multi item measures are used for all four versions of the questionnaire. Following, as an example, one of the low fit scenarios will be displayed.

**Part 1:**

**Q1:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>product</th>
<th>Welches Produkt verbinden Sie mit der Marke Nike?</th>
<th>open question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

⇒ Used as a screening question

**Q2:**

**Brand Familiarity: Diamantopoulos et al. (2005)**

Wie gut sind Sie mit der Marke Nike vertraut? Bezüglich der Marke Nike bin ich…

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>fam_1 – fam_4</th>
<th>vertraut / erfahren / sachkundig / informiert</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 = nicht vertraut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7 = vertraut</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

⇒ Used as a screening question

**Q3:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>q_total_before</th>
<th>Wie stufen Sie die Qualität der von Nike angebotenen Produkte ein?</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 = überhaupt nicht gut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7 = sehr gut</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

⇒ Used to analyze H2 and H3a and b

**Q4:**


In wie weit treffen die folgenden Aussagen auf die Marke Nike zu?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>q_before_1</th>
<th>Die Marke Nike ist qualitative hochwertiger als andere Marken.</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>q_before_2</td>
<td>Die Marke Nike hebt sich positive von anderen Marken ab.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q_before_3</td>
<td>Ich schätze die Qualität der Marke Nike extrem hoch ein.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Used to analyze H1, H2 and H3a and b

Q5:
**Brand Personality: Mahnik & Meyerhofer, 2006**

Bitten stellen Sie Ihren persönlichen Eindruck der Marke Nike auf der jeweils angegeben Skala dar:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>brand_pers_before_1 - 9</th>
<th>Innovativ / langweilig / stark / unsympathisch / prestigelos / ehrlich / authentisch / unattraktiv / kompetent</th>
<th>7 Point Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 = innovativ, 7 = altmodisch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Not used in the final analysis as the brand personality before and after presenting the scenario resulted to be incomparable

Q6:
**Perceived Degree of Fit: Taylor & Bearden (2002) and Vöckner & Sattler (2006)**

Im Folgenden geht es darum, wie ein Kochkurs („Fit durch gesunde Ernährung“) zur Marke Nike passt: In wie weit stimmen Sie folgenden Aussagen zu?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>fit_1</th>
<th>Ein Kochkurs passt zum Image der Marke Nike.</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 = stimme überhaupt nicht zu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 = stimme voll und ganz gut</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fit_2</td>
<td>Ein Kochkurs passt zu den übrigen Produkten, die von der Marke Nike angeboten werden.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fit_3</td>
<td>Es scheint logisch, dass die Marke Nike einen Kochkurs anbietet.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fit_4</td>
<td>Das Angebot von Kochkursen eignet sich gut für die Marke Nike.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fit_5</td>
<td>Das Gesamtbild, das ich von der Marke Nike habe, passt zu Kochkursen.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Used to analyze prerequisite Pa

Q7:
**Extension Evaluation: Taylor and Bearden (2002)**

In wie weit stimmen Sie folgenden Aussagen zu? Wenn die Marke Nike Kochkurse anbieten würde...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ext_eval_before_1</th>
<th>… werden diese überdurchschnittliche Qualität haben.</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 = stimme überhaupt nicht zu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 = stimme voll und ganz gut</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ext_eval_before_2</td>
<td>… wird die Qualität besser sein, als</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
die Qualität von Kochkursen der meisten anderen Anbieter.

ext_eval_before_3 … wird die Qualität sehr gut sein. 7 Point Likert Scale

Part 2:

Q8: 
**Reality Check: Bilstein, Hogreve, Sichtmann and Fahr (2012)**

Wie realitätsnah ist das beschriebene Szenario aus Ihrer Sicht?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>realistic_1</th>
<th>Ich konnte mir die beschriebene Situation leicht vorstellen.</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>realistic_2</td>
<td>Ich konnte mich gut in die beschriebene Situation hineinversetzen.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

