FACULTY OF PSYCHOLOGY AND EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

The influence of brand architecture on perceived greenwashing.

Should you position your company, brand or product as environmentally friendly?

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Preface

After five years as a student in Organizational Psychology at the University of Ghent, the thesis will be the last chapter of a challenging and enjoyable time in my life. Studying psychology has made me aware of the complexity of human behavior, has allowed me to better understand the many aspect of human interaction and has taught me to always take a broader perspective and a critical look.

I was fortunate to get an incredibly interesting subject for my thesis and a knowledgeable professor to guide me through this process. I am, therefore, forever grateful for the vote of confidence, great advice and constructive feedback from Prof. Dr. Weijters.

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Cipriana Daels, May 23rd 2017.

Abstract

Previous research points out the importance of understanding the perception of consumers towards environmentally friendly product and services. Several aspects of green marketing, green branding, green consumption and greenwashing have been extensively researched in the past decennia, however, the perception of greenwashing in relation to brand architecture has never been studied. The purpose of this study is to compare the level of perceived greenwashing in different levels of brand architecture. By means of three different questionnaires, one for each level of brand architecture: company-level, brand-level and product level, the level of perceived greenwashing (a.k.a skepticism) was measured for 226 participants for three different corporations. Results produced non-significant differences in skepticism level between the different brand architecture levels and were therefore statistically inconclusive. However, this study opens the field for further research on the subject and raises interesting questions for future studies.

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Introduction

We all know the feeling of being in a store, looking for something we need and hesitating between several options of the same product. One of them is cheaper and one of them is the most popular brand. You are not convinced by the cheap option but at the same time you don't want to pay the price of the popular brand. Luckily, there is a third option! One of them has a beautiful label saying "environmentally friendly" or "made with recycled materials". You are almost convinced! Let's take the green product and do some good today! But wait ... there is this little voice in your head saying "you know that's not true, right? They just put those labels there to make you buy it, it is probably just as bad for the environment as the other two options." So you put back this green, recyclable promise of a better tomorrow and go with the popular brand instead.

Over the past five decades, the environment has become a growing concern and a crucial academic topic. Green marketing has become an everyday practice and with it comes greenwashing. Greenwashing in itself is the practice of making false, unsubstantiated or misleading claims about the environmental benefits of a product, service, technology or company practice. Different aspects of greenwashing have been studies in the past decades (Delmas & Burbano, 2011; De Vries, Terwel, Ellemers, & Daamen 2013; Laufer, 2003) but none of them handle the relationship between brand architecture and perceived greenwashing. This study is aimed at bringing some clarity as to which level of implementation of a green marketing strategy is most likely to be plagued by the perception of greenwashing.

Green Marketing

Short history of green marketing.

Green marketing has passed three major eras (Peattie & Crane, 2005). Ever since the technological and industrial revolution, there has been an increased environmental awareness. The first era lasted from the late 1960s to the early 1970s, it was not called green marketing but ecological marketing and was mostly focused on external and visible problems of the environment such as air pollution and clean water.

Green marketing became widespread during the second era: the 1980s and 1990s. In 1992, an Advertising Age poll conducted by Yankelovich Clancy Shulman found that for 70% of the respondents, purchase decisions were at least "sometimes" influenced by environmental messages in advertisement and product labeling (Chase & Smith, 1992). In this era, the focus of green marketing shifted to a holistic approach which included all services and manufacturing methods, such as for example tourism (Peattie & Crane, 2005). In 1990, a Roper poll already showed that Americans tended to think that companies were not environmentally responsible and they already distrusted advertising and labeling claims relating to the environment (Schwartz & Miller, 1991). Finally, the third era is sustainable green marketing. Companies had to meet the increasing expectations of people and had to comply with strict laws. Therefore around the year 2000, the second era came to an end. More advanced technology was implemented, governments imposed regulations about the way companies must behave and the consumer had grown skeptical of green marketing. Nowadays, more and more companies communicate about the greenness of their products and practices so that they can benefit from the growing green markets. Green advertising has greatly increased in the past two decades and tripled since 2006 (Delmas & Burbano, 2011). As the segment of green consumers grew, marketers attempted to integrate the concern for environmental responsibility into their marketing strategies. New products were designed to fit this segment and existing products were repositioned to create a greener image.

Definition of green marketing.

According to the American Marketing Association, marketing is defined as "*the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large*". Marketing is commonly managed through the coordination of the four P's: the product, the price, the placement and the promotion. Green marketing aims to reduce the effect we have on the environment by encouraging people to consume green products and use green services. Many definitions of green marketing can be found. Peattie et al. (2005) define green marketing as "the holistic management process responsible for identifying, anticipating and satisfying the needs of customers and society, in a profitable and sustainable way".

The American Marketing Association defines green marketing as "the marketing of products that are presumed to be environmentally safe" and "the development and marketing of products designed to minimize negative effects on the physical environment or to improve its quality".

From an academic standpoint, green marketing is defined as "the analysis of how marketing activities impact on the environment and how the environmental variable can be incorporated into the various decisions of corporate marketing" (Chamoro, Rubio & Miranda, 2009).

Popular examples of successful green marketing cases are Toyota's Prius, the eco-labels on household products, WWF's campaigns to sensitize people to the deforestation of South-America, or The Body Shop.

Marketing tools.

The three most prominent marketing tools in green marketing are the eco label, eco-branding and environmental advertisement (Delafrooz et al., 2013; Rahbar et al., 2011).

Eco-label.

Eco-labels are used to promote the identification of green products and provide an informative base for a consumer to make choices. As Rex and Baumann (2007) stated: "Ecolabels are intended as a means for consumers to make choices that will reduce environmental impact and enable them to influence how products are made". From the point of view of organizations, Thogersen, Haugaard and Olesen (2010) stated that ecolabels are also "an environmental management tool that can inform customers of products' new green features in a visual way".

Environmental attributes are very hard to detect unless they are explicitly stated in informative resources (such as ecolabels). The most common ecolabels seen by consumers carry messages such as environment-friendly, ozone-friendly, degradable, recycled, recyclable, renewable, reusable or biodegradable (D'Souza, Taghian & Lamb, 2006).

The literature suggests that people are receptive to eco-labels and are even willing to pay more for a product carrying an environmental label (Hamilton & Zilberman, 2006; Loureiro & Lotade, 2005). However, if and how quickly the consumer adopts eco-labeled products of services depends on his or her motivation, past experiences with ecolabels, and trust in the endorsing organization whether it is a non-for profit organization or a governmental institution (Thogersen et al., 2010).

But consumers not only have to be informed about the environmental attributes of a product, they also need to understand it. In the literature, there is a consensus about 3 factors that will determine a consumer's comprehension of labels: the accurate and clear meaning of these labels, the knowledge of labels and the perception of the business with respect to the environment (D'Souza, Taghian & Lamb, 2006; Thogersen et al., 2010). The study of D'Souza et al. (2006), shows that 67,7% of respondents indicate always reading product labels but not all of them are satisfied with the information provided

on the labels. This can be due to the label not being accurate or being difficult to read and comprehend.

On a broader societal level Prieto-Sandoval, Alfaro and Mejía-Villa (2016) studied the cyclic innovation process between consumers, firms, governments and institutions involved in eco-labeling. It starts with consumers expressing their environmental expectations, which leads the most ecoinnovative companies to try to satisfy those new expectations by improving their existing products, processes or suppliers. This process in itself is a cycle that leads to consumers increasing their environmental expectations and companies continuously adapting to meet those expectations. Governments and institutions also influence this cycle by promoting sustainable consumption and production through tools like campaigns, subsidies for environmental practices and also ecolabels. As Prieto-Sandoval et al. (2016) stated: "the constant repetition of this cycle will contribute to develop radical innovations in coherence with the environment".

Ecolabels are supported by institutions, for example the WWF panda label used on a variety of product approved by the WWF non-for profit organization (Retrieved from: https://wwf.be/nl/onze-aanpak/bedrijven-engageren/), or governments, for example the European eco-management and audit system licenses the "EU-ecolabel" to organizations that meet the European standards as controlled by independent agencies (Retrieved from: https://www.ecolabel.be/nl).

Green branding.

Green branding is also a part of green marketing. In this case a brand is positioned as being an ecological brand, an eco-brand or "green" brand. For the purposes of this study, a few characteristics of brands are important.

The American Marketing Association defines a brand as a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers. Hence, brands carry associations in consumers' minds.

Brand associations can be divided in three major categories: attributes, benefits and attitude (Keller, 1993). They start small with associations made with respect to the product and evolve into more general impressions and evaluation of a brand such as among other things nice, soft, strong, credible, but also environmentally conscious.

Attributes are the features that characterize a product, what the consumer thinks the product is or has and what is involved with its purchase or consumption. Attributes can be product-related attributes or non-product related attributes. Product related attributes are "the ingredients necessary for performing the product function sought by consumers" (Keller, 1993). They relate to a product's physical composition. Non-product related attributes are the price information, the packaging or the product appearance, the user imagery (who uses the product) and the usage imagery (when and where). In short, the attributes mostly relate to the necessary ingredients for product performance and the ways people use it. Benefits are the personal value consumers attach to the product attributes. They can be functional benefits, experiential benefits and symbolic benefits (Keller, 1993; Park, Jaworsky & MacInnis, 1986). Functional benefits are the most practical benefits offered by a product to fulfill an intrinsic need (for example brushing your teeth), they often relate to the product-related attributes. Experiential benefits refer to the way it feels to utilize a product and often correspond to the product related attributes as well. Symbolic attributes are the most abstract and extrinsic benefits. They relate to underlying needs for social approval or personal expression and self-esteem. This type of benefit is mostly related to the brand that carries a product, and less to the product itself. In other words, symbolic attributes of a brand help consumers express themselves personally and obtain social approval from others. Finally, the brand attitudes are a function of the associated attributes and benefits that are specific to the brand (Keller, 1993). Brand attitude is defined as "a summary evaluation of a psychological object captured in such attribute dimensions as good-bad, harmful-beneficial, pleasant-unpleasant, and likeable-dislikeable" (Ajzen, 2001). Similarly, Argyriou and Melewar (2011) stated that brand attribute sere "evaluative judgments measured via categorization on a continuum involving several attribute dimensions".

Consumers not only develop a brand attitude but they also build a representation of a brand in terms of personality. They perceive brands as having personality traits much like humans do. In fact, as reported by Azoulay and Kapferer (2003), consumers have no difficulty answering metaphorical questions such as "suppose the brand is a person, what kind of person would he/she be, with what personality?". The first one to ever research brand personality actually used the "Big Five" human personality structure to develop a theoretical framework of brand personality dimensions (Aaker, 1997). He defined brand personality as "the set of human characteristics associated with a brand". As you can see brands and branding are complex and profound constructs that can be influenced and perceived in a multitude of ways.

Following the definition of the American Marketing Association, a green brand is a name, term, design, symbol that identifies their product or service as environmentally friendly (Rahbar et al., 2011; Delafrooz et al., 2013). A green brand identity is defined by a specific set of brand attributes and benefits related to the reduced environmental impact of the brand and its perceptions as being environmentally sound (Hartmann, Ibanez & Sainz, 2005). This environmental aspect is what distinguishes the product or service from other non-green products or services. Many research and case studies show that consumers respond positively to eco-branded products such as The Body Shop and Prius from Toyota (Ottman, 2011; Ting, Yanfeng & Qiongwei, 2010).

Environmental advertisement.

Finally, environmental advertisement is meant to influence the purchase behavior of consumers in the hopes of encouraging them to buy products that are not harmful to the environment and focus their

attention on the positive effect of their purchase behavior for themselves as well as for the environment (Rahbar et al., 2011; Delafrooz et al., 2013).

Banerjee, Gulas and Iyer (1995) define green advertisement as any ad that meets one or more of the following criteria:

- 1. Explicitly or implicitly addresses the relationship between a product/service and the biophysical environment.
- 2. Promotes a green lifestyle with or without highlighting a product/service.
- 3. Presents a corporate image of environmental responsibility.

They also describe the underlying 3 dimensions that form green advertisement: sponsor type (forprofit or nonprofit), ad focus (whether the ad focuses on the advertiser or the consumer), and depth of ad (shallow, moderate, or deep depending on the extent of environmental information mentioned). The perceived credibility of an environmental claim and the relevance of the advertisement to daily life are the most significant determinants that would positively affect green purchase behavior (Chan, 2014). It was also found in Chan's (2014) study that the relevance of an advertisement is one of the main reasons that consumers have negative feelings towards environmental advertisement, together with the perceived exaggeration of environmental claims. From this we can deduce that it would do more harm than good for a marketer to deliberately exaggerate the claims in green advertisement.

Why do companies use green marketing?

First of all, why do companies even care about the environment? The first and most obvious reason as mentioned before is the large demand for environmentally conscious products and services. At present, there is a large green segment of consumers and everything indicates that this segment will only get larger. That also means that competitors are "going green" and therefore businesses have to adjust their value proposition to compete on the market (Ginsberg & Bloom, 2004). Therefore, environmental responsibility has become a crucial management skill and is important for the success of any given company.

There are many other reasons why companies have every advantage in becoming environmentally friendly. The rising prices of basic resources such as water, energy and other raw materials makes production more expensive. For many companies, there is a direct relationship between the environment and their business prospects (King, 1995) such as tourism, agriculture and insurance. For example, the fishing industry must protect fishing areas from over-fishing for their own survival. In other words, the health of the direct environment of a firm and their business prospects is also a reason for firms to assume their environmental responsibility.

Finally, one of the most objectively positive motives for firms to participate in corporate social responsibility is that it can be a revenue driver (Luo & Bhattacharya., 2006).

Whether companies have developed processes to make production more efficient and reduce waste, have cut the need for raw materials or have designed products that are better for the environment, businesses realize that they must provide consumers with information about their environmental policies or initiatives. This is where green marketing comes in.

For example, in 1999 McDonald's in France was under a lot of pressure from the public to make some changes for the better so they made a wide range of promises to demonstrate a commitment to civic an environmental responsibility (Dru et al., 2015). In one of the most startling initiatives, they recycled their frying oil into organic diesel oil and had some of their trucks use this fuel. And they continued on this path: in 2014 McDonald's saved about 14.2 billion dollars in energy costs (McDonald's sustainability website: http://www.aboutmcdonalds.com/mcd/sustainability.html). However, the fact that companies implement green initiatives internally does not mean that they should focus on those changes externally. Communicating about being green should always be in the advantage of the company. If such initiative does not increase sales and market shares or enhance corporate reputation, then the corresponding marketing activities could do more harm than good (Ginsberg and Bloom, 2004). The company must make sure that their segment is green oriented or that they can convince a new segment of consumers (that are environmentally oriented) to purchase their product or service. They must also make sure that a green initiative will not alienate their existing customers.

There are different forms of green strategies that firms can follow. Depending on the size of the green segment that the company is targeting, the potential increase/decrease in revenues following a green initiative, the strategy of the competitors and of course the resources of the company, companies can choose to implement a more or less committed and/or visible strategy (Ginsberg and Bloom., 2004). According to Baker and Sinkula (2005), environmental strategies also differ to the degree of involvement (the commitment could be irreversible or flexible), the why (because of a market opportunity, the law, or because of an ideology) and the level at which it is implemented (corporate level, division, department, a product, a brand). We will see later on that the level on which it is implemented is of great interest to us. A green marketing strategy can be implemented on the level of a single product, a brand, or an entire company.

As Ginsberg and Bloom (2004) stated: "A one-fits-all strategy does not exist".

The Consumer

Green consumers are typically people who choose a lifestyle that has a minimal negative impact on the environment or a positive impact on the environment. For example, an individual may choose to drive a hybrid car or may even choose to ride a bike instead of driving at all to minimize the negative impact of his/her behavior on the environment. But driving a more fuel efficient car instead of riding a bike may be a sign of a more superficial involvement in a green lifestyle. There are different degrees of greenness in the green consumer segment but they all involve assessment of the environmental impact

of products and services and behavioral change in purchasing, consuming, and disposing of the product (Banerjee et al., 1995).

Characteristics of green consumers.

In the literature, it has been shown that environmental knowledge positively affects environmental consciousness (Arbuthnot & Lingg, 1975; Mostafa, 2009). Environmental knowledge is defined as "a general knowledge of facts, concepts, and relationships concerning the natural environment and its major ecosystems" (Fryxell & Lo, 2003).

Many studies have also found that environmental concern is a key predictor of environmental purchase intentions (Koening-Lewis, Palmer, Dermody & Urbye, 2014; Hartmann & Apaolaza-Ibanez, 2012; Mostafa, 2009). The problem with this claim is that environmental concern was long seen as having a limited value to marketers as it is difficult to influence. However, it was recently found that incidental learning (information encountered during daily life with low cognitive demand) had a stronger mediating effect on the relationship between environmental concern and environmental purchase than did intentional learning (actively informing oneself in order to make an informed purchase decision) although both have a significant effect (Newton, Tsarenko, Ferraro & Sands, 2015). This means that firms can invest in ways to help customers obtain information without it being cognitively demanding.

Perception of Green Marketing

Now that we know what green marketing is, why companies have every advantage in engaging in green marketing, what has shaped consumers through generations and what influences green purchase, this paragraph will address the perception of green marketing by consumers.

With the existing green market comes a green segment that companies are aware of and responsive to. But it is the consumer who has to make a choice between competing products and brands depending on their personal preferences. So how do consumers respond to green marketing?

Marketing tools.

The perception of marketing tools has been reviewed by Rahbar et al. in 2011 and Delafrooz et al. in 2013. Marketing tools when speaking about green marketing are considered to be enhancements to a consumer's knowledge about environmental friendly products. They also are meant to help consumers distinguish between green products and conventional products.

The researchers mentioned above, did an analysis of the influence of green marketing tools, specifically the eco-label, the eco-brand and environmental advertisement on consumer purchase behavior. These marketing tools, as all others, are used to make people aware of the environmental benefits of a product, make the perception of such products easier and to encourage people to choose

that product.

Eco-label.

The results in support of the advantage of eco-labels are mixed. However, some findings are interesting to mention.

Even though a majority of consumers always read eco-labels, not everyone is satisfied because it is often perceived that eco-labels are not accurate or are unclear (D'Souza et al., 2006). Delafrooz et al. (2013) urge future research and governments to better design eco-labels and increase awareness among consumers.

When it comes to food, we may speak of the eco-label effect. An eco-label tends to boost the taste evaluation of products, eco-labels products were perceived to have a better calorific value than conventional products and to be better for one's mental performance (Sörqvist, Haga, Langeborg, Holmgren, 2015). This may be seen as a "green halo" effect which leads consumers to make positive inferences about a product even if there is no relation between the label and what is being evaluated about the product.

Eco-brand.

As said before, there are many examples of successful green brands (Body Shop, Prius ...). However, research on eco-brands is scarce. Hartmann et al. (2005) found that when it comes to green brands the emotional positioning strategy is recommended. People respond best to a brand that highlight emotional brand benefits on top of the functional benefits. According to Doszhanov and Ahmad (2015) green brand awareness and green brand trust are significant predictors of customers' intention to use green products. The trust in eco-brands is a crucial factor to influence consumers' purchase behavior as Rahbar et al. (2016) also found in their research.

Environmental advertising.

A majority of people believe that environmental advertisement enhances their knowledge on green products and perceives it as a guide for their purchase decision. However, research suggests that environmental advertisement does not significantly influence the purchase behavior of consumers (Rahbar et al., 2011). One of the factors contributing to these unfortunate results is the perceived lack of credibility of green advertisements (Chan, 2004). Consumers are willing to change their purchase behavior, however, the manner in which products are advertised often discourages customers from changing their purchase behavior. The main reasons for the low perceived credibility are that the arguments to justify the environmental claim are not convincing or vague, the country of the advertised product does not bear an eco-friendly image and the manufacturer of the advertised product does not bear an eco-friendly.

Perceived efficacy of green products.

The halo effect (Ash et al., 1946) suggests that if a product is judged positively on one attribute it will also be perceive positively on other attributes. This means that when a product consists of a positive attribute such as environmentally friendly, this favorable perception will extend into other attributes. However, we will see that sometimes the opposite happens.

Luchs, Naylor, Irwin and Raghunathan (2010) found that sustainability tends to be associated with caring, soft and gentle attributes. Therefore "sustainability is an asset when gentleness-related attributes are valued more than strength-related attributes". This means that communication of a sustainable product is harmful for a product valued for its strength-related attributes. Nonetheless, Luchs et al. (2010) also found that this effect disappeared when explicit information is provided about a product's strength.

Similarly, Newman, Gorlin and Dhar (2014) found that "consumers are less likely to purchase a green product when they perceive that the company intentionally made the product better for the environment compared to when the same environmental benefit occurred as an unintended side effect". According to lay's theory of resource allocation, when a firm communicates that the green benefit was intended, consumers tend to assume that the company diverted resources away from the product quality. This leads consumers to assume that the environmentally friendly product that they are purchasing is inferior in quality. This in turn, leads to a reduced purchase interest. In conclusion, it might be better for customer satisfaction to focus communication on the innovative technological aspects of the product rather than the innovative green aspects.

Information about a company's intentions in designing a product plays an important role in consumer's evaluation. In research in the hotel industry, Kassinis and Soteriou (2015) found that linking the environmental practices to the quality practices offers a sign of overall excellence and enhances customer satisfaction. This way the perception of inferior quality is overruled.

Trust of green marketing.

Before we define trust in green marketing, it is important to understand why it is so important for companies that consumers trust them. There are many definitions of trust but the most useful to us is formulated by Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2001) as "the willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function".

Trust cannot be seen separately from other constructs such as customer satisfaction, service quality, value creation, commitment (Caceres & Paparoidamis, 2005; Harris & Goode, 2004), brand affect and brand loyalty (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). We will not go into detail for each of these constructs but we want to illustrate that trust does not stand alone but is intertwined with many other constructs. Service quality has a positive effect on perceived value, trust and satisfaction; perceived value positively influences trust which in turn positively influences satisfaction and all four directly or

indirectly lead to brand loyalty (Harris & Goode, 2004). Similarly,

brand trust and brand affect contribute to brand loyalty, which in turn contributes significantly to market share and brand equity (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). What is important to take away from this, is that trust is the most important direct driver of brand-loyalty.

The most used definition of brand loyalty is by (Oliver, 1999, p. 34): "a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior".

In the literature loyalty has been widely recognized as being of the greatest importance (Aaker, 1997; Dekimpe, Steenkamp, Mellens & Vanden Abeele 1997; Oliver, 1999). Aaker (1997) found loyalty to be crucial in the brand equity process and notes that brand loyalty reduces marketing costs as the retention of customers costs less than customer acquisition (Fornell & Wernerfelt, 1987) and loyal customers have a greater resistance to competitive strategies from competitors. As said Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2001), loyal consumers are also inclined to pay more for a brand because they perceive a unique value in the brand that no competitor can provide.

In conclusion, brand loyalty is something that organizations want to achieve, and in order to do so brand trust is something that must be aimed for.

We have seen earlier that trust is also a significant influencing factor of purchase behavior (Rahbar et al., 2011; Kim, Ferrin & Rao, 2008). Green trust is defined as "*a willingness to depend on a product, service, or brand based on the belief or expectation resulting from its credibility, benevolence, and ability about its environmental performance*" (Chen, 2010).

Chen, Lin, & Weng (2015) established that environmental friendliness, or in other words a consumer's environmental concern and personal feeling of responsibility towards the environment, enhances green trust. Environmental friendliness encloses behaviors such as the intention to choose environmental friendly services, a willingness to pay more for environmentally friendly products and a commitment to environmentally friendly services.

Greenwashing

Companies are under a lot of pressure to meet the demand for green products and services. Unfortunately, companies do not always meet the criteria (intentionally or unintentionally) to position themselves as environmentally responsible despite communicating such a position. When companies falsely advertise their activities or products as green, we may speak of greenwashing.

Definition.

The Financial Times gives the most complete definition of greenwashing: "*Greenwashing is the overstating of the environmentally conscious attributes of a firm's offering and the understating of the negative attributes for the firm's benefit. Greenwashing can be explicit or implicit and can be*

expressed in many forms, including pictures, direct claims in text, symbols, labels, or even partnerships or relationships. These claims can be made in press releases, advertisements, on websites and even on the products themselves".

Greenwashing can take many forms. A company can present the public with wrong information to portray itself as environmentally friendly, it may make promises about the future that they do not deliver, and it may make false claims about their activities to appear less damaging to the environment. In other words, greenwashing is not always an outright lie. Most of the time it is an exaggeration or understatement, a vague claim that leaves room for interpretation or a promise that is left unfulfilled.

The TerraChoice group categorized the different forms of greenwashing into "seven sins": the sin of the hidden tradeoff (committed by suggesting a product is "green" based on an unreasonably narrow set of attributes without attention to other important environmental issues), the sin of no proof, the sin of vagueness, the sin of irrelevance, the sins of lesser of two evils, the sin of fibbing (committed by making environmental claims that are simply false) and the sin of worshiping false labels.

According to Laufer (2003), greenwashing depends on three elements of deception: confusion, fronting and posturing. Confusion can be achieved by strictly controlling the flow of information made available, it can be due to the complex structure of a company or by the different practices of different departments. Fronting refers to giving an exaggerated/understated impression of the facts. For example, emphasize uncertainty associated with an accusation or publish exaggerated claims. Posturing refers to situation where companies pose as being committed to the environment. For example, a company might unveil a project that has negligible value but appears to be significant on the surface or publicly align a firm with non-governmental organizations (NGO) that are sympathetic to specific causes.

From the perspective of this study, it is of little importance to us whether a company has been involved in greenwashing or is honest and involved in helping the environment. The crucial factor for us is the perception of the consumers. We are more interested in situations where consumers suspect greenwashing than when perceived greenwashing is actual greenwashing.

Company perspective.

A TerraChoice survey found that in 2010, 95% of "greener" products had committed one or more of the TerraChoice "seven sins of greenwashing" (TerraCoice greenwashing report 2010). Although this is better than in previous years, this immense incidence has a harmful effect on consumer confidence towards green marketing.

Delmas and Burbano (2011) state that firms engage in two behaviors simultaneously: poor

environmental performance and positive communication about environmental performance. Firms who perform poorly environmentally speaking are called "brown firms" and firms who have a good environmental performance are called "green firms". Based on this, we can categorize firms into four categories. Greenwashing firms communicate positively about environmental performance while actually performing badly. Vocal green firms are firms that have a good environmental performance and communicate positively about it. Silent brown firms are firms that have a poor environmental performance but do not communicate about it. And finally, Silent green firms have a good environmental performance but do not communicate about it.

There are three forms of drivers of greenwashing: external, organizational and individual as described by Delmas and Burbano (2011).

External drivers can be divided into non-market influences and market drivers. Non-market influences include the lax and uncertain regulatory environment and the activists and NGOs. It is because of the current lack of regulation and the limited punitive consequences that activists and NGOs play a critical role in informally monitoring firms' activities.

Market external drivers are the consumer and investors' demands and the competitive pressure. Organizational drivers are the firm's characteristics, the incentive structure and ethical climate, the effectiveness of intra-firm communication and the organizational inertia. Larger, publicly rated firms are under greater pressure from investors to communicate about their environmental performance. Additionally, if there is no dominant ethical climate in the organization and there are incentives to reach certain goals, firms are more likely to display unethical behaviors such as greenwashing. In the same way strong organizational inertia (a situation where existing practices and functions are strong and hamper strategic change) and ineffective intra-firm communication (a lack of coordination between the marketing, public relations and sales department) result in higher levels of greenwashing. Finally, individual-level drivers include cognitive tendencies such as a narrow decision framing, an optimistic bias, and hyperbolic intertemporal discounting (linked with inconsistencies between longrun goals and short-run behaviors). Under conditions of uncertainty and limited information (which is often the case today) these tendencies become more salient.

Consumer perspective.

There are many ways to communicate an environmental policy. It can be in an emotional way, a functional way (Hartmann et al., 2005), or also in ways that puts the concern for the environment above the profitability of the new policy/initiative. This may lead to positive reactions from consumers but may also be seen in a negative light. Consumers could perceive this as a way to cover up a new profitable policy change as a green initiative to "sweet-talk" consumers and may accuse companies of greenwashing (De Vries, Terwel, Ellemers & Daamen, 2013). People are very quick to suspect greenwashing when a company appears to be doing something selfless for the environment. De Vries

et al. (2013) found that suspicions of greenwashing are reduced by acknowledging economic motives instead of communicating environmental motives for such investments. More specifically they demonstrated that people perceive significantly less corporate greenwashing when an energy company communicates an economic motive for the investment than when it communicates an environmental motive.

Forehand and Grier (2003) also investigated the influence of the stated motives of a firms' environmental actions. In agreement with De Vries et al. (2013) they found that "*the presence of salient benefits to the firm negatively influenced evaluations when the firm expressed solely public-serving motives but not when the firm acknowledged the existence of firm-serving motives*". They also determined that customers have negative reactions, not because of the fact that a firm benefits from an environmental initiative but because of the perception that the firm is being deceptive about the benefits it receives. When the stated motives conflict with apparent firm-serving motives, consumers become skeptical. This is comparable to Newman et al. (2014)'s findings mentioned here above. Their research found that when companies communicate about green enhancements intentionally made to a product (to the singular benefit of the environment), consumers tend to become skeptical about the quality of the product. Similarly to De Vries's (2013) conclusions, when a firm communicates about an environmental initiative without benefits for the product, consumers become skeptical.

The literature mentioned here tells us that the motives of a firm, their intentions, how products are developed or produced and what the consequences of all the above are, greatly influence the perception and evaluation of companies. This makes it clear that openness and transparency about environmental activities and their motives are strongly recommended.

Furthermore, people also tend to be more suspicious of companies with bad reputations regarding the environment (tobacco industry, oil industry). Such companies with bad reputations may be inclined to try to change their negative image by advertising environmentally friendly initiatives but this could do more damage than good. Yoon, Gürhan-Canli and Schwartz (2006) fount that when a firm with a bad reputation engages in green initiatives that are in contradiction with their main activities, people are more likely to suspect greenwashing. Brammer and Pavelin (2006) came to similar conclusions by creating a model that focusses on the relationship between the reputation of a firm and the different forms of corporate responsible behavior across the industry. When the reputation of a firm does not fit with their environmental activities, customers suspect greenwashing. These findings highlight the importance of a fit between the company's reputation and image and the sort of green marketing actions taken and emphasize the fact the there is no "one-fits-all" green marketing strategy that will suit all companies (Ginsberg & Bloom, 2004).

Many aspect of greenwashing have been researched in the hopes of helping companies position their products or services in a way that will be most effective. Whether it is better to communicate in terms of function or emotion, whether to focus on the economic aspect, the green aspect or the technology of the product and when it is better not to advertise a green initiative at all. But at a time when being environmentally friendly becomes more of an obligation than a choice and the structure of companies is complex, we do not know at what level of a company greenwashing is most often perceived. Is it when a single product is positioned as environmentally friendly out of an entire company? Or will people perceive this as more believable due to the resource allocation theory? Would an entire green brand be seen as the most trustworthy? Or would people prefer corporations to make such decisions at the highest level?

To be able to better understand the differences in companies' structure, a basic understanding of brand architecture is needed.

Brand Architecture

Brand architecture deals with the different ways a company is structured, describes the nature of relationships between different brands in one company and specifies the brand roles. There are 4 basic strategies to structure a company: a house of brands, endorsed brands, sub brands, and a branded house.

The theory on brand architecture is based on Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000).

A house of brands.

A house of brands is a company that holds many different independent brands, each maximizing their impact on the market while the primary brand (the "house") gets little to no attention. A good example of a house of brands is Procter & Gamble. Under Procter & Gamble there are over 80 brands like Always, Gillette, Swiffer, Duracell, Vicks, just to name a few that have very little link to Procter & Gamble or to each other. Organizations that follow this strategy are marketing-driven organizations in which each brand is supported by a marketing expert and its own marketing strategy. This strategy has many advantages: "*The house of brands strategy allows firms to clearly position brands on functional benefits and to dominate niche segments. No compromises have to be made in the positioning of a given brand to accommodate its use in other product-market context. The brands connect directly to the niche customer with a focused value proposition"*. Other advantages of the house of brands strategy is that brands can avoid associations that would be incompatible with their offering, they can express technological breakthroughs of new offerings, they can use a new name that reflects a key benefit and can vary the channels.

Endorsed brands.

Endorsed brands are independent as in the house of brands strategy but they are also endorsed by another already established brand. For example, Polo Jeans by Ralph Lauren. The established brand offers credibility and quality guarantee for the endorsed brand and only plays a minor driver role. It is important to understand the difference between a product brand and an organizational brand. A product brand is for example Marriott Hotel and Suites, that evoke the emotional benefits of the Mariott brands. But when Mariott endorsed Fairfield Inn, it is the organizational brand that is part of the architectural structure. That way the Mariott product brand is separated from the Fairfield Inn and the emotional benefits of the Mariott brand are maintained because the product is distinct from the organizational brand.

Sub brands.

Sub brands are brands that are connected with a parent brand but have their own brand name. The parent brand is the primary frame of reference, which is emphasized by a sub brand to add value by association, broaden the associations with the parent brand or signal a new breakthrough. Each sub brand has qualities that binds them to the parent brand, yet each has its own unique qualities that differ from the parent brand. Sub brand have their own identity but must always be a way to strengthen the values and messages of the original parent brand. Examples of sub brands are Microsoft Office as a new application of the Microsoft computer, Sony Walkman as a new technology, or even Audi TT as a new brand personality. The main goal of a sub brand is to extend the parent brand into a new segment of consumers.

As said above the association between a sub brand and a master brand are much stronger than the associations in a house of brands or in a branded house strategy. Therefore, the sub brands have great influence on the parent brand (and the parent brand can affect the sub brand) positively and negatively. This can be an opportunity or a risk. Another difference between sub brands and the house of brands or branded house strategy is that in this situation the parent brand has a leading role in all its sub brands.

A branded house.

A branded house strategy consists of a main brand being the dominant driver across multiple offerings. The sub brands have no driver role and are solely a descriptor of the service or activity they offer. For example, ING has ING Orange Everyday, ING home loans, ING Business Optimizer, ING Living Super and so on where ING is the sole brand and the product names serve as descriptors. The challenge of a branded house is to maintain a cool image or a quality position with such a large market share. The branded house strategy can also limit the brands ability to target specific groups. However, the branded house enhances clarity, synergy and leverage and thus should be the default brand architecture option. The branded house architecture maximizes clarity because the customer knows

exactly what is being offered. For example, Virgin stands for service quality, innovation, fun/entertainment, value and being the underdog. The descriptors describe the specific businesses: Virgin Rails is a railroad run by the Virgin organization. Things could not be simpler from a branding perspective. A single brand communicated across products and over time is much easier to understand and recall than dozen individual brands each with its own association.

Branded house usually maximizes synergy, as participation in one product market creates associations and visibility that can help in another market. Every exposure of the brand in one context provides visibility that enhances brand awareness in all contexts.

Research Purpose & Hypothesis Development

This study aims to compare the level of perceived greenwashing at different levels of brand architecture. We chose to use the "house of brands" structure as this gives us the opportunity to test different levels in one same company. In other words, we want to know at what level of the "house of brands" architecture consumers will perceive the most greenwashing when confronted with a green claim: the company, the brand or the product? Using the 'house of brands' structure also means that we will have to use multinational companies to test our hypotheses as almost all 'house of brands' structures are large corporations active in several countries.

To illustrate with an example let us use Procter & Gamble: the company is Procter & Gamble, the brands are Always, Gillette or Swiffer and the products are tampons, razors or a mop.

As seen before, brand associations are divided into three categories: attributes, benefits and attitude. Attributes and some forms of benefits (functional benefits and experiential benefits) relate more strongly to the product while some benefits (symbolic benefits) and the attitude relate more to the brand. Despite the differences between the associations made on brand-level and product-level, it all comes together to form more general brand associations.

Hence, the brands and the products that they carry are not viewed separately from each other by consumers. As Chan (2004) said, one of the most common reasons for low credibility of green claims is that the manufacturer of the advertised product does not bear an eco-friendly image. When the green initiative and the company activities or reputation do not fit, consumers tend to become skeptical (Yoon et al., 2006).

Is leads us to anticipate that a green claim made solely by a product – without the brand – will result in high perceived greenwashing.

From the perspective of the brand, several aspects specific to the 'house of brands' architecture leads us to the same conclusion. The brands managed under 'house of brands' companies are advertised and marketed heavily to consumers. These brands are often well known by consumers which means that consumers have already made brand associations and have certain attitudes toward the brands. As seen before, companies benefit greatly from consumers trusting their brands and products as it leads to brand loyalty (Aaker, 1997; Dekimpe et al., 1997; Oliver, 1999). Incidentally, these companies largely invest in marketing strategies to insure the right brand association, matching their consumers' needs are developed, the right attitude is linked and consumer trust their brands. In addition, because brands can be described just as humans are, we believe people will have less difficulty thinking of brands in term of trustworthy, responsible or environmentally conscious. Therefore, we believe that greenwashing will be the least perceived on the brand level.

Greenwashing is the disbelief towards an environmental claim or in other words the skeptical reaction of consumers toward an environmental claim or message. We will, consequently, measure the level of skepticism experienced by consumers when exposed to environmental communication and use a specific skepticism scale towards environmental claims (Mohr, Eroglu & Ellen, 1998).

H1: The level of skepticism towards environmental claims will be higher when made on the product-level than on the brand-level.

Multinational companies that make use of a "house of brands" structure such as Procter & Gamble are by definition companies that get very little attention from the general population. Little is invested in communicating with consumers and they are positioned to be perceived as distant from the brands and products that people use and hear about daily form marketing initiatives (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000). Consumers often receive conflicting information about a multinational's responsible and irresponsible behavior and have trouble distinguishing the truth from the lies. As Parguel , Benoit-Moreau and Larceneux (2011) stated, this confusion has encouraged "greenwashing" in the past and may make sustainable initiatives less effective because consumers tend to evaluate companies negatively on those issues. Reports of fraud, scams and environmental disasters have repeatedly appeared in the media (Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013) such as oil spills in the Gulf of Mexico, the incident in Fukushima or recently Volkswagen's diesel emissions scandal in 2016. Given that the "attribution of irresponsibility" or in other words the judgment of whether or to not believe the environmental initiatives and communications made by companies is subjective (Lange & Washburn, 2012), we believe consumers will be inclined to doubt companies based on what they know.

H2: The level of skepticism towards environmental claims will be higher when made on the company-level than on the product level.

H3: The level of skepticism towards environmental claims will be higher when made on the company-level than on the brand-level.

To summarize, the hypotheses suggest that the highest level of greenwashing will be perceived on the company-level, followed by the product-level with a lower level of skepticism and finally the brand-level will display the lowest level of skepticism.

Method

Sampling and procedure

The participants for this study were acquired out of a convenience sampling. The research was conducted using an online questionnaire constructed in Qualtrics and distributed on Facebook through various people and in various groups. The questionnaire was filled out anonymously and participation was free. No incentive was offered. The online questionnaire was opened by 453 people and completed by 49,9% of participants (226 participants).

The average age of participants is 24,7 years old with a standard deviation of 8,7. The youngest participant was 13 years old and the oldest was 73 years old. Of the 226 participants, 152 were women (67,3%) and 74 were men (32,7%). Regarding nationality, 92,9% of participants are Belgian, 5,3% of participants are Dutch and 1,8% chose the option 'other' when asked what their nationality was.

Design

The goal of this study is to compare the levels of greenwashing perceived by consumers when companies, brand or product make green claims. Therefore, the idea is to present consumers with green claims made by different companies, brands and products. A 3x3 experimental design (3 between-subjects and 3 within-subjects) was used with company-level, brand-level and product-level as independent variables, 'skepticism' as the dependent variable and 'liking of ad' as the control variable.

The participants were divided in one of three conditions: company-level, brand-level and productlevel. In each condition the level of 'skepticism' and 'linking of ad' was measured toward three different companies, three different brands or three different products. The choice was made to work with existing companies, brand and products in order to be able to control the existing perception towards the stimuli (to simplify the language of this study, the term "stimuli" will be used when talking about all companies, brands and products used in the questionnaire of this study). We wanted to make sure that the perception of environmental friendliness was non-existing for each of the stimuli and to control that the 'liking of ad' towards the stimuli was stable across all conditions. This is important to be able to compare skepticism score as will be explained later.

We also opted to only use stimuli with a "house of brand" architecture so that the company, brand and product all fall under the same company. As said in the literature study a house of brands is a company that holds many different independent brands with brands holding different products. Thus, making it possible to select a company, brand and product all belonging to the same house of brands.

As the sampling consists of a Dutch-speaking convenience sampling in Flanders, Belgium, the companies, brands and products must be active in Flanders and well-known by the general population. Ideally, we wanted companies that display the structure needed for this study: a company that has a

little-known company name with several brands under it which each carry different products. The largest "house of brands" companies present in Belgium are Kraft, Nestle, Coca-Cola, PepsiCo, Johnson & Johnson, Kellogg's', Mars, Unilever, Procter & Gamble and L'Oréal Group. It was also important to select companies that were active on similar markets. This study chose to focus on Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG). FMCG present a few benefits from the consumer (or in this study the participant's) perspective: FMCG are product made for rapid consumption and thus are purchased frequently. Examples include non-durable goods such as soft-drinks, toiletries, over-the-counter drugs, processed foods and many other consumable. These products (and brands) are purchased and used daily by consumers. To ensure the best experimental conditions and make sure that participants would not be influenced by the type of product, we also chose to only use products in the category of toiletries.

Therefore, companies not carrying toiletry products were not considered and it became clear that the best choices were Procter & Gamble, Unilever and L'Oréal Group. All three are active in Belgium as they carry many brands and all three deal mostly in toiletries. They are therefore the most similar companies out of the original considered pool of companies.

Under each of these companies, similar toiletry brands were chosen: respectively Oral-b, Dove and Garnier.

Out of the products offered by each brand the following products were chosen respectively: toothpaste, shampoo and hair coloring.

Pretest.

In order to be sure that none of those stimuli already entailed a perception of greenness in consumers, a pre-test was carried out. In the pre-test 15 people answered the following questions about every subject (Procter & Gamble, Unilever, L'Oréal Group, Oral-B, Dove, Garnier, the toothpaste, the shampoo and the hair coloring):

Do you know [company/brand/product]?

• If people answered yes: With which three words would you describe [company/brand/product]? (ex. friendly, mean, big)

In Dutch:

Ken je [bedrijf/merk/product]?

• If people answered yes: Met welke 3 woorden zou je [company/brand/product] beschrijven? (vb. vriendelijk, gemeen, groot)

Appendix A in the attachments present all adjectives used to describe the stimuli. Only one respondent reported association with regards to environmental friendliness when describing Garnier: "environmentally unfriendly and pollutant". All other 14 respondents did not report any association with our stimuli with regard to environmental friendliness. Therefore, we concluded that there was no

bias with regards to a 'green' perception in any of the chosen companies and brands which could distort our results.

Main study.

The participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions: company, brand, or product. 68 participants were assigned to the company condition, 76 participants were assigned to the brand condition and 82 participants were assigned to the product condition.

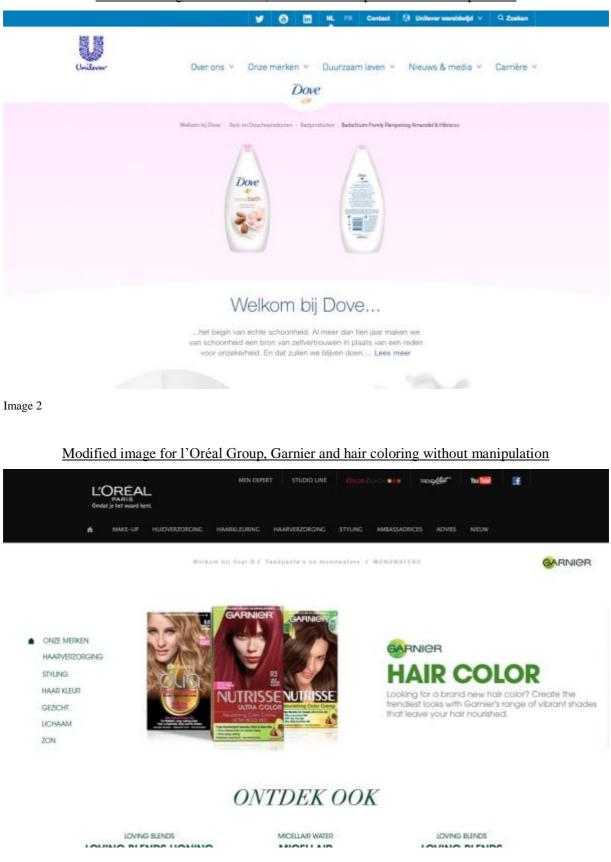
In each category, an image modified with Photoshop® of a website was shown to the participants, followed by the questions.

The modified images represent a screenshot of the Procter & Gamble website clicked through to the Oral-B brand and to Oral-B toothpaste (image 1), the Unilever website in the Dove section and on a specific shampoo (image 2), and the L'Oréal Group website in the Garnier section and on the hair coloring product (image 3).



Modified image for Procter & Gamble, Oral-B and toothpaste without manipulation

Image 1



Modified image for Unilever, Dove and shampoo without manipulation

Image 3

In other words the images look like screenshots of the Proctor & Gamble, the Unilever and the L'Oréal Group websites where someone clicked on:

- Procter & Gamble>Brands>Oral-B>toothpaste
- Unilever>Brands>Dove >shampoo>
- L'Oréal Group>Brands>Garnier>hair coloring

In the questionnaire, these images were used in every condition; each with a manipulation on the company-level, brand-level and product-level according to the condition. The manipulation consisted of a green logo added to the stimuli. The green logos were designed for this study and were made specific to the condition they were used in.

On the company level the logo reads "GREEN COMPANY", on the brand level the logo reads "GREEN BRAND" and on the product level the logo reads "GREEN PRODUCT".

We chose to work with a fictional logo for several reasons. First, we wanted to avoid influencing participants with logos that they might already know and/or have a positive or negative perception of. Secondly, there are no existing logos that point to a non-specific green initiative. Most logos point to, for example, bio products being used or other initiatives specific to the product or brand. And finally, no existing logo was designed to be used on every brand architectural level.

By using a non-specific fictional logo, we ensured all participants were presented with the same logo, stating the same broad message of "green company/brand/product" for each condition.

Image 4, image 5 and image 6 represent the logos used in the main study and in appendix B the logos placed on the images for each condition.

Logo for company condition



Image 4

Logo for brand condition



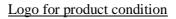
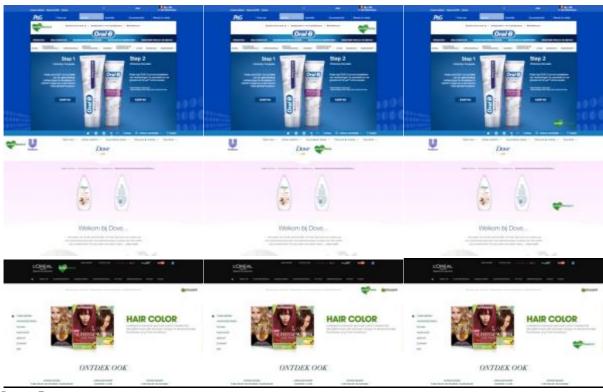




Image 6

Image 7 represents the images of the website with the logos added for each condition. In Appendix B the images in full size can be found.



Modified imaged for all 'house of brands' and all conditions

Image 7

Measuring instruments

Perception of greenwashing.

To measure perceived greenwashing, a four-item measure of 'skepticism towards environmental claims' by Mohr et al. (1998) was used (see appendix B). The first item of this scale needed to be recoded.

This scale was developed to have a valid and reliable measure of skepticism toward environmental claims in marketer's communications meaning that this scale was developed within the specific context of "green" marketing claims.

This construct was measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale with the following answer alternatives and their coding in SPSS:

- "strongly agree" ("volledig mee eens") =1
- "agree" ("eens") =2
- "neither agree, nor disagree" ("noch eens, noch oneens") =3
- "disagree" ("oneens") =4
- "strongly disagree" ("helemaal oneens") =5

Please note that this scale was coded in such a way that a high skepticism score in SPSS points to a low skepticism level in natural settings and in turn a low skepticism score in SPSS points to a high skepticism level in natural settings.

The researchers that developed this skepticism scale (Mohr et al., 1998), warn us that a pronounced positive or negative evaluation of the subject in question might influence the level of skepticism. In their words "consumers accumulate various experiences with the source of communication across many domains (advertising, pricing, product and retailing) that constitute an overall feeling. Therefore, it is expected that this rather global sentiment about the "business" affects skepticism toward a specific experience; for example, communication from the "business" about environmental qualities."

We decided to control the general evaluative perception of the different stimuli to make sure that a pronounced liking or disliking towards one of the stimuli would not influence the skepticism level.

Liking of the Ad.

Liking of the ad was measured with a one item scale from Bergkvist and Rossiter (2007). Participants were asked "When thinking of _____, which of the following statements best describes your feelings?". This construct was measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale with the following answer alternatives and their coding in SPSS:

- "I like it very much" ("Ik vind het heel leuk") =1
- "I like it" ("Ik vind het leuk") =2
- "I neither like it, nor dislike it" ("Neutraal") =3
- "I dislike it" ("Ik vind het niet leuk") =4
- "I dislike it very much" ("Ik vind het helemaal niet leuk") =5

Please note that this scale was coded in such a way that a high 'Liking of the Ad' score in SPSS points to a negative evaluation in natural settings and in turn a low 'Liking of the Ad' score in SPSS points to a positive evaluation in natural settings.

Sociodemographic variables.

Three sociodemographic variable were questioned. Participants stated their gender (2=man; 1=woman), their age in numbers and their nationality (Belgian=1, Dutch=2, Other=3).

The full questionnaire can be found in Appendix C. Please notice: the questionnaires for the company condition, the brand condition and the product condition are all presented together one after the other and the intro and demographics questionnaire are respectively presented first and last.

Results

Data-analysis and results

The data-analysis was conducted using the statistical program SPSS. First the dataset of 453 respondents was cleaned and verified giving us a total of 226 respondents to analyze. 68 respondents were assigned to the company condition, 76 to the brand condition and 82 to the product condition.

Data-analysis on the aggregation of all stimuli.

Each participants answered the skepticism scale three times in each condition. Consequently, we started by calculating the mean score for each item in each participant and gathered them into their respective items 'skept1', 'skept2', 'skept3', and 'skept4'.

Then, we calculated the reliability of the skepticism scale. The Cronbach's alpha is 0,86 which is well above the common cut-off of 0,70. We can conclude that the skepticism scale is internally consistent.

A one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the effect of brand architecture level on skepticism towards a green claim.

There was a non-significant effect of the brand architecture level, F(2)=0,596, p=0,552.

A post-hoc test (using Scheffe and Bonferroni) also confirmed that differences between conditions were not significant with all p-values > 0.05.

Although results were not significant, the skepticism score in the company condition is the highest with a score of 2,92 and a standard deviation of 0,63, the skepticism score in the brand condition is the second highest with a score of 2,89 and a standard deviation of 0,66 and the skepticism score in the product condition is the lowest with a score of 2,8 and a standard deviation of 0,64.

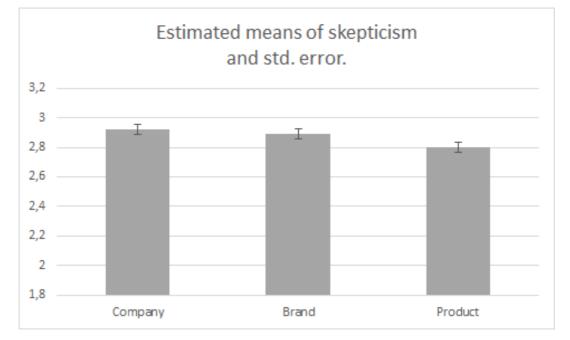


Table 1. Please note: scores are inverse to ecological value.

Control

As said earlier we used 'liking of ad' as a control variable which we will describe as 'La' from now on.

A univariate analysis of variance was conducted using skepticism as the dependent variable, brand architecture level as the fixed factor and 'La' as the covariate. Results indicated a significant effect of 'La' on skepticism, F(1,222)=49,31, p < 0,000.

A Pearson correlation was also computed to assess the relationship between 'Liking of Ad' and skepticism. Based on the results, 'Liking of the ad' is strongly related to skepticism r=-0,43, p<0,00.

We also conducted analyses in the three separate 'house of brands' companies, comparing the different architectural levels within each corporation. This means we compared the skepticism scores between Procter & Gamble, Oral-B and toothpaste; between Unilever, Dove and shampoo; and between L'Oréal Group, Garnier and hair coloring.

In the results the following analyses will be referred to as the analyses on the 'house of brands', and the one above that includes all house of brands will be referred to as 'the analysis on the aggregation of al stimuli'.

Data-analyses on the 'house of brands': Procter & Gamble, Oral-B and toothpaste. We started by calculating the mean score for each item within the Procter & Gamble corporation (item 1 to 4 on company, brand and product level) and respectively named them 'scept_PG1', 'scept_PG2', 'scept_PG3' and 'scept_PG4'.

Then, we calculated the reliability of the skepticism scale. The Cronbach's alpha is 0,82, therefore we can conclude that the skepticism scale is still internally consistent.

A one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the effect of brand architecture level on skepticism towards a green claim. There was a non-significant effect of the brand architecture level, F(2,223)=0,791, p=0,455.

A post-hoc test (using Scheffe and Bonferroni) also confirmed that differences between conditions were not significant with all p-values > 0.05.

Although results were not significant, the skepticism score in the brand condition is the highest with a score of 2,92 and a standard deviation of 0,77, the skepticism score in the company condition is the second highest with a score of 2,90 and a standard deviation of 0,72 and the skepticism score in the product condition is the lowest with a score of 2,78 and a standard deviation of 0,73.

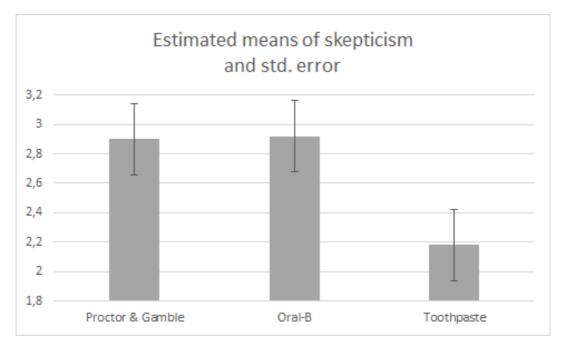


Table 2. Please note: scores are inverse to ecological value.

Control:

A univariate analysis of variance was conducted using skepticism as the dependent variable, brand architecture level as the fixed factor and 'La' as the covariate. Results indicated a significant effect of 'La' on skepticism, F(1,222)=31,44, p < 0,000.

A Pearson correlation was also computed to assess the relationship between 'Liking of Ad' and skepticism. Based on the results, 'Liking of the ad' is strongly related to skepticism r=-0.36, p<0.00.

Data-analyses on the 'house of brands': Unilever, Dove and shampoo.

We started by calculating the mean score for each item within the Unilever corporation (item 1 to 4 on company, brand and product level) and respectively named them 'scept_UN1', 'scept_UN2', 'scept_UN3' and 'scept_UN4'.

Then, we calculated the reliability of the skepticism scale. The Cronbach's alpha is 0,81, therefore we can conclude that the skepticism scale is still internally consistent.

A one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the effect of brand architecture level on skepticism towards a green claim. There was a non-significant effect of the brand architecture level, F(2,223)=0,046, p=0,955.

A post-hoc test (using Scheffe and Bonferroni) also confirmed that differences between conditions were not significant with all p-values > 0.05.

A simple linear regression was also calculated to predict skepticism based on brand architectural level. The linear regression was also not significant (F(1,224)=0,00, p=0,998), with an R² of 0,000).

Although results were not significant, the skepticism score in the brand condition is the highest with a score of 3,06 and a standard deviation of 0,78, the skepticism scores in the product and the company condition were equal with a score of 3,02 and a standard deviations of respectively 0,78 and 0,74.

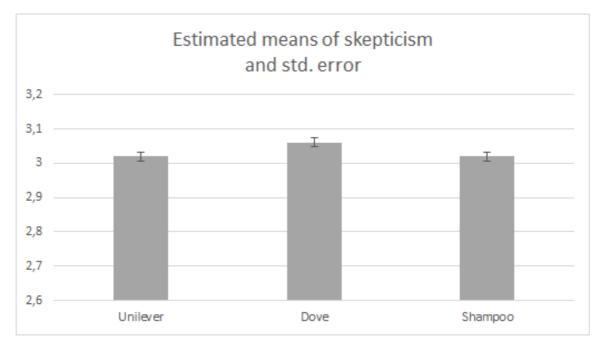


Table 3. Please note: scores are inverse to ecological value.

Control:

A univariate analysis of variance was conducted using skepticism as the dependent variable, brand architecture level as the fixed factor and 'La' as the covariate. Results indicated a significant effect of 'La' on skepticism, F(1,222)=51,94, p < 0,000.

A Pearson correlation was also computed to assess the relationship between 'Liking of Ad' and skepticism. Based on the results, 'Liking of the ad' is strongly related to skepticism r=-0,43, p<0,00.

Data-analyses on the 'house of brands': L'Oréal Group, Garnier, hair coloring. We started by calculating the mean score for each item within the L'Oréal Group corporation (item 1 to 4 on company, brand and product level) and respectively named them 'scept_LO1', 'scept_LO2', 'scept_LO3' and 'scept_LO4'.

Then, we calculated the reliability of the skepticism scale. The Cronbach's alpha is 0,83, therefore we can conclude that the skepticism scale is still internally consistent.

A one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the effect of brand architecture level on skepticism towards a green claim. There was a non-significant effect of the brand architecture level, F(2,223)=1,36, p=0,258.

A post-hoc test (using Scheffe and Bonferroni) also confirmed that differences between conditions were not significant with all p-values > 0.05.

A simple linear regression was also calculated to predict skepticism based on brand architectural level. The linear regression was also not significant (F(1,224)=2,68, p=0,103), with an R² of 0,012).

Although results were not significant, the skepticism score in the company condition is the highest with a score of 2,83 and a standard deviation of 0,73, the skepticism score in the brand condition is the second highest with a score of 2,70 and a standard deviation of 0,80 and the skepticism score in the product condition is the lowest with a score of 2,62 and a standard deviation of 0,78.

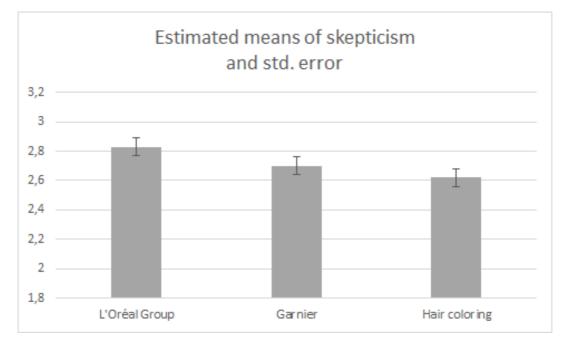


Table 4. Please note: scores are inverse to ecological value.

Control:

A univariate analysis of variance was conducted using skepticism as the dependent variable, brand architecture level as the fixed factor and 'La' as the covariate. Results indicated a significant effect of 'La' on skepticism, F(1,222)=46,35 p < 0,000.

A Pearson correlation was also computed to assess the relationship between 'Liking of Ad' and skepticism. Based on the results, 'Liking of the ad' is strongly related to skepticism r=-0,43, p<0,00.

Summary of results

H1: The level of skepticism towards environmental claims will be higher when made on the product-level than on the brand-level.

The one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the aggregation of all stimuli was not significant. Therefrom, we conclude that the there is no significant difference in skepticism levels between the company, brand or product-level.

Although the differences were not significant in the analysis of the aggregation of all stimuli, the skepticism score was slightly higher on the brand-level than on the product-level. In ecological terms, this means that the skepticism level was slightly higher on the product-level than on the brand-level (remember that scores are inverse to the ecological value) which is in line with the expectation. This trend was also shown when the analysis was made within the Procter & Gamble 'house of brands', the Unilever 'house of brands' and the L'Oréal Group 'house of brands'. A one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also conducted within each 'house of brands'. Likewise, the results were not significant, however they were in trend with the hypothesis. In conclusion, hypothesis 1 was not supported.

H2: The level of skepticism towards environmental claims will be higher when made on the company-level than on the product level.

As said above, the one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the aggregation of all stimuli was not significant. Thus, we conclude that the there is no significant difference in skepticism levels between the company, brand or product level.

Despite the differences not being significant in the analysis of the aggregation of all stimuli, the skepticism score was slightly higher on the company-level than on the product-level. In ecological terms this means that the skepticism level was lower on the company-level than on the product-level. This trend was also shown when the analysis was made within the Procter & Gamble 'house of brands' and the L'Oréal Group 'house of brands'. In the Unilever 'house of brands' the skepticism scores were equal to the second decimal between company- and product-level. A one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also conducted within each 'house of brands'. Likewise, the results were not significant and the results were not in trend with the hypothesis. In conclusion, hypothesis 2 was not supported.

H3: The level of skepticism towards environmental claims will be higher when made on the company-level than on the brand-level.

Again, the one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the aggregation of all stimuli was not significant. Thus, we conclude that the there is no significant difference in skepticism levels between the company, brand or product level.

Even though the differences were not significant in the analysis of the aggregation of all stimuli, the skepticism score was slightly higher on the company-level than on the brand-level. In ecological terms, this means that the skepticism level was lower on company-level than on brand-level. This was also the case when the analysis was made within the L'Oréal Group 'house of brands'. In the Procter & Gamble 'house of brands' and the Unilever 'house of brands' the skepticism scores were higher on the brand-level than on the company-level. These results are also not in trend with the hypothesis. In conclusion, hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Control

The results show that 'Liking of the Ad' did have a significant effect on the skepticism levels when the analysis was conducted on the aggregation of stimuli. We can observe that 'Liking of the Ad' and skepticism are negatively correlated which means that the more people liked the stimuli, the less skeptical they were (remember that the Likert-scales were coded in such a way that a high skepticism score means a low skepticism level and liking the stimuli means a low 'Liking of the Ad' score). We can conclude that 'Liking of the Ad' did influence the overall skepticism level in the different conditions.

When looking at each 'house of brands' we can see that 'Liking of Ad' has a significant effect in the Procter & Gamble 'house of cards, the Unilever 'house of cards' as well as the L'Oréal Group 'house of brands.

Discussion

In the last 30 years, countless studies have been done treating the many aspect and forms of green marketing, green positioning, greenwashing and their benefits and limitations. Researchers have focused on how to communicate about an environmentally friendly product, when to communicate or not about green initiatives, how much people trust certain forms of marketing communication or initiatives and what the effect of a potential trust or mistrust is (Baker & Sinkula, 2005; Chase & Smith, 1992; Delafrooz et al., 2013; De Vries et al., 2013; D'Souza et al., 2006; Hartmann et al., 2005; Koening-Lewis et al., 2014; Newman et al., 2014; Thogersen et al., 2010) but none have tackled the relationship between brand architecture and perceived greenwashing. Greenwashing in itself is the practice of making false, unsubstantiated or misleading claims about the environmental benefits of a product, service, technology or company practice. The perception of greenwashing is about whether consumers believe communication about the environmental benefits of a product, service, technology or company practice. The perception of greenwashing is about whether company practice or are skeptical about the truthfulness of such claims. This study aimed to compare the difference in perceived greenwashing (a.k.a skepticism level) when a green claim was made on company-level, brand-level or product-level to determine on which level a corporation is advised to launch a green initiative to maximize credibility.

Considering that brands invest al lot in fostering trust, in developing a positive brand image and promoting the right brand associations, and can be thought of in the same way we describe humans, we believe people will have little difficulty thinking of brands in term of trustworthy, responsible or environmentally conscious. Products, in turn, are thought of in a more practical way, beneficial to the consumers (Keller, 1993; Park et al., 1986). They are perceived more in light of 'what they do' instead of 'who they are'. Therefore, based on the brand attitude theory (Keller, 1993) and the brand personality theory (Aaker, 1997; Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003) we expected that the levels of perceived greenwashing would be higher on product level than on brand level (H1).

The structure of 'house of brands' clearly requires the company to claim as little attention as possible from consumers so that the brands and products would be in the spotlight (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000). Moreover, consumers tend to receive conflicting information about corporations responsible and irresponsible behavior. These components tend to facilitate the perception of greenwashing (Parguel et al., 2011) which lead us to believe that the skepticism levels would be higher on the company level that on the brand or product-level (H2 and H3).

Unfortunately, the results of our study were not significant and thus not statistically conclusive. Results pertaining to hypothesis 1 did show the trend that we had anticipated despite not being significant but hypothesis 2 and 3 did not show the trend we were expecting. However, the nonsignificance of the hypotheses can be due to a number of factors which we will now explain by exploring the limitations of this study and suggesting possibilities for future research.

A first limitation of the study is the significant effect the control variable 'Liking of the Ad' had on the level of skepticism in the different conditions. As Mohr et al. (1998) warned us, an extreme positive of negative judgment of a subject influences the skepticism towards the subject. Overall 'Liking of the Ad' was significant in the analysis with the aggregation of all subject, which means that 'Liking of Ad' played a substantial role in influencing the observed skepticism levels. The same conclusion was supported by the analyses on the different 'house of brands'. The negative correlations between the skepticism scores and the 'liking of the ad' scores tell us that a higher 'liking of the ad' was always correlated with a higher 'skepticism'.

When designing our study, we wanted to ensure the best possible experimental design and establish internal validity. We wanted the different conditions to be as similar as possible and we wanted to minimize the differences between the different 'house of brands'. Therefore, we chose to use screenshots of websites that we modified with Photoshop® to make sure they all provided the same information (company name, brand name and specific product) and we chose to use an eco-label. We were also careful to achieve a degree of external validity by choosing to use existing companies, brands and products that already raised associations and attitudes. Using a 'green' logo gave us a controlled and clean way to present the same green claim on each architectural level and in each 'house of brands'. We designed the logos to look the same in each condition with one word varying between conditions (company – brand – product). The use of an eco-label is a strength in the sense that it ensured equal stimuli but also presents its limitations.

As gathered from informal feedback given by several respondents, the 'green' logo was not always understood and respondents had difficulty interpreting it as it was unknown to them. Consequently, little information could be obtained from the logo and participant could only deduce that the logo indicated some kind of green initiative. As stated by Thogersen et al. (2010), consumers need to be informed of environmental attributes or benefits but also need to understand them. As follows, we believe that more specific information about the green message needs to be presented to the participants as one of the reasons for low perceived credibility in passed research was the vagueness of claims (Chan, 2014).

In future research, the same experimental design could be used by making the logo more specific or using an endorser that is trusted by the public (such as a non-for-profit organization or a governmental institution), however, if we had to do it again we would use a more qualitative way of communicating the green message. For example, press releases or news article could be used, announcing that a certain company or brand was engaging in a new green initiative or that a certain product would be

sustainable from now on and explaining at length the how and why of such an initiative. In other words, we believe that a reproduction of this study with different forms of green claims or green communication would be valuable.

The skepticism level on company-level was quite lower (relatively to the brand- and product-level) than expected. Of course, as the results were not significant we cannot draw any conclusion but this surprising proportion could also be due to participants not understanding the green claims correctly. Some participants (mostly in the company condition) indicated that they had not seen the logo right away as they were mostly looking at the center of the image. The benefits of conducting a study as mentioned here above (with more information given about the green claim) is that for example, in the case of press releases or news articles, the focus could be set solely on each of the conditions (the company, the brand or the product). Additionally, to understand better how credibly 'house of brands' organizations are perceived, future research could focus on qualitative forms of study such as focus groups and focused interviews to better understand the perception of consumers towards green initiatives in such corporations.

Even if the results had been significant, please note that this study targeted large multinational corporations and the brands and products that fall under them and the results would not have been generalizable to other non-multinational companies. The advantage of working with the 'house of brands' structure was that we could use a company, brand and product all belonging to the same 'family' and thus compare levels within one corporation improving the internal validity.

Future research could focus on other forms of brand architecture as well such as for example branded houses. Branded houses are companies where the main brand is the driver for all offerings (for example Apple, FedEx or Virgin). By definition, branded houses have spread very specific and coherent messages across all brands. Therefore, it might be possible that a branded house comes across more credibly when communicating about a company-wide initiative friendly to the environment versus a 'house of brands' that deals in many different niche segments.

Our first hypothesis predicted that the level of skepticism would be higher on the product-level than on the brand-label. Even though the difference was not significant, the results followed the trend of skepticism being higher on product-level than on brand-level.

Therefore, we believe further research on the perception of greenwashing on brand-level and product level would be relevant. For example, the differences in perception of greenwashing could be different when a green product has undergone a green enhancement, when a brand introduces a new green product or when a brand announces a new green initiative or change to the brand. It would be useful to compare those levels of skepticism to know when a green value proposition is most favorable: on brand-level, on product-level after enhancement or on product-level when the product is new.

Conclusion

This study was the first to analyze the relationship between brand architecture and perceived greenwashing. We aimed to compare the difference in perceived greenwashing (a.k.a skepticism level) when a green claim was made on company-level, brand-level or product-level to determine on which level a corporation has the most advantages when launching a green initiative or communicating about environmentally friendly behavior. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions according to the brand architecture level and the level of skepticism was measured in each condition for three different companies, brands or products. The differences were not significant and thus the results were not statistically conclusive.

Despite the non-significance of the results, one of the trends we predicted was followed (H1). We can observe that the skepticism-level was lower on brand-level compared to product-level. To our knowledge this topic has never been studied before and therefore future research should be conducted. Furthermore, we observed that the use of an eco-label was confusing to participants. Through informal feedback, we learned that participants were unsure of the meaning of the eco-label and how to interpret it. This could have influenced the results and provided a distorted reflection of the ecological validity. Therefore, it is suggested to use more informative forms of communication in future research such as press releases or articles.

It is possible that the use on an eco-label also influenced the perception of greenwashing (a.k.a skepticism) for the participants in the company condition, making it unreliable. Therefore, we believe further research should be conducted to better understand the perception of greenwashing in the highest levels of brand architecture (the parent company) and for different forms of brand architecture.

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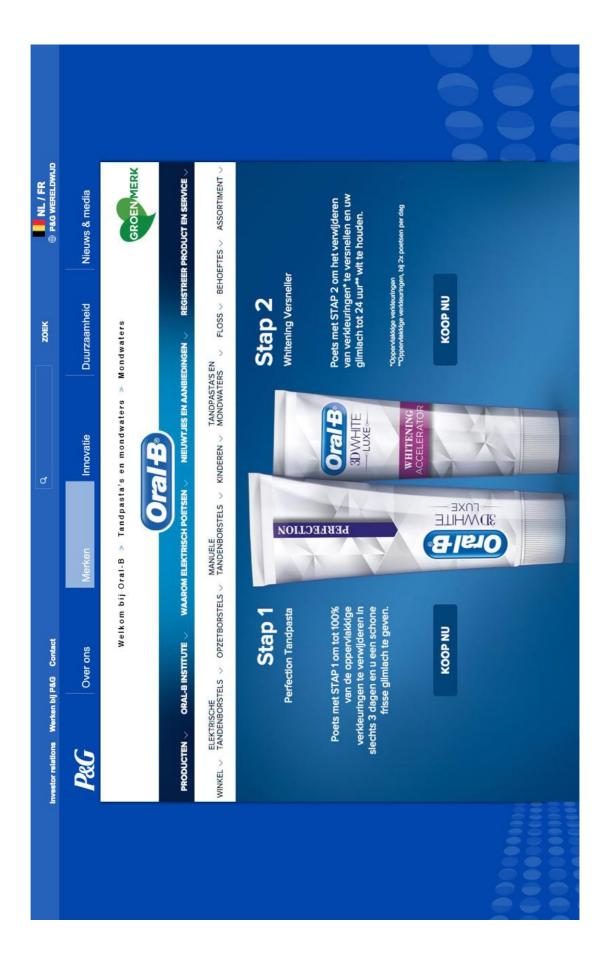
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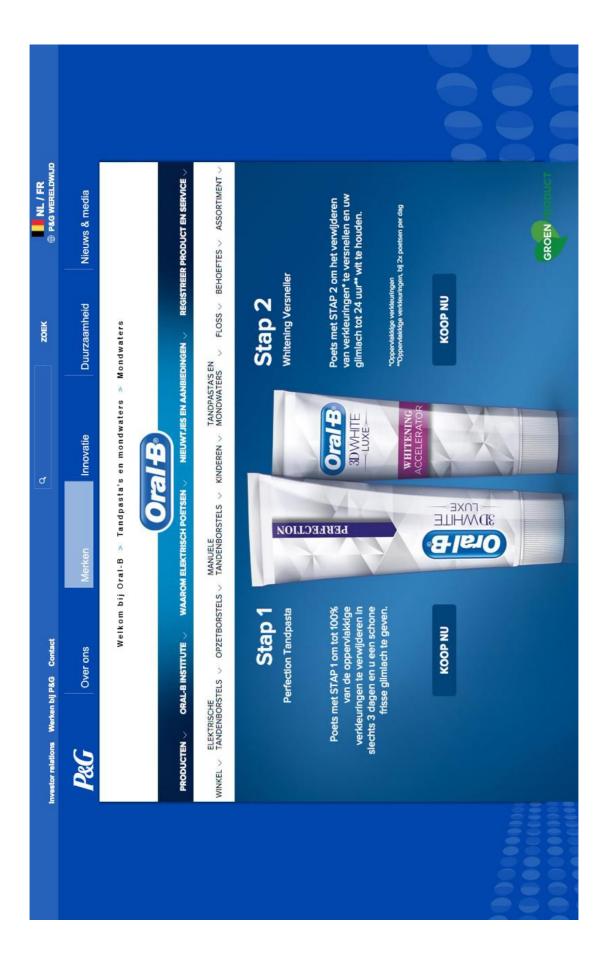
Appendix A

Met welke 3 woorden zou je Procter & Gamble beschrijven?	Ken je Oral B?	Met welke 3 woorden zou je Oral B beschrijven?	Ken je Unilever?	Met welke drie woorden zou je Unilever beschrijven?
Groot, belangrijk, grote speler	Ja	Groot vriendelijk belangrijk	Ja	Groot multinational
Groot gevarieerd ambitieus	Ja	Reclame doctor wit	Ja	Groot groep U
Gezondheid verzorging duur	Ja	tandpasta proper duur	Ja	Gigantisch succesvol gevarieerd
/	Ja	tandpasta bekend groot	Nee	/
groot bekend rijk	Ja	vals leugens duur	Ja	grot gevarieerd gemeen
groot sterk professioneel	Ja	beauty professioneel krachtig	Ja	grot gevarieerd gemeen
groot kwaliteit variatie	Ja	hygiene kwaliteit specifiek	Ja	variatie onderscheiden groot
Groot productiebedrijf, internationaal, eigenaar van de grootste merken	Ja	Tandpasta, tandenborstel, reclame met eten en pijnlijke tanden	ja	Ice tea, brits, Ben&Jerry's
Chemie, detergent, groot	Ja	wit, tanden, reclame	Nee	/
multinational, afstandelijk, hard	Ja	Expert, verzorgend, betrouwbaar	Ja	Multinational, voeding, toegankelijk
Internationaal, machtig, innovatief	Ja	fris, jong, trendy	Ja	groot, onbekend, neutraal
Aangenaam, sterk, merken	Ja	Goedkoper, onaantrekkelijk, gekend	Ja	Groot, leider, toegankelijk
uitgebreid, bekend, internationaal	Ja	hyghiënisch, fris, krachtig	Ja	groot, gekend, divers
Groot, kwaliteit, gekent	Ja	Tanden, wit, clean	Ja	Groot, winst, overal
Groot, keuze, kwaliteit	Ja	Wit , fijn , kwaliteit	Ja	Mysterieus, verrassend, nieuw
	Procter & Gamble beschrijven? Groot, belangrijk, grote speler Groot gevarieerd ambitieus Gezondheid verzorging duur / groot bekend rijk groot sterk professioneel groot sterk professioneel groot kwaliteit variatie Groot productiebedrijf, internationaal, eigenaar van de grootste merken Chemie, detergent, groot Rultinational, afstandelijk, hard Internationaal, machtig, innovatief Aangenaam, sterk, merken uitgebreid, bekend, internationaal	Procter & Gamble beschrijven?Oral B?Groot, belangrijk, grote spelerJaGroot gevarieerd ambitieusJaGezondheid verzorging duurJa/Ja/Jagroot bekend rijkJagroot sterk professioneelJagroot kwaliteit variatieJaGroot productiebedrijf, internationaal, eigenaar van de grootste merkenJaChemie, detergent, grootJaInternationaal, afstandelijk, hardJaInternationaal, machtig, innovatiefJaAangenaam, sterk, merkenJaGroot, kwaliteit, gekentJa	Procter & Gamble beschrijven?Oral B?Oral B beschrijven?Groot, belangrijk, grote spelerJaGroot vriendelijk belangrijkGroot gevarieerd ambitieusJaReclame doctor witGezondheid verzorging duurJatandpasta proper duur/Jatandpasta bekend grootgroot bekend rijkJatandpasta bekend grootgroot sterk professioneelJabeauty professioneel krachtiggroot kwaliteit variatieJahygiene kwaliteit specifiekGroot productiebedrijf, internationaal, eigenaar van de grootste merkenJaTandpasta, tandenborstel, reclame met eten en pijnlijke tandenInternationaal, afstandelijk, hardJaExpert, verzorgend, betrouwbaarInternationaal, machtig, innovatiefJaGoedkoper, onaantrekkelijk, gekendMangenaam, sterk, merkenJaGoedkoper, onaantrekkelijk, gekendGroot, kwaliteit, gekentJaTanden, wit, clean	Procter & Gamble beschrijven?Oral B?Oral B beschrijven?Unilever?Groot, belangrijk, grote spelerJaGroot vriendelijk belangrijk JaJaGroot gevarieerd ambitieusJaReclame doctor witJaGezondheid verzorging duurJatandpasta proper duurJa/Jatandpasta bekend grootNeegroot bekend rijkJavals leugens duurJagroot sterk professioneelJabeauty professioneel krachtigJagroot sterk professioneelJaIandpasta, tandenborstel, reclame met eten en pijnlijke tandenjaGroot productiebedrijf, internationaal, eigenaar van de grootste merkenJaExpert, verzorgend, betrouwbaarJaInternationaal, afstandelijk, hardJaFris, jong, trendyJaJaInternationaal, machtig, innovatiefJaGoedkoper, onaantrekkelijk, gekendJaJaMagenaam, sterk, merkenJaMichienisch, fris, krachtig gekendJaJaGroot, kwaliteit, gekentJaTanden, wit, cleanJa

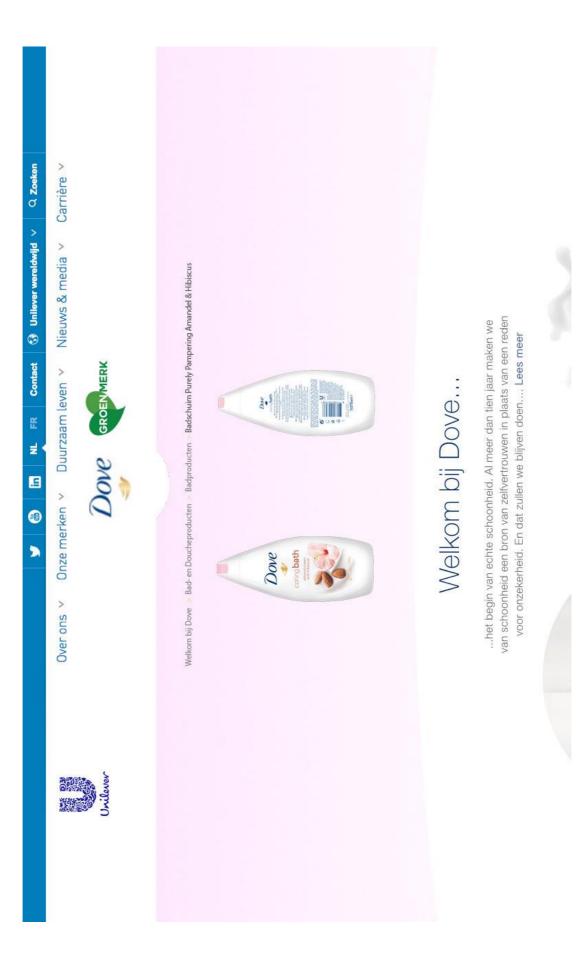
Ken je Dove?	Met welke drie woorden zou je Dove beschrijven?	Ken je L'Oréal Group?	Met welke drie woorden zou je L'Oréal Group beschrijven?	Ken je Garnier?	Met welke drie woorden zou je Garnier beschrijven?
Ja	Vriendelijk verzorging groot	Ja	vriendelijk verzorging grot	Ja	Groot verzorging vriendelijk
Ja	Zacht wit duif	Ja	vriendelijk verzorging groot	Ja	Reclame vriendlijk
Ja	proper zacht mooi	Ja	Duur groot schoonheid	Ja	schoonheid proper duur
Ja	Reclame verzorging bekend	Ja	Verzorging bekend reclame	Ja	reclame verzorgd bekend
Ja	vrouwen vriendelijk progressief	Ja	duur luxe rijk	Ja	groot milieu- onvriendelijk vervuilend
Ja	fun alledaags lachen	Ja	beauty professioneel vrouwelijk	Ja	beauty kleurrijk fun
Ja	hygiene vrouwelijk verzorging	Ja	hygiene vrouwelijk verzorging	Ja	beauty kleurrijk fun
Ja	Vrouwelijk, wit en blauw, diversiteit	Ja	Make up, shampoo, oudere vrouwen	Ja	Groen, shampoo, hygiene
Ja	crèmes, shampoo, verzorging	Ja	shampoo, 'want ik ben het waard', groot	Ja	shampoo, groen, verzorging
Ja	Toegankelijk, zacht, vriendelijk	Ja	Multinational, expert, betrouwbaar	Ja	Multinational, verzorgend, groen
Ja	Zacht, zorgzaam, kwalitatief	Ja	vrouwelijk, zacht, lief	Ja	Jong, fris, energetisch
Ja	Zacht, zeep, vrouwelijk	Ja	Uiterlijk, hard, vrouwelijk	Ja	Haar, goedkoper, neutraal
Ja	zacht, verzorgend, proper	Ja	groot, bekend, krachtig	Ja	bloemig, fris, proper
Ja	Vrouwen, zacht, nivea- nadoener	Ja	Groot, duur, commercieel	Ja	Haar, schampoo, goedkoop
Ja	Zacht, warm, verfrissend	Ja	Mooi , fris , kwaliteit	Ja	Zacht, fris, schoon

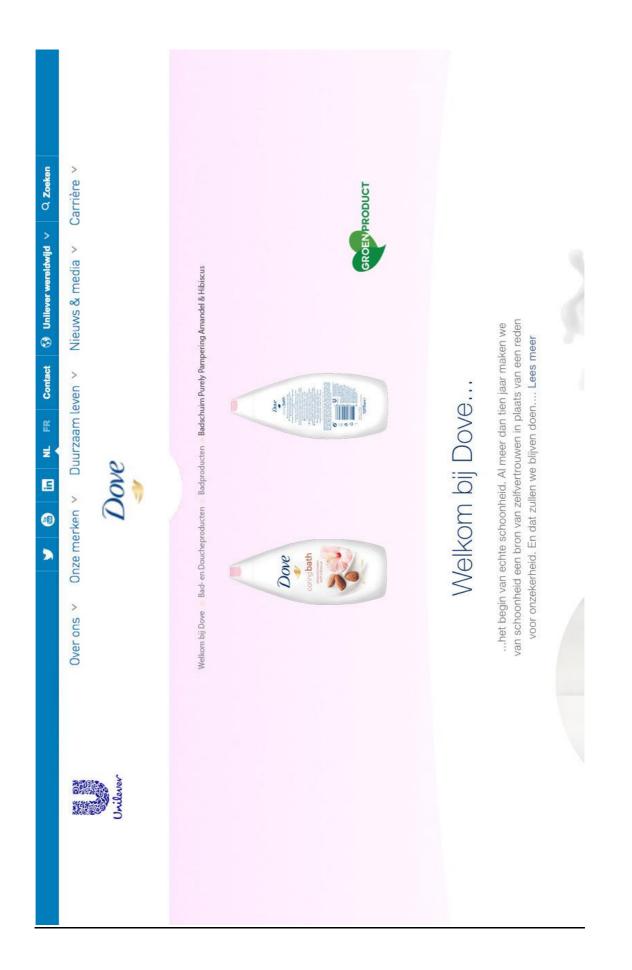


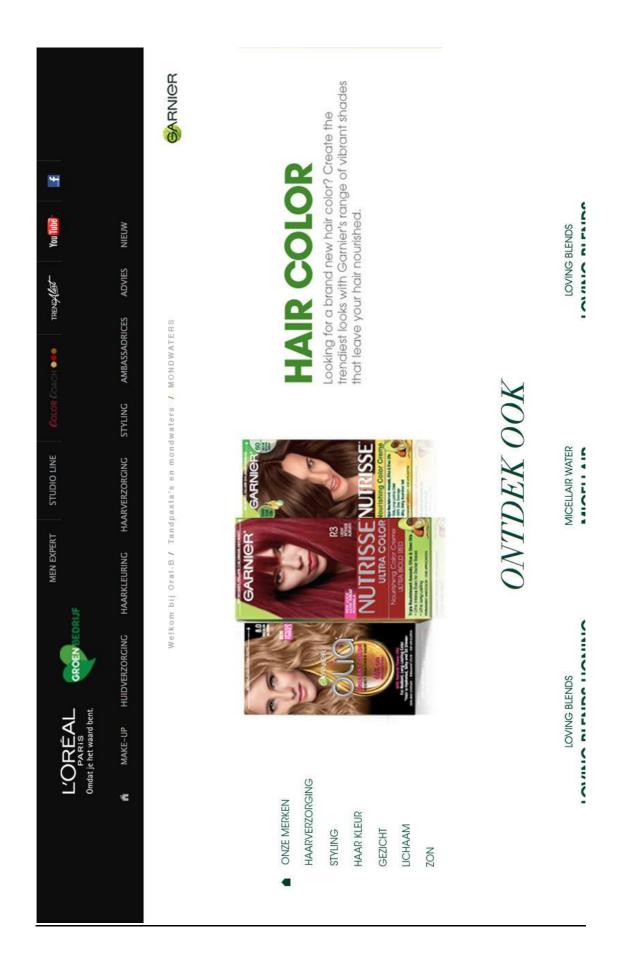


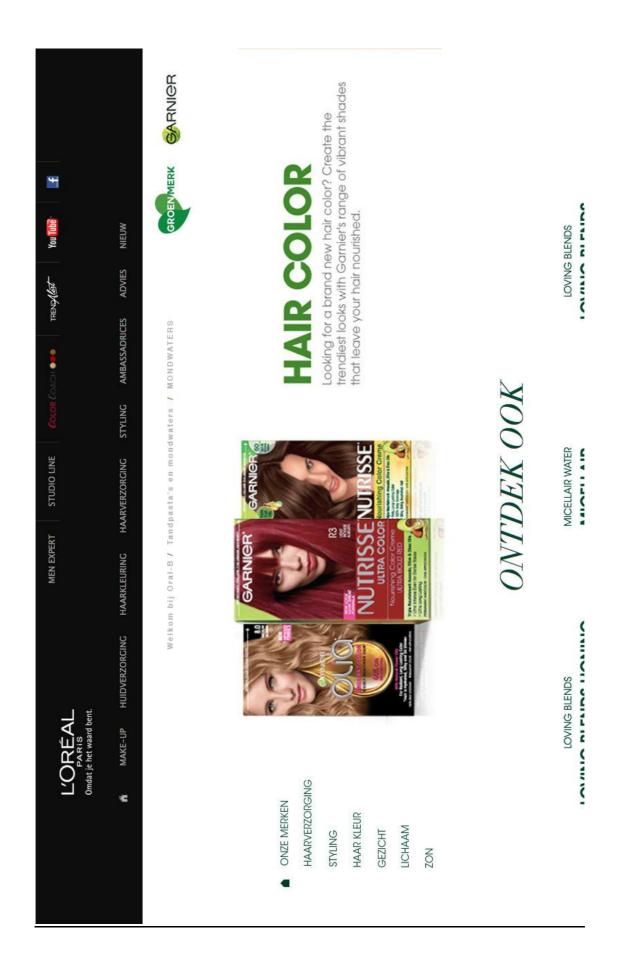


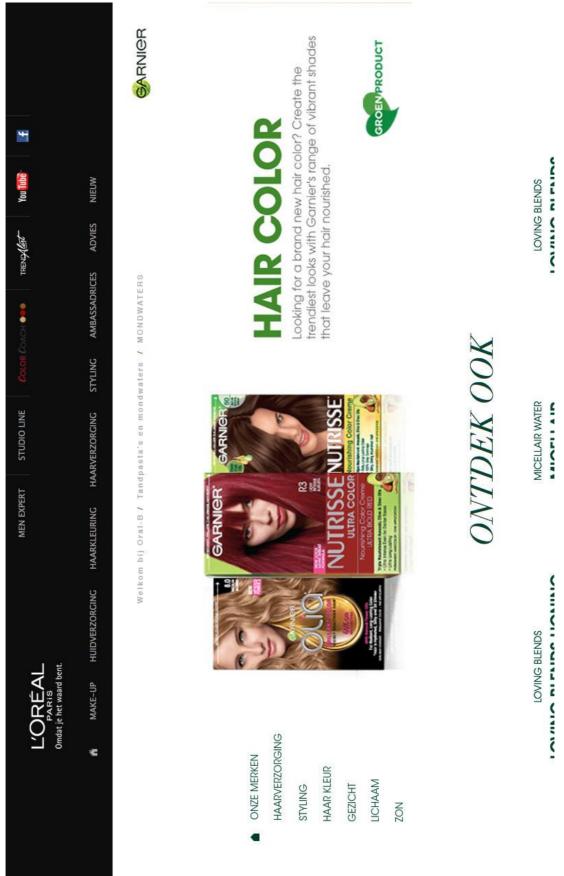












Appendix C

intro

Beste Deelnemer,

Dank je wel voor uw deelname aan dit onderzoek!

Als masterstudente bedrijfspsychologie en personeelsbeleid aan de Universiteit van Gent, werk ik momenteel aan mijn thesisonderzoek. Het thema dat ik gekozen heb kadert binnen marketing en communicatie. In dit onderzoek zullen een aantal afbeeldingen getoond worden en zal gevraagd worden om er aandachtig naar te kijken en vervolgens een aantal stellingen te beantwoorden.

Het vervolledigen van deze vragenlijst zal hooguit 5 a 10 min duren.

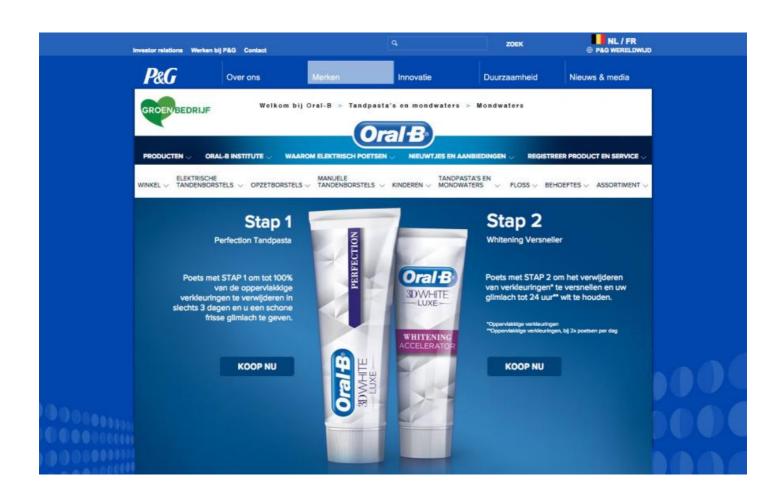
Uw antwoorden worden vertrouwelijk behandeld, anoniem verwerkt en enkel gebruikt voor onderzoeksdoeleinden.

Alvast bedankt, Cipriana Daels

PG bedrijf

Je ziet hier communicatiemateriaal van Proctor & gamble, bekijk deze goed en beantwoord vervolgens de stellingen. Let goed op de milieuclaim!

Powered by Qualtrics



In welke mate ben je het eens/oneens met de volgende stellingen?

De milieuclaim gemaakt door Proctor & Gamble is juist.





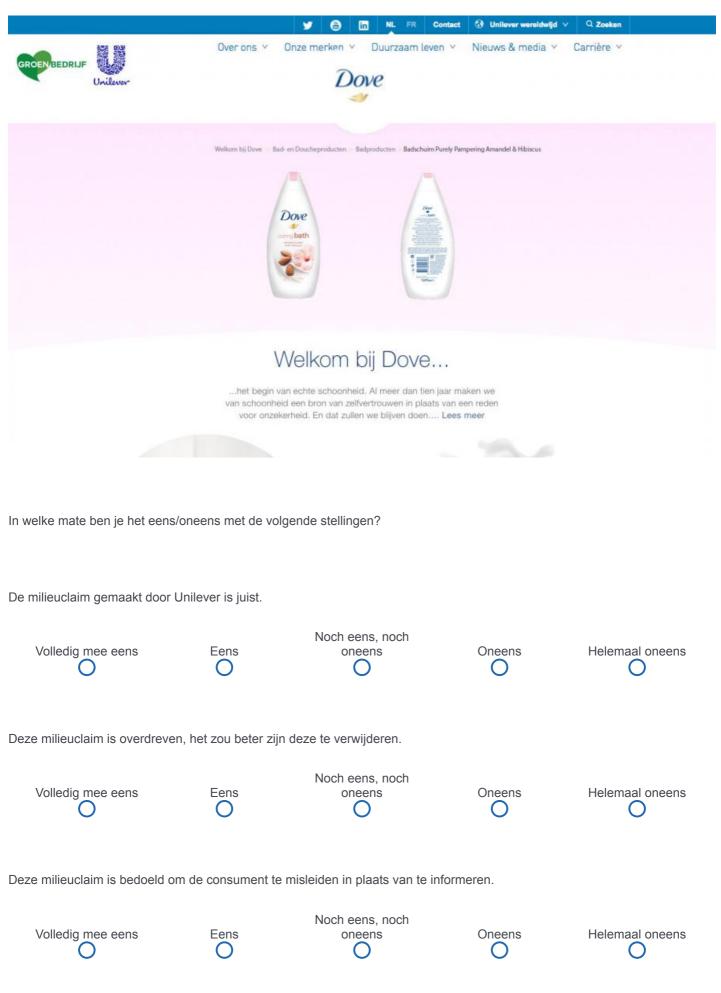


Als je denkt aan Proctor & Gamble, welke van de volgende statements beschrijven best uw gevoelens?

Ik vind het	heel leuk
Ik vind het	leuk
Neutraal	
Ik vind het	niet leuk
Ik vind het	helemaal niet leuk

Unilever bedrijf

Je ziet hier communicatiemateriaal van Unilever, bekijk deze goed en beantwoord vervolgens de stellingen. Let goed op de milieuclaim!



Ik hecht geen geloof aan de milieuclaim van Unilever.

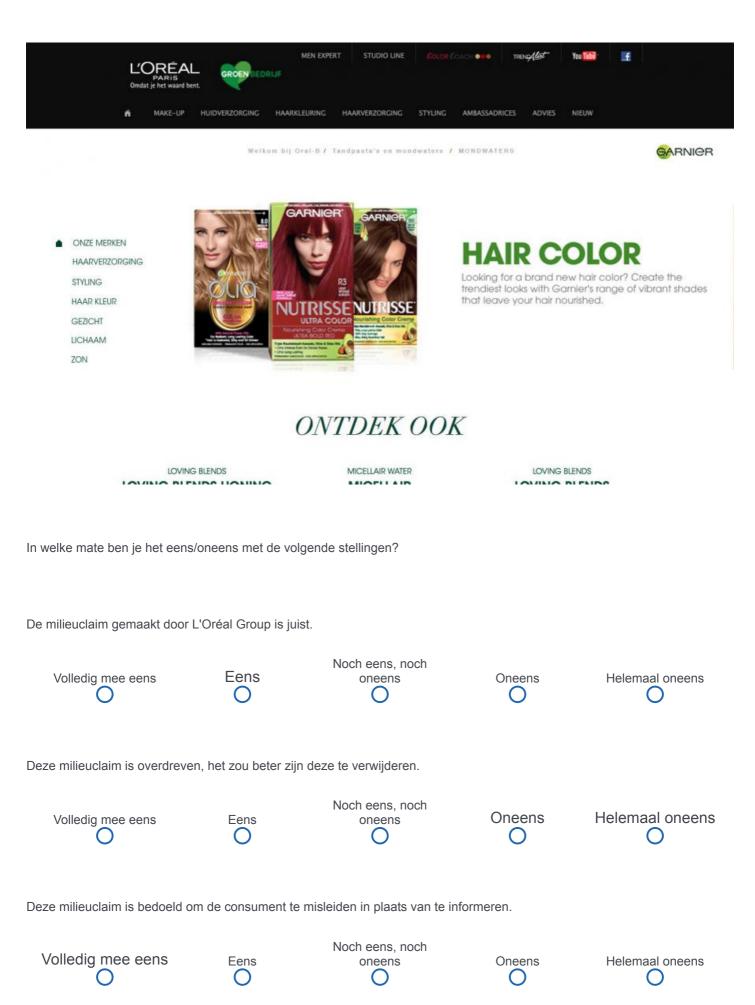


Als je denkt aan Unilever, welke van de volgende statements beschrijven best uw gevoelens?

Ik vind het heel leuk
Ik vind het leuk
Neutraal
Ik vind het niet leuk
Ik vind het helemaal niet leuk

L'Oréal bedrijf

Je ziet hier communicatiemateriaal van L'Oréal Group, bekijk deze goed en beantwoord vervolgens de stellingen. Let goed op de milieuclaim!



Ik hecht geen geloof aan de milieuclaim van L'Oréal Group.

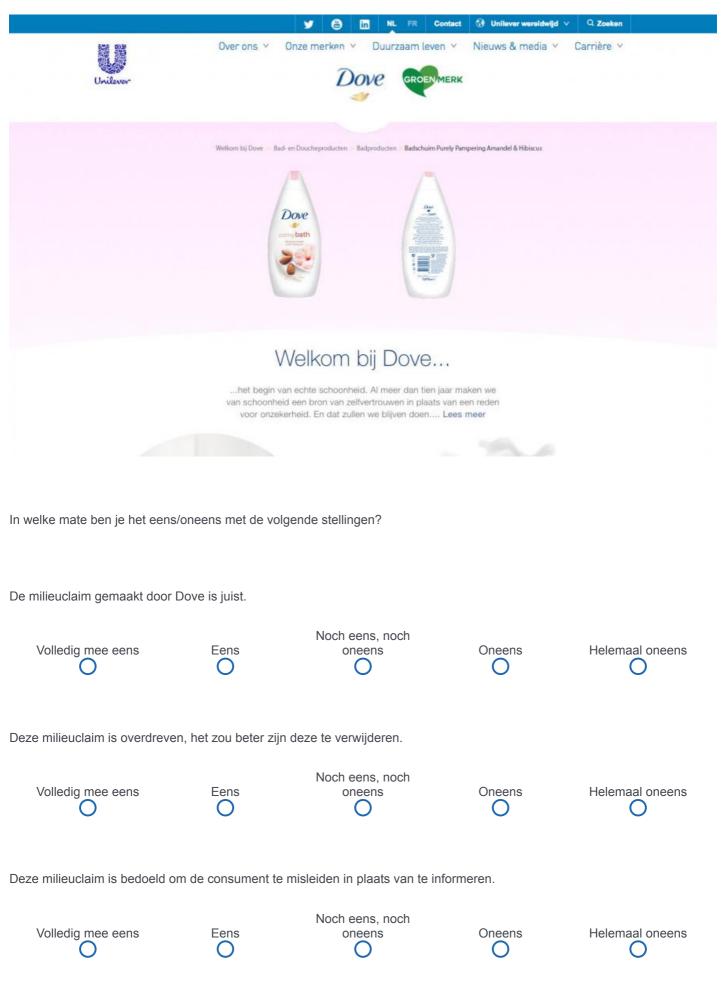


Als je denkt aan L'Oréal Group, welke van de volgende statements beschrijven best uw gevoelens.

Ik vind het heel leuk
Ik vind het leuk
Neutraal
Ik vind het niet leuk
Ik vind het helemaal niet leuk

Unilever merk

Je ziet hier communicatiemateriaal van Dove, bekijk deze goed en beantwoord vervolgens de stellingen. Let goed op de milieuclaim!



Ik hecht geen geloof aan de milieuclaim van Dove.

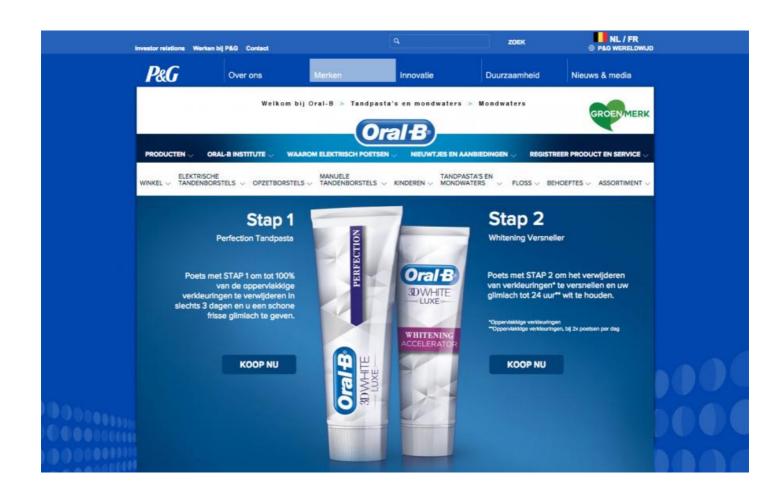


Als je denkt aan Dove, welke van de volgende statements beschrijven best uw gevoelens.

Ik vind het heel leuk
Ik vind het leuk
Neutraal
Ik vind het niet leuk
Ik vind het helemaal niet leuk

PG merk

Je ziet hier communicatiemateriaal van Oral-B, bekijk deze goed en beantwoord vervolgens de stellingen. Let goed op de milieuclaim!



In welke mate ben je het eens/oneens met de volgende stellingen?

De milieuclaim gemaakt door Oral-B is juist.

Noch eens, noch Oneens Volledig mee eens oneens Helemaal oneens Eens \bigcirc ()()Deze milieuclaim is overdreven, het zou beter zijn deze te verwijderen. Noch eens, noch Volledig mee eens Eens oneens Oneens Helemaal oneens \cap \cap ()Deze milieuclaim is bedoeld om de consument te misleiden in plaats van te informeren. Noch eens, noch Volledig mee eens Helemaal oneens Eens oneens Oneens

Ik hecht geen geloof aan de milieuclaim van Oral-B.

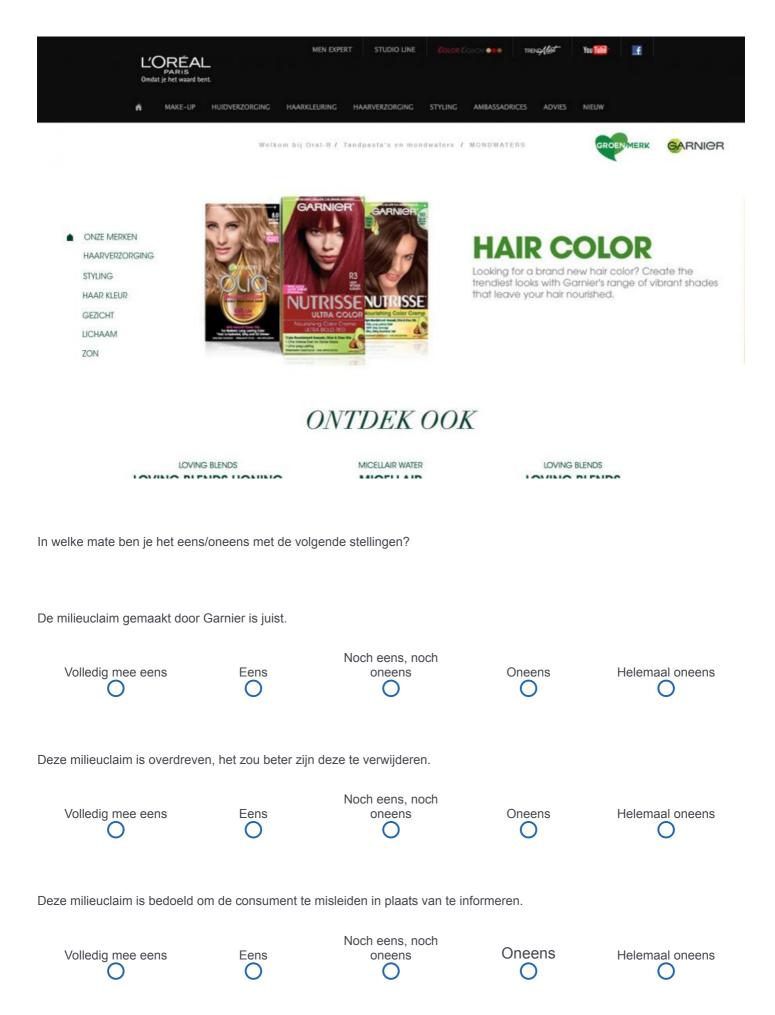


Als je denkt aan Oral-B, welke van de volgende statements beschrijven best uw gevoelens.

Ik vind het heel leuk
Ik vind het leuk
Neutraal
Ik vind het niet leuk
Ik vind het helemaal niet leuk

L'oreal merk

Je ziet hier communicatiemateriaal van Garnier, bekijk deze goed en beantwoord vervolgens de stellingen. Let goed op de milieuclaim!



Ik hecht geