

NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF BRAND FAMILIARITY AND BRAND RELEVANCE ON EFFECTIVENESS OF VIRAL ADVERTISEMENTS

JIN-SONG HUANG

Beihang University

LIUNING ZHOU

University of Southern California

We investigated the impact of brand familiarity and brand relevance on forwarding of viral advertisements, which is an issue that has rarely been addressed before. An experiment and a field study with 3,749 participants were conducted to test the research hypotheses. Results revealed that in the context of viral advertising, brand familiarity and brand relevance act as negative factors for forwarding, and only under the condition of low brand familiarity and low brand relevance are people more willing to forward viral advertisements. These results are different from those in the traditional advertising literature, in which it is held that brand familiarity and brand relevance will generate positive effects on the effectiveness of advertisements. Theoretical and managerial implications are also discussed.

Keywords: viral advertisement, brand familiarity, brand relevance, online forwarding.

Viral advertisements, which appear predominantly on the Internet, consist of two components—interesting content and embedded brand information—and peer-to-peer forwarding is used as an important indicator to evaluate the effectiveness of these advertisements (Berger & Milkman, 2012). Therefore, most researchers have paid attention to content, shown by pretest to be interesting, because it can generate peer-to-peer forwarding (Batinic & Appel, 2013).

Jin-Song Huang, Department of Marketing, Beihang University; Liuning Zhou, Annenberg School for Communication and Journalism, University of Southern California.

This research project was funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grants 71172015 and 71372006).

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Jin-Song Huang, Department of Marketing, Beihang University, 37 Haidian District, Beijing 100191, People's Republic of China. Email: huangjs@buaa.edu.cn

However, researchers have recently posited that embedded brand information may also impact the effectiveness of viral advertisements (Huang, Su, Zhou, & Liu, 2013), yet this possible influence has rarely been discussed. In this study, we analyzed the effects of two variables related to embedded brand information on viral advertisement forwarding, namely brand familiarity and brand relevance. *Brand familiarity* reflects consumer's experience and knowledge of a brand (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987), whereas *brand relevance* acts as a cognitive relationship between interesting content and embedded brand information (Sanbonmatsu, Shavitt, & Sherman, 1991).

In past studies, it has been shown that brand familiarity and brand relevance create a positive effect on traditional advertising (Campbell & Keller, 2003). However, with viral advertising there is the need to consider peer-to-peer forwarding, which is not significant in traditional advertising. Thus, we posited that the impact of brand familiarity and brand relevance on viral advertising may be vastly different from that of traditional advertising. Our purpose in this study was to test the effects of brand familiarity and brand relevance on viral advertisement forwarding, and thereby address the influence of embedded brand information on the effectiveness of viral advertisements.

Literature Review

We used the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) to explain the effects of brand familiarity and brand relevance (White & Harkins, 1994). The ELM proposes two major routes to persuasion: the central route and the peripheral route. Under the *central route*, the level of information involvement is high, and people will have a great amount of cognition about information. On the other hand, under the *peripheral route*, the level of information involvement is low, and people process information only based on positive or negative cues.

In terms of viral advertisements, people are more likely to interact by sharing entertaining content rather than by communicating product information or making purchase recommendations (Rimé, Finkenauer, Luminet, Zech, & Philippot, 1998). As such, if the content is apparently advertising oriented, forwarding it will cause the receivers to question the motives of the sender, and as a result the effectiveness of the advertising message will be lost (Huang et al., 2013). Therefore, when a viral advertisement looks like an advertisement, people's forwarding desire will decrease. According to the ELM (White & Harkins, 1994), people highly involved with embedded brand information of viral advertisements tend to process the information in an elaborate manner, can recognize the characteristics of brand information with relative ease, and consequently they are less likely to forward it. Therefore, people are more willing to forward viral

advertisements when they have high involvement with interesting content and low involvement with brand information (Huang et al., 2013).