⇒ Used to check the reliability of the questionnaire

Q9: 
**Extension Evaluation: Taylor and Bearden (2002)**

In wie weit stimmen Sie nun, nachdem Sie das Szenario gelesen haben, folgenden Aussagen zu? Der Kochkurs der Marke Nike...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ext_eval_after_1</th>
<th>… hat überdurchschnittliche Qualität.</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ext_eval_after_2</td>
<td>… hat eine höhere Qualität, als Kochkurse anderer Anbieter.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ext_eval_after_3</td>
<td>… hat eine sehr hohe Qualität.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

⇒ Used to conduct the additional analysis

Q10: 
**Service Satisfaction: Homburg, Koschate & Hoyer (2005)**

Wie zufrieden wären Sie mit dem Nike Kochkurs?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>satisfaction_1</th>
<th>Alles in allem, wäre ich mit dem Nike Kochkurs zufrieden.</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>satisfaction _2</td>
<td>Der Kochkurs würde meinen Erwartungen entsprechen.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>satisfaction _3</td>
<td>Das Szenario schildert den idealen Ablauf eines Kochkurses.</td>
<td>7 Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

⇒ Used to analyze the prerequisites Pb & Pc

Q11: 
**Total Brand Quality after**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>q_total_after</th>
<th>Nachdem Sie das Szenario gelesen haben, wie stufen Sie nun die Qualität der Marke Nike ein?</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 = überhaupt nicht gut</td>
<td>7 = sehr gut</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q12: 

In wie weit treffen nun die folgenden Aussagen auf die Marke Nike zu?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>q_after_1</th>
<th>Die Marke Nike ist qualitativ hochwertiger als andere Marken</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 = trifft überhaupt nicht zu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7 = trifft voll und ganz gut</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>q_after_2</th>
<th>Die Marke Nike hebt sich positive von anderen Marken ab</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>q_after_3</th>
<th>Ich schätze die Qualität der Marke Nike extrem hoch ein.</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Q13: 
**Brand Personality: Mahnik & Meyerhofer, 2006**

Bitten stellen Sie nochmals Ihren persönlichen Eindruck der Marke Nike auf der jeweils angegeben Skala dar:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>brand_pers_after_1</th>
<th>Innovative / langweilig / stark / unsympathisch / prestigelos / ehrlich / authentisch / unattraktiv / kompetent</th>
<th>7 Point Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 = innovativ, 7 = altmodisch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

> Not used in the final analysis as the brand personality before and after presenting the scenario resulted to be incomparable

Q14 & 15: 
**Change in the Image Perception:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>perception</th>
<th>Hat sich Ihr Bild der Marke Nike nach der Dienstleistungserfahrung geändert?</th>
<th>Binary scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 = ja</td>
<td>2 = nein</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>perception_yes</th>
<th>Wenn ja, wie hat sich Ihre Einstellung zu Nike verändert?</th>
<th>7 Point Likert Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 = stark negative verändert</td>
<td>7 = stark positive verändert</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q16: 
**Abschließende persönliche Angaben**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>education</th>
<th>Höchste abgeschlossene Schulbildung</th>
<th>1 = Pflichtschule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 = Lehre/Fachschule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 = Matura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 = Universität/FH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 = Sonstiges</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>education_other</th>
<th>Höchste abgeschlossene Schulbildung - sonstiges</th>
<th>open question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>profession</th>
<th>Beruf</th>
<th>1 = Student/Schüler</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 = erwerbstätig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 = arbeitslos</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 7.5.5. Validity Assessment

It was easy for me to imagine the described situation. I was able to put myself into the scenario easily.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Mean (total)</strong></th>
<th>5.5</th>
<th>5.53</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard Deviation (total)</strong></td>
<td>1.593</td>
<td>1.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean (Version 1)</strong></td>
<td>6.03</td>
<td>6.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard Deviation (Version 1)</strong></td>
<td>1.520</td>
<td>1.426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean (Version 2)</strong></td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>5.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard Deviation (Version 2)</strong></td>
<td>1.539</td>
<td>1.358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean (Version 3)</strong></td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>5.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard Deviation (Version 3)</strong></td>
<td>1.547</td>
<td>1.612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean (Version 4)</strong></td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard Deviation (Version 4)</strong></td>
<td>1.714</td>
<td>2.013</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.5.6. Curriculum Vitae

Katharina Walzl, BA
Rechte Bahngasse 28/2
1030 Wien

Lebenslauf

Persönliche Daten
Geburtsdatum 07.05.1989
Geburtsort Graz
Nationalität Österreich

Bildungslaufbahn
Oktober 2010 Masterstudium an der Universität Wien: „Internationale Betriebswirtschaft“
Juli 2010 Bachelorprüfung
Bachelor Arbeit: “Die Bedeutung des Markenimages für das Markenmanagement. Eine Imageanalyse am Beispiel innocent.“
Juli 2009- Jänner 2010 Auslandssemester an der Universidad de Santiago de Chile
Oktober 2007 Bachelorstudium an der Fachhochschule Joanneum; Studiengang: „Management internationaler Geschäftsprozesse“ mit der Vertiefung “Internationales Marketing und Vertrieb“
1999- 2007 Neusprachliches Gymnasium der Ursulinen Graz
1995- 1999 Volksschule der Ursulinen Graz

Sprachkenntnisse
Deutsch Muttersprache
Spanisch Ausgezeichnete Kenntnisse
Englisch Ausgezeichnete Kenntnisse
Französisch Gute Kenntnisse

Sonstige Fähigkeiten und Qualifikationen
- Teilnahme am HP Mentoring Programm für Berufseinsteigerinnen
- Sehr gute MS Office Kenntnisse - Erwerb des ECDL
- Führerschein der Klasse B
- Gute Kenntnisse des Statistikprogrammes SPSS
Berufserfahrung

Mai 2013

**Media Investment Consultant bei der MediaCom, Kommunikationsagentur**

Tätigkeiten:
- Mediaplanung im Print und Online Bereich
  - Planung und Durchführung von Werbekampagnen
  - Laufendes Kampagnenmanagement
  - Erstellung und Analyse von Reporten
  - Erstellung von Präsentationen und Erarbeiten von Empfehlungen
- Entwicklung von Kommunikationsstrategien

Dezember 2011 - April 2013

**Assistant Brand Manager bei Pernod Ricard Austria**

**Brand Management ABSOLUT Vodka und Malibu Rum**

Tätigkeiten:
- Event- und Projektmanagement:
  Organisation und Abwicklung des weltweit ersten ABSOLUT Vodka Special Edition Days:
  - medienrelevante Veranstaltung
  - Versteigerung von Sondereditionen und Limited Editions
  - über 120 Gäste
- Organisation von Verkostungen und einer Bartender Competition
- Kommunikation mit anderen Abteilungen und Kunden
- Briefing von Agenturen; enge Zusammenarbeit mit Partneragenturen
- Mitarbeit bei der Planung und Umsetzung der Herbstkampagne
  - Organisation von Werbemitteln und Koordination der Abläufe
- Organisation und Einkauf von POS Materialien
- Konkurrenz-, Markt-, Trendanalysen und Marktbeobachtung
- Erstellen von Präsentationen und Reporten
- Social Media und Online Marketing

August- September 2011

**Praktikum im Market Management der Allianz Elementar Versicherungs- AG**

Tätigkeiten:
- Mitarbeit bei einer Online Marketing Kampagne
- Planung, Durchführung und Auswertung einer Mitarbeiterkampagne
- Unterstützung bei einem Produkt Launch
August 2010

**Praktikum im Marketing und Projektmanagement bei der Sportunion Steiermark**

Tätigkeiten:
- Projektbezogenes Arbeiten
- Analyse der Marke Sportunion und Empfehlungen zur Markenentwicklung und Positionierung
- Mitarbeit in der Organisation und Administration

März- Mai 2009

**Praktikum im Marketing bei der innocent Alps GmbH**

Tätigkeiten:
- Konkurrenz-, und Marktanalysen
- PR- Arbeit und Erstellung von Pressepaketen
- Planung und Umsetzung einer Sampling Aktion in Salzburger Büros
- Analyse der AC Nielsen Daten
- Mitarbeit in der Marktforschung
- Kundenbetreuung und Unterstützung des Verkaufs
- Organisatorische Tätigkeiten