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研究課題名（和文）Theoretical and empirical research in identifying a new determinant of brand management success besides fit: From a dialectical thinking perspective.

研究課題名（英文）Theoretical and empirical research in identifying a new determinant of brand management success besides fit: From a dialectical thinking perspective.

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研究成果の概要（和文）：本研究の目的は、ブランドマネジメントの新たな成功要因を明らかにすることである。ブランド論では、一貫性（例えば、既存商品と新しく発売する商品のカテゴリに一貫性があるか）が強調されてきた。しかし市場では、一貫性が低くても成功している新商品が見受けられる。本研究では、一貫性が低い新商品の成功要因を特定することに努めた。

本研究では、共同ブランド戦略に焦点を当て、一貫性が低い新商品の成功要因として、「面白さ」と「クール」に着目し、仮説構築と検証を行った。「面白さ」に関する仮説は支持されなかったが、「クール」に関しては良い傾向がみられた。

研究成果の学術的意義や社会的意義

本研究の学術的意義は、ブランド論の発展に向け、次の2点で貢献したことにある。第一に、一貫性仮説の限界を明らかにしつつある。本研究は、ラグジュアリーに焦点を絞り、一貫性が低くても成功するメカニズムを特定した。第二に、文化心理学の知見を活かして、アジア発の理論を構築している。マーケティングでは、米国主体での理論構築の歴史が長かったため、米国外の文化から発信される理論が求められており、こうした研究の意義は高い。

本研究の社会的意義は、日本企業のブランド力向上に貢献し、ひいては日本経済の活性化への貢献を目指しているところにある。強いブランドを構築する道筋を明らかにし、新聞やビジネス誌で発表した。

研究成果の概要（英文）：The purpose of this research is to identify a new determinant of brand management success besides fit. This research challenges the prevailing construct of fit in brand management theory and propose a new factor that also succeeds the strategic branding activities such as brand extension.

This research focused on co-branding activities. First, I featured 'interestingness' as the characteristics of low-fit co-branded products and examined its effect on the new co-branded product evaluation. The empirical testing, unfortunately, did not support the hypothesis. Therefore, I conducted exploratory study focusing on luxury brands adopting masstige marketing and built a new hypothesis. 'Brand coolness' was identified as a potential factor that explains the success of low-fit co-branded products.

研究分野：マーケティング

キーワード：brand management co-branding brand alliances fit brand coolness luxury brands masstige marketing

1. 研究開始当初の背景

Brand management poses a paradoxical challenge for managers who must steer a course between stability and change, nurturing the brand as it evolves over time, keeping it up to date and relevant, but preserving its core meanings (Beverland, 2005; Fournier, 1996; Keller, 2013). Brand extension is a key tool in performing this task. Past research has addressed factors that promote brand extension success—primarily in relation to the fit between the parent brand and the extension (e.g., Aaker and Keller, 1990). Researchers define brand extension fit as the perceived similarity (e.g., product category, usage situation) and relevance of parent brand associations (i.e., attributes or benefits) for the extension category (Suzuki and Akutsu, 2016).

However, the applicant's past research shows that in some cultures such as East-Asia, the fit does not always positively influence consumers' brand evaluation (Suzuki and Akutsu, 2016; Suzuki, Sood, and Akutsu, 2017; Suzuki and Takemura, 2014). The applicant has illuminated cultural differences in thinking styles and attitudes toward inconsistency—dialectical thinking (Spencer-Rodgers et al., 2010)—as the underlying psychological mechanism for this difference in importance of the fit in brand management. What is still lacking is the understanding of factor besides the fit that determines the brand extension success, particularly when consumers are high in dialectical thinking and are tolerant toward changes and inconsistencies. This is the key scientific question that comprise the core of this research plan.

2. 研究の目的

The purpose of this research is to identify a new determinant of brand management success besides fit. This research challenges the prevailing construct of fit in brand management theory and propose a new factor that also succeeds the strategic branding activities such as brand extension.