The Effect of Brand Familiarity

Brand familiarity reflects the extent of a consumer's direct and indirect experience with a brand; *high brand familiarity* represents a high level of knowledge about the brand that a consumer has stored in their memory (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Campbell & Keller, 2003). When consumers see a familiar brand, their associative network of knowledge is activated, making it easier for them to retrieve relevant information about the brand from their memories (Peter & Olson, 1987). Redker and Gibson (2009) found that brand familiarity may lead to relatively weak *ad-evoked affect*, which refers to the negative or positive feelings evoked by an advertisement and often affecting dependent variables, such as attitude toward an advertisement, brand attitude, and intention (Brown, Homer, & Inman, 1998). However, brand familiarity can bring about better recall of new information in a competitive-interference environment (Kent & Allen, 1994), and exert a positive effect on repetition effectiveness (Campbell & Keller, 2003). With a high level of brand familiarity, consumers can better organize existing information to create a schema of higher knowledge structure about a brand, and are more likely to pay attention to and, thus, enter a state of high involvement with brand information (Campbell & Keller, 2003).

However, in the context of viral advertising, brand familiarity does not always produce the same positive impact, because forwarding interesting content rather than processing brand information is key to the success of viral advertising. When brand familiarity activates consumers' brand cognition, their brand information processing will be enhanced, viral advertisements will more closely resemble real advertisements, and as a result consumers' desire to forward them will decrease (Huang et al., 2013). Hence, we proposed the following hypothesis: ***Hypothesis 1:*** Brand familiarity will have a significantly negative impact on viral advertisement forwarding.

The Effect of Brand Relevance

Brand relevance refers to people's awareness of the relevance between two stimuli where a high level of awareness enhances their cognitive process (Sanbonmatsu et al., 1991). As interesting content and embedded brand information are two key components of viral advertising, in this study brand relevance refers to the recognition of the relationship between them. Brand relevance is a key variable in measuring advertising effect, and has a positive impact on attitude toward the advertisement (Sanbonmatsu et al., 1991). There is existing empirical evidence that relevant information can be more effortlessly recognized and learned, because it is encoded and easily linked within consumers'

associative networks (Coronges, Stacy, & Valente, 2007). Previous researchers have revealed that relevant stimuli can promote more learning and memory (Garretson & Burton, 2005), as these stimuli make it easier for consumers to encode and integrate brand-related information.

In the context of viral advertising, people process brand information through peripheral routes (Huang et al., 2013). When interesting content and embedded brand information are relevant to each other, this relevance will highlight brand association and become a peripheral cue to recognizing the advertised brand (Garretson & Burton, 2005). Such relevance causes people to recognize embedded brand information more easily and, thus, reduces their desire to forward the advertisement (Huang et al., 2013). Hence, we proposed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Brand relevance will have a significantly negative impact on viral advertisement forwarding.

The Interaction Between Brand Familiarity and Brand Relevance

Scholars have found that there is an interaction effect between brand familiarity and brand relevance. For instance, Shimp, Stuart, and Engle (1991) demonstrated that in the case of high relevance, conditioning stimulus promotes positive attitudes toward a familiar brand. In the environment of viral advertising, when the embedded brand is familiar to consumers, they will process brand information regardless of the level of brand relevance, which will reduce their likelihood of forwarding. Similarly, when consumers realize that the content and brand are related, they view the presentation of information as advertising regardless of their familiarity with the brand, which will also lower their forwarding desire. Therefore, in the case of low brand familiarity and high brand relevance, consumers will treat brand information as a peripheral cue, which will enhance their learning and memory of the brand (Garretson & Burton, 2005). On the other hand, in the case of high brand familiarity and low brand relevance, the consumer's associative network of brand knowledge will be activated (Peter & Olson, 1987). Hence, we proposed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: People will be willing to forward viral advertisements only in the case of low brand familiarity and low brand relevance.

Study 1

Method

Procedure. We adopted a 2 (low/high brand familiarity) \times 2 (low/high relevance) research design for Study 1. Before the experiment, a pretest was conducted to select brands and pictures. In selecting the brands, we used Baidu's Online Ranking Index, based on a number of searches to pick the top five brands

as familiar brands, and then searched on the Internet for five brands unfamiliar to consumers, determined by their low ranking. We then asked the participants to evaluate the familiarity of the 10 brands, and eventually picked Coca-Cola as the brand most familiar and PayEasy as the least familiar to consumers. Then we selected 10 pictures with the most hits from the Chinese picture website, www.quanjing.com, and asked those college students to rate their forwarding intention regarding those pictures. One picture with the highest rating was chosen for the study. Finally, we embedded the two brand logos separately into the picture for use as viral advertisements in our experiment.

We adopted a random between-groups design for the experiment. On the first page of the questionnaire, participants were instructed to view the advertisement and answer to what extent they liked it and how willing they were to forward it. After the first page was collected, the second page was distributed. At the beginning of the second page, we listed four brands (among which only one appeared in the advertisement on the first page) and asked the participants to identify the one they had seen in the advertisement. Following their selection of a brand, we asked them about their attentiveness to the brand when viewing the advertisement, and then tested their familiarity with all four brands.

Participants. We recruited participants during the pretest for the purpose of obtaining their evaluation in choosing experimental brands and pictures. For this, we included 33 college students aged from 18 to 26 years ($M = 22.27$, $SD = 2.38$) from a major university in Beijing, China. During formal experiments, we also recruited 122 (62 men and 60 women) student participants from this university, aged between 18 to 31 years ($M = 23.06$, $SD = 2.84$). Recruitment was conducted by advertisement through the student union.

Measures. Relevance was controlled using the priming technique (Fenigstein & Levine, 1984). At the beginning of the questionnaire, some participants were informed of the relevance of certain information contained in the pictures, thus forming the high relevance group. Participants who were not briefed about the relevance formed the low relevance group. At the end of the experiment, participants were told to evaluate brand familiarity and brand relevance (Kattner, Ellermeier, & Tavakoli, 2012; Stahl & Unkelbach, 2009).

Forwarding intention, attitudes toward advertisement, and brand familiarity were all measured using 7-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). We used how willing they were to forward the advertisement to measure forwarding intention, to what extent they liked the advertisement to measure attitudes toward the advertisement, and whether or not they were familiar with the brand to measure brand familiarity.

Results

The control test results show that there was a significant difference between

participants' familiarity with the brands ($M_{\text{Coca-Cola}} = 5.28$, $M_{\text{PayEasy}} = 4.20$, $F(1, 115) = 18.08$, $p < .01$), indicating that the control was effective. Control test results for brand relevance showed the rate of identification at 35.6% for the low relevance group and 60.3% for the high relevance group, and there was a significant difference between the two groups ($\chi^2 = 7.18$, $p < .01$).

Regarding the effect of brand familiarity, a two-way analysis of variance revealed a significant difference in attitude toward the advertisement between that of familiar brands and that of unfamiliar brands. Attitude toward the advertisement in the case of high familiarity ($M = 4.67$, $SD = 1.08$) was significantly lower than that in the case of low familiarity ($M = 5.13$, $SD = 1.14$), $F(1, 115) = 5.17$, $p = .03$. On the other hand, forwarding intention in the high familiarity group ($M = 3.81$, $SD = 1.46$) was significantly lower than in the low familiarity group ($M = 4.70$, $SD = 1.43$), $F(1, 115) = 23.31$, $p < .01$.

We also analyzed the effect of brand relevance. Attitude toward the advertisement in the high relevance group ($M = 4.57$, $SD = 1.17$) was significantly lower than in the low relevance group ($M = 5.24$, $SD = 0.99$), $F(1, 115) = 11.14$, $p < .01$. Besides, forwarding intention in the high relevance group ($M = 3.61$, $SD = 1.21$) was significantly lower than in the low relevance group ($M = 4.90$, $SD = 1.51$), $F(1, 115) = 25.53$, $p < .01$ (see Figure 1).

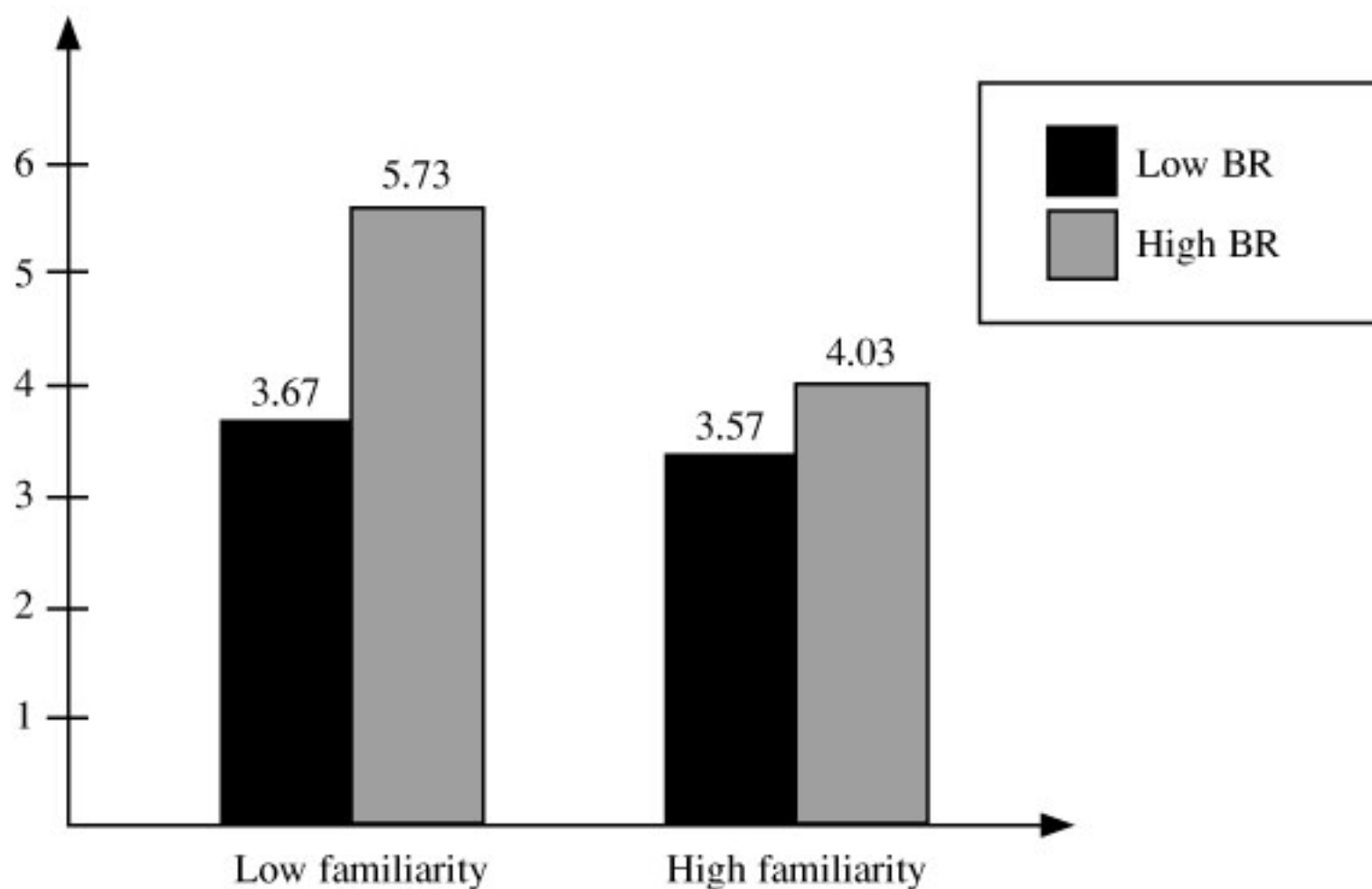


Figure 1. *The effects of brand familiarity and brand relevance on forwarding intention.*
Note. BR = brand relevance.

We also investigated the interaction effect between brand familiarity and brand relevance. In terms of attitude toward the advertisement, there was no significant difference between the low familiarity \times high relevance group ($M = 4.63$,

$SD = 1.19$), the high familiarity \times low relevance group ($M = 4.83$, $SD = 0.97$), or the high familiarity \times high relevance group ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 1.35$), $F(2, 84) = .63$, $p = .54$. However, attitude toward the advertisement in the low familiarity \times low relevance group ($M = 5.63$, $SD = 0.85$) was significantly higher than in the low familiarity \times high relevance group, $F(1, 58) = 14.05$, $p < .01$, the high familiarity \times low relevance group, $F(1, 57) = 11.58$, $p < .01$, and the high familiarity \times high relevance group, $F(1, 56) = 17.97$, $p < .01$. Brand familiarity \times brand relevance had no significant interaction effect on attitude toward the advertisement, $F(1, 116) = 2.99$, $p = .09$. As far as forwarding intention was concerned, there was no significant difference between the low familiarity \times high relevance group ($M = 3.67$, $SD = 1.09$), the high familiarity \times low relevance group ($M = 4.03$, $SD = 1.55$), and the high familiarity \times high relevance group ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 1.35$), $F(2, 84) = .96$, $p = .39$. However, forwarding intention in the low familiarity \times low relevance group ($M = 5.73$, $SD = 0.87$) was significantly higher than in the low familiarity \times high relevance group, $F(1, 58) = 65.75$, $p < .01$, the high familiarity \times low relevance group, $F(1, 57) = 27.31$, $p < .01$, and the high familiarity \times high relevance group $F(1, 56) = 53.60$, $p < .01$ (see Figure 1). Brand familiarity \times brand relevance had a significant interaction effect on forwarding intention, $F(1, 116) = 12.32$, $p < .01$. Our analysis shows that both attitude toward the advertisement and forwarding intention in the low familiarity \times low relevance group was significantly higher than in other groups.

In Study 1, we conducted an experiment to test the hypotheses. In order to increase the external validity of the research results, we further conducted a field study, namely Study 2, to test the hypotheses.

Study 2

Method

Procedure. We selected viral video advertisements from YouKu, the largest video-sharing site in China, which claims a market share of 50%. We filtered out the following advertisements in our selection: those with unclear images, those dubbed in foreign languages, those without brand information, those with television station logos, those with the majority of the content related to brand information without interesting content, or those with advertisements that were over 5 minutes in duration. We then ranked our selections based on the number of weekly hits and picked 120 for our study, with the brands covering 11 product categories, such as clothing accessories, digital technology, food and drinks, and automotive and household goods. We obtained our data via surveys, and for each viral advertisement we surveyed at least 30 participants. During the process of data collection, we adopted the technology of a local market research firm that

linked the questionnaire to the video clip, and the link was sent to participants by email.

Participants. All participants were college students, who are considered a population that actively forwards viral advertisements (Huang et al., 2013). We selected 120 students from four colleges in Beijing, China, and each student watched one video. After they viewed the video and completed the questionnaire, we asked participants to forward the link to their friends, who were also asked to continue forwarding the link to their own friends. Thus, participants first viewed the video and then answered the questions on the questionnaire. We obtained 3,749 samples, and there were 35–40 respondents for each video. All participants were aged under 30 years, and 93.1% of them were aged between 20 and 26 years ($M = 24.65$, $SD = 3.30$). Among them, 58.2% were men and 41.8% were women.

Measures. For measurement purposes, we used single items that have been found in prior research to meet validity requirements (Bergkvist & Rossiter, 2007). Data for each video came from the mean values of the items in the questionnaire. All items were measured using 7-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*), and were as follows: (1) attitude (Huang et al., 2013), with items such as whether or not participants like the video and whether or not they are willing to forward it; (2) content evaluation (Rimé et al., 1998), measuring whether or not participants find the content interesting; (3) brand familiarity (Lane & Jacobson, 1995), asking whether or not participants are familiar with the brand embedded in the video; (4) contingency or relevance (Sanbonmatsu et al., 1991) asking whether or not participants are aware of the relationship between the video content and brand information; and (5) motivations for forwarding (Ho & Dempsey, 2010). The motivations for forwarding include three items: control (“Forwarding the video would improve the receiver’s impression of me”), inclusion (“Forwarding the video could make other people accept me”), and affection (“Forwarding the video could let others know I care about their feelings”).

Results

As our analyses demonstrate (see Table 1), what affected the forwarding of a viral advertisement included attitude toward viral advertisement, content, brand familiarity, and brand relevance, with an R^2 of .72, indicating that those variables explain 72% of the variance in forwarding intention. Among them, content had the largest impact on forwarding; its inclusion in the regression equation increased the R^2 by .35. Attitude toward viral advertisements had the second largest impact; its inclusion increased the R^2 by .19. Of the motivation items, only control had a significant impact on forwarding, and its impact coefficient was negative. Inclusion and affection did not have a significant impact on forwarding.

Brand familiarity and brand relevance had a significant negative impact on forwarding intention. Meanwhile, the coefficient of the impact of brand familiarity \times brand relevance on forwarding intention was significant, indicating a significant interaction effect. The result is consistent with that of Study 1.

Table 1. *Factors That Affect Viral Advertisement Forwarding*

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Brand familiarity	-.27*** (.08)	-.18** (.08)	-1.50*** (.50)	-1.22*** (.39)	-.75** (.30)	-.78** (.30)
Brand relevance	–	-.25*** (.12)	-.90*** (.37)	-.57** (.29)	-.48*** (.22)	-.42** (.23)
Brand familiarity \times brand relevance	–	–	1.67** (.09)	1.30** (.07)	.84** (.06)	.84** (.06)
Content	–	–	–	.61***	.31*** (.06)	.28*** (.06)
Attitudes	–	–	–	–	.55*** (.08)	.55*** (.09)
Control	–	–	–	–	–	-.23* (.16)
Inclusion	–	–	–	–	–	.17 (.17)
Affection	–	–	–	–	–	.02 (.13)
R^2	.08	.13	.17	.52	.71	.72
F	9.55	8.64	7.93	30.82	56.93	36.23

Note. * $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$.

Discussion

Theoretical Implications

Prior researchers of viral advertising have largely focused on the role of interesting content (Berger & Milkman, 2012), without giving sufficient attention to the impact of the embedded brand. Given this gap in the literature, our purpose was to investigate the effects of embedded brand information on attitude toward viral advertisements and forwarding intention.

Findings from our studies reveal that brand familiarity had a significantly negative impact on forwarding intention. According to the ELM, when people are familiar with a brand they are more likely to retrieve relevant information from their memories (Peter & Olson, 1987), and consequently are more likely to process brand information, which will lead to audience awareness of the content as a form of advertisement and subsequently less desire to forward it.

Garretson and Burton (2005) researched brand relevance and obtained similar findings. Our results show that brand relevance had a significantly negative impact on forwarding intention. As people are in a state of high involvement when processing interesting content embedded into viral advertisements, they associate interesting content with brand information when brand relevance is at a high level. At this point, people process embedded brand information while processing interesting content, which makes it easier for them to recognize such content as an advertisement, resulting in a negative impact on their attitude toward the advertisement as well as their forwarding intention (Huang et al., 2013).

Findings from our two experimental studies also show that brand familiarity and brand relevance had significant interaction effects on the intention to forward viral advertisements. Only under the condition of low brand familiarity and low brand relevance were people more willing to forward viral advertisements. If either brand familiarity or brand relevance is at a relatively high level, people's forwarding intentions will be negatively affected.

Findings from this study on the effects of brand familiarity and brand relevance are different from those obtained by previous researchers of traditional advertising. These previous researchers have shown that brand familiarity brings about positive advertising effects (Campbell & Keller, 2003). However, we have shown that brand familiarity exerts significantly negative effects in the context of viral advertising. Similarly, researchers of traditional advertising have shown that brand relevance can enhance learning and memory (Keller, Heckler, & Houston, 1998), and, consequently, brand relevance can generate positive advertising effects. Nevertheless, we have shown that high brand relevance leads to significantly negative effects on attitude toward advertisements and forwarding intention in the context of viral advertising. The difference in research findings stems from different angles of evaluating advertising effects. For traditional advertising, the key to advertising effectiveness comes from enhanced processing and memory of brand information, but in the case of viral advertising the key is people's forwarding of the advertisement. Therefore, embedded brand information should be in a state of low involvement in the context of viral advertising.

Managerial Implications

Our findings have strong managerial implications. As our results show, brand familiarity has a negative impact on the forwarding of viral advertisements. Therefore, for brands with which consumers are familiar, viral advertising campaigns will not lead to a desirable viral effect. Therefore, it is important for companies to be mindful of consumers' familiarity with and recognition of their brands before launching viral advertising campaigns; advertisers of well-known

brands should keep in mind the potential negative responses from consumers. On the other hand, as brand relevance has a negative impact on viral advertisements, companies should avoid evoking consumers' awareness of the relevance between interesting content and brand information when designing viral advertisements. Rather, they should attempt to lead consumers' attention away from brand information when exhibiting interesting content.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

There are also some limitations to note. First, we used a student sample in both studies, which cannot represent the general population. Future researchers need to obtain a more representative sample in order to obtain external validity for the conclusions of the study. Second, we only looked at brand familiarity and brand relevance, but there are other variables that might significantly impact on viral advertisements, such as product differentiation and communication media. Those variables need to be explored further in future studies. Third, stimuli for our experiments all came from the Internet; they did not cover all categories of online viral content, and many types of content, such as those appealing to sex and violence, are banned in China. Therefore, our measurements do not represent all types of viral advertisements. Future researchers need to include other types of viral advertisements to increase this study's external validity.

References

- Alba, J. W., & Hutchinson, J. W. (1987). Dimensions of consumer expertise. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *13*, 411–454. <http://doi.org/d8t35n>
- Baidu Online Ranking Index. (2016). *Automotive brands* (May 2016). Retrieved from <http://bit.ly/29F4Jlv>
- Batinic, B., & Appel, M. (2013). Mass communication, social influence, and consumer behavior: Two field experiments. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *43*, 1353–1368. <http://doi.org/bbjr>
- Berger, J., & Milkman, K. L. (2012). What makes online content viral? *Journal of Marketing Research*, *49*, 192–205. <http://doi.org/fhdtkg>
- Bergkvist, L., & Rossiter, J. R. (2007). The predictive validity of multiple-item versus single-item measures of the same constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *44*, 175–184. <http://doi.org/brb2tg>
- Brown, S. P., Homer, P. M., & Inman J. J. (1998). A meta-analysis of relationships between ad-evoked feelings and advertising responses. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *36*, 114–126. <http://doi.org/d7b5hn>
- Campbell, M. C., & Keller, K. L. (2003). Brand familiarity and advertising repetition effects. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *30*, 292–304. <http://doi.org/fpdqfh>
- Coronges, K. A., Stacy A. W., & Valente, T. W. (2007). Structural comparison of cognitive associative networks in two populations. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *37*, 2097–2129. <http://doi.org/d252zc>
- Fenigstein, A., & Levine, M. P. (1984). Self-attention, concept activation, and the causal self. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *20*, 231–245. <http://doi.org/cv5xqn>

- Garretson, J. A., & Burton, S. (2005). The role of spokescharacters as advertisement and package cues in integrated marketing communications. *Journal of Marketing*, *69*, 118–132. <http://doi.org/d7vkdn>
- Ho, J. Y. C., & Dempsey, M. (2010). Viral marketing: Motivations to forward online content. *Journal of Business Research*, *63*, 1000–1006. <http://doi.org/c47>
- Huang, J., Su, S., Zhou, L., & Liu, X. (2013). Attitude toward the viral ad: Expanding traditional advertising models to interactive advertising. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *27*, 36–46. <http://doi.org/bbjjs>
- Kattner, F., Ellermeier, W., & Tavakoli, P. (2012). Both trace and delay conditioning of evaluative responses depend on contingency relevance. *Learning and Motivation*, *43*, 35–47. <http://doi.org/bbjt>
- Keller, K. L., Heckler, S. E., & Houston, M. J. (1998). The effects of brand name suggestiveness on advertising recall. *Journal of Marketing*, *62*, 48–57. <http://doi.org/cvgqdm>
- Kent, R. J., & Allen, C. T. (1994). Competitive interference effects in consumer memory for advertising: The role of brand familiarity. *Journal of Marketing*, *58*, 97–105. <http://doi.org/ctwsft>
- Lane, V., & Jacobson, R. (1995). Stock market reactions to brand extension announcements: The effects of brand attitude and familiarity. *Journal of Marketing*, *59*, 63–77. <http://doi.org/frx35g>
- Peter, J. P., & Olson, J. C. (1987). *Consumer behavior marketing strategy perspectives*. Homewood, IL: Irwin.
- Redker, C. M., & Gibson, B. (2009). Music as an unconditioned stimulus: Positive and negative effects of country music on implicit attitudes, explicit attitudes, and brand choice. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *39*, 2689–2705. <http://doi.org/dqq87s>
- Rimé, B., Finkenauer, C., Luminet, O., Zech, E., & Philippot, P. (1998). Social sharing of emotion: New evidence and new questions. *European Review of Social Psychology*, *9*, 145–189. <http://doi.org/dvh2qj>
- Sanbonmatsu, D. M., Shavitt, S., & Sherman, S. J. (1991). The role of personal relevance in the formation of distinctiveness-based illusory correlations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *17*, 124–132. <http://doi.org/d4b9b5>
- Shimp, T. A., Stuart, E. W., & Engle, R. W. (1991). A program of classical conditioning experiments testing variations in the conditioned stimulus and context. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *18*, 1–12. <http://doi.org/fvr3ck>
- Stahl, C., & Unkelbach, C. (2009). Evaluative learning with single versus multiple unconditioned stimuli: The role of contingency relevance. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Animal Behavior Processes*, *35*, 286–291. <http://doi.org/ds3rdd>
- White, P. H., & Harkins, S. G. (1994). Race of source effects in the elaboration likelihood model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *67*, 790–807. <http://doi.org/c9bw5n>