This research is comprised of three projects. PJ1 tests the hypothesis generated as an output of 2015-2017 Grants-in-Aid for Young Scientists (B), "Cross-cultural empirical research on cultural differences in inconsistent brand image evaluation: The influence of dialectical thinking." We hypothesized that factors such as 'interesting,' 'unexpectedness,' or 'surprise' can be a characteristic of low-fit brand extension, which leads to its positive evaluation. However, this effect is likely to be different in two cultures (i.e., dialectical culture versus non-dialectical culture). PJ2 explores and builds the hypotheses for factor besides the fit that determines the brand extension success based on the findings of PJ1. Finally, PJ3 tests the hypotheses identified in PJ2, specifically in the context of cobranding.

3. 研究の方法

PJ1 adopted experimental method to test the hypotheses. The data was collected in two cultures to examine cultural differences in the effect. For PJ2, literature review and case studies were conducted. PJ3 also adopted experimental method to test the hypotheses.

4. 研究成果

(1) Empirical examination of 'interestingness' as the characteristics of low-fit co-branded products and its effect on evaluation

A popular strategy employed for introducing new brand extension is co-branding. Previous research on co-branding has focused on the impact of the fit between the product categories and the fit between brands on the evaluation of a new co-branded product (Park, Jun, and Shocker, 1996; Rao, Qu, and Ruekert, 1999; Shocker, 1995; Simonin and Ruth, 1998). A new co-branded product high in fits is logical. If there is a close connection between the current and new products or between the two partnering brands, consumers can easily imagine the new product. Still, it could also be boring for consumers. This is because consumers can easily predict the outcome of high-fit co-branded products. In contrary, products low in fits may be more interesting than those high in fits. This is because low-fit co-branded products are unexpected. Unexpectedness can arouse surprise (Collier et al., 2018; Whittlesea and Williams, 2001; Reizenzein, 2000), which positively impacts consumer behaviors (Heilman et al., 2002; Lee, 2000; Oliver et al., 1997; Berman, 2005). Thus, we hypothesized that the low-fit co-branded product is more interesting than the high-fit co-branded product, which results in higher evaluation of the low-fit co-branded product than the high-fit co-branded product.

However, we also hypothesized that the effect is different in two cultures. When consumers evaluate co-branded products, a high cognitive work is involved (Swaminathan et al., 2015). Thus, we assumed that culturally dominant thinking style affects the evaluations of co-branded products.

Cultural psychologists argue that our thinking styles are culturally and historically shared and sustained. Thinking styles shape our basic psychological processes such as perception and cognition (Peng and Nisbett, 1999; Nisbett et al., 2001; Nisbett, 2003; Nisbett and Masuda, 2003; Nisbett and Miyamoto, 2005). Furthermore, diversity in cognition and perception is also apparent in the marketplace (see further review in Masuda et al., 2020, the publication from this project).

Western cultures tend to be linear or synthetic in their cognitive orientation, whereas East Asian cultures tend to be dialectic (Peng and Nisbett, 1999). A principal consequence of dialectical thinking is that East Asians more comfortably accept psychological contradiction (Spencer-Rodgers et al., 2009). Recognizing and accepting the duality in all things is regarded as normative in East Asian cultures. Westerners, on the other hand, are more uncomfortable with inconsistencies and seek for the resolution of incongruity (Lewin, 1951; Peng and Nisbett, 1999).

The low-fit co-branded products are inconsistent in the product categories and/or between two brands. Thus, we argue that acceptance of low-fit co-branded products would be different across cultures. In sum, we hypothesize followings:

H1: Low-fit co-branded product is more interesting than high-fit co-branded product.

H2a: East Asians (i.e., Japanese) evaluates low-fit co-branded product higher than high-fit co-branded product.

H2b: Westerners (i.e., Americans) evaluates high-fit co-branded product higher than low-fit co-branded product.

Method

Procedure

The present study used an online experiment in which respondents were asked to answer questions about a new product that was introduced by two brands. Using a 2 x 2 between-subjects design, four versions of the new product were created with varying degrees of 'product-product fit' and 'brand-brand fit.'

Sample

Respondents were members of a consumer panel in Japan and the U.S. From this panel, for each country, 320 members were selected in such a way that the sample reflects the distribution of age and gender in the population between 20 and 70.

Stimulus Development

Three pre-tests helped to identify suitable products and brands with enough variance in the product-product fit and brand-brand fit measures. The two new products were (a) a dress for jewelry, developed by a fashion apparel company and a jeweler (high product-product fit), and (b) an apparel for toy, developed by a fashion apparel company and a toy producer (low product-product fit). The brands were (a-1) Ralph Lauren and Tiffany & Co. (high brand-brand fit), (a-2) H&M and Tiffany & Co. (low brand-brand fit), (b-1) H&M and LEGO (high brand-brand fit), and (b-2) Ralph Lauren and LEGO (low brand-brand fit).

Results

Interestingness of the new co-branded product. The interestingness and evaluation of the four new co-branded products were calculated. For Japan, interestingness of low-fit co-branded product was not higher than high-fit co-branded product ($t = -1.55, p = .12$). Similarly, for the U.S., interestingness of low-fit co-branded product was not higher than high-fit co-branded product ($t = -0.97, p = .33$). Thus, H1 was not supported.

Evaluation of the new co-branded product. For Japan, when comparing low-fit co-branded product and high-fit co-branded product, good ($t = -1.98, p = .05$) and nice ($t = -2.02, p = .05$) were lower; favorable ($t = -1.67, p = .10$) was marginally lower; and pleasant ($t = -1.44, p = .15$) and positive ($t = -1.54, p = .13$) were not different. The results show that the Japanese evaluated low-fit co-branded product lower than the high-fit co-branded product. Thus, H2a was not supported. For the U.S., when comparing low-fit co-branded product and high-fit co-branded product, none of the items showed difference. The results show that Americans evaluated low-fit and high-fit co-branded products same. Thus, H2b was not supported.

Discussion

The results of PJ1 show that 'interestingness' is not a characteristic of low-fit co-branded product. It also does not lead to the positive evaluation of low-fit co-branded product. Thus, 'interestingness' was abandoned as a candidate for factor besides fit that determines the brand extension success. In PJ2, we decided to go back to an exploratory study aiming to search for another candidate.

(2) Exploration of factor besides the fit that determines the brand extension success: Focus on 'brand coolness'

In PJ2, we decided to focus on luxury products because there was an increasing

phenomenon of *high-low mix strategy* among them. The high-low mix strategy is when luxury brands collaborate with non-luxury brands in marketing activities (e.g., advertising, sales channel) or to introduce new products. Examples include Mercedes Benz, a luxury and sophisticated automobile brand, pursuing a tie-up with Super Mario Bro., a non-luxury game brand; Godiva, a luxury chocolate brand, selling its products at convenience stores; and Uniqlo, a basic casual wear, launching designer products focusing on fashion. In other words, the high-low mix strategy entails a low fit co-branding (i.e., luxury and casual brands alliance). The high-low mix strategy is the luxury brands' strategic reaction to the consumption trend of *mixing-and-matching*, wearing luxury brands with non-luxury brands (e.g., fast-fashion). It is also known as *luxury masstige* (Batat, 2019), defined as "the marketing of luxury goods at very low prices, making them accessible to a large mass of consumers" (p. 66).

One of the motivations for luxury brands to pursue the high-low mix strategy is because they want to attract the next big group of consumers, millennials and Generation Z. According to Deloitte (2018), millennials and Generation Z will represent more than 40% of the overall luxury goods market by 2025, compared with around 30% in 2016. Boston Consulting Group (2019) states that Generation Z will have a strong influence on depth and speed of the changes in the luxury market. Generation Z purchases collaborations more than millennials and they have preferences for mixing-and-matching. McKinsey (2020) also writes that "despite the many associated risks, some large brands will be willing to court controversy to express beliefs, particularly luxury players, which will seek to attract younger consumer groups looking to trade up."

One of the questions that arises is the suitable non-luxury brands for the luxury brands' high-low mix strategy. Are all non-luxury brands acceptable as a collaborator of luxury brands? Or, are there certain conditions for non-luxury brands to be accepted? To further explore these questions, we looked at the millennials' needs and motivations toward luxury goods.

Sarah Willersdorf, partner and managing director at BCG (cited in Danziger, 2019) argues that millennials and Generation Z are looking for innovation in design, along with unique collections that reflect their individuality and values. She says that collaborations are key and that the most popular pairings combine luxury and streetwear, including Louis Vuitton and Supreme, Adidas and Kanye West's Yeezy, and Chanel and Pharrell. Willersdorf also notes that luxury brands are creating relationships with cutting-edge, youth-inspired designers, like Rihanna and her new Fenty Maison with LVMH and Virgil Abloh, men's wear design director for Louis Vuitton.

Based on the above examples, we hypothesized that 'brand coolness' (Warren et al., 2019) of non-luxury brand is a key characteristic that influences the success of luxury brands' high-low mix strategy. Cool has many synonyms such as hip, awesome, sweet, chill, badass, and dope (Warren et al., 2019) and the concept seems relevant to streetwear and cutting-edge designers. We will empirically examine the effect of brand-coolness on the evaluation of low-fit co-branded products in PJ3.

While studying millennials' luxury consumption, we were able to publish several related papers including a romantic self-gifting as a gift to the 'hidden true self' (Kanno and Suzuki, 2018), self-gifting as self-compassion (Suzuki and Kanno, 2018), indulgent consumption as emotional fortification (Suzuki, Hamamura, and Takemura, 2019), and brand relationship in liquid consumption (Suzuki and Kanno, working paper).

Also, in PJ2, we conducted case studies of Japanese companies adopting inconsistent branding activities. Part of the findings was published as the articles in business journal (Suzuki and Nogamoto, 2019; Suzuki, 2019a, 2019b, 2019c, 2020a, 2020b, 2020c, 2020d).

(3) Empirical examination of the effect of 'brand coolness' on the evaluation of cobranded product

Masstige marketing is defined as "a marketing strategy which envisages to make brands prestigious while retaining its affordability for the mass consumers, by grounding in product and promotion strategies, and keeping prices relatively high" (Kumar, Paul, and Unnithan, 2020, p. 392). One of the ways for luxury brands to adopt masstige marketing is to use co-branding with mass brands (we refer to this as 'masstige co-branding'). There are several successful masstige co-branding, like adidas by Stella McCartney, Dior and Nike Air, Ines de la Fressange and Uniqlo, and Karl Lagerfeld for H&M. Past research on co-branding has emphasized the importance of product category fit and brand concept consistency (Helmig Huber, and Leeflang, 2007; Lanseng and Olsen, 2012 Monga and Lau-Gesk, 2007; Park et al., 1996). The above mentioned masstige co-branded products have product category fit (e.g., apparel and shoes); however, they are not built upon brand concept consistency. Such successful co-branded products indicate a missing link between theory and practice in this field. Thus, further research is necessary for better understanding of masstige co-branding.

Co-branding involves connecting brands, the abstract images or concepts in consumers' minds. In co-branding, the partner brands bring their brand concepts and connected associations into the alliance. Two sets of different associations must be considered simultaneously; however, these associations may not fit very well. When consumers try to make sense of this incoherence, they must engage in cognitive elaboration and scrutinize all available information contained in the associations (Lee and Schumann, 2004; Mandler, 1982; Meyers-Levy et al., 1994).

Brand concepts are the firm-selected value associations contained in the brands (Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis, 1986). Two widely featured brand concepts are the functional and the expressive brand concepts. These two concepts are rooted in two different consumer needs: functional needs motivate the search for products that solve consumption-related problems such as needs for performance; and expressive needs motivate the search for products that fulfill internally generated desires for self-enhancement, role position, group membership, or ego identification such as needs for self-image expression (Park et al., 1986; Lanseng and Olsen, 2012). Luxury brands are often categorized as having expressive brand concepts.

Consumers can take one of two marketing strategies to resolve low levels of fit: assimilating the new information into existing cognitive schemas, or establishing a new schema (Lee and Schumann, 2004). Assimilation is a feasible strategy when assisting consumers in making sense of two functional brand concepts in an alliance. A functional brand concept relates the products' descriptive characteristics or physical attributes to the consumers' benefits of using or possessing the product (Lefkoff-Hagius and Mason, 1993; Park et al., 1986). For masstige co-branding which involves an alliance of functional and expressive brands, or an alliance of two expressive brands, low levels of fit cannot be resolved by assimilation. Instead, consumers will need to establish a new schema. Expressive brand concepts are typically built on non-product related entities, such as social groups and ego identification (Keller, 1998, 2003; Lefkoff-Hagius and Mason, 1993; Park et al., 1986). The brands' attributes are recoded into cultural meaning and social symbols (McCracken, 1986; Solomon, 1983) and the relationship between the brands' physical attributes and the brands' benefits is obscured (Lanseng and Olsen, 2012). Therefore, no readily identifiable basis exists for consumers to evaluate the fit levels of one functional and one expressive brand or two expressive brands in an alliance. Consequently, consumers must develop a new cognitive schema to resolve the low fit level. We argue that brand coolness helps consumers resolve the fit problem for one functional and one expressive brand or two expressive brands in an alliance.

Warren (Warren and Campbell, 2014; Warren et al., 2019) suggests brand coolness is a key attribute that defines desired brands. Consumers like cool brands. Brands such as Harley Davidson, Nike, and Apple have fanatic fans because consumers consider them cool. Warren et al. (2019) show that brand coolness plays an important role in marketing outcomes such as brand attitudes and willingness to pay for the brand.

Coolness can be an attribute of mass brands (i.e., mass cool). Mass cool brands are those that are cool to a broad population (Warren et al., 2019). They are perceived as energetic, high status, popular, iconic, and moderately extraordinary, aesthetically appealing, original, authentic, rebellious, and subcultural. Mass cool brands can lose their coolness when mainstream consumers perceive the brands to be normal or undifferentiated from others.

H1: Coolness of the mass brand relates positively to evaluation of masstige cobranded products.

Method

Procedure

The present study used an online experiment in which respondents were asked to answer questions about a new product that was introduced by two brands.

Sample

Respondents were members of a consumer panel in Japan. From this panel, 1,000 members were selected in such a way that the sample reflects the distribution of age and gender in the population between 20 and 70.

Stimulus Development

Following Warren et al. (2019)'s studies, five pre-tests were conducted to identify suitable products and brands for masstige co-branded products with varying degrees of brand coolness for mass brands. Based on the results, two masstige co-branded combinations were selected: Louis Vuitton x Zara (masstige co-branding with cool mass brand) and Louis Vuitton x Shimamura (masstige co-branding with uncool mass brand).

Results

The findings of PJ3 will be reported in a paper, which will be submitted to a special issue on Masstige Marketing in *Journal of Business Research*.

5. 主な発表論文等

〔雑誌論文〕 計15件（うち査読付論文 7件 / うち国際共著 7件 / うちオープンアクセス 3件）

1. 著者名 鈴木智子	4. 巻 66(4)
2. 論文標題 全員経営のブランドマネジメント(1)	5. 発行年 2019年
3. 雑誌名 一橋ビジネスレビュー	6. 最初と最後の頁 78-89
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1. 著者名 鈴木智子	4. 巻 67(1)
2. 論文標題 全員経営のブランドマネジメント(2)	5. 発行年 2019年
3. 雑誌名 一橋ビジネスレビュー	6. 最初と最後の頁 94-105
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3. 雑誌名 European Advances in Consumer Research	6. 最初と最後の頁 51-54
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1. 著者名 Suzuki Satoko, Kohlbacher Florian, Akutsu Satoshi	4. 巻 -
2. 論文標題 Charitable behavior in China under the Charity Law: Evaluation of charity advertisements involving in groups and out groups	5. 発行年 2020年
3. 雑誌名 International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing	6. 最初と最後の頁 -
掲載論文のDOI (デジタルオブジェクト識別子) 10.1002/nvsm.1696	査読の有無 有
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1. 著者名 Masuda Takahiko, Ito Kenichi, Lee Jinju, Suzuki Satoko, Yasuda Yuto, Akutsu Satoshi	4. 巻 11
2. 論文標題 Culture and Business: How Can Cultural Psychologists Contribute to Research on Behaviors in the Marketplace and Workplace?	5. 発行年 2020年
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1. 著者名 Suzuki, S.	4. 巻 3(1)
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〔学会発表〕 計7件 (うち招待講演 0件 / うち国際学会 7件)

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〔図書〕 計0件

〔産業財産権〕

〔その他〕

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6. 研究組織

氏名 (ローマ字氏名) (研究者番号)	所属研究機関・部局・職 (機関番号)	備考

7. 科研費を使用して開催した国際研究集会

〔国際研究集会〕 計0件

8. 本研究に関連して実施した国際共同研究の実施状況

共同研究相手国	相手方研究機関			
米国	City University of New York	Penn State University		
カナダ	The University of British Columbia	University of Alberta		
スペイン	ESADE			
フランス	ESSEC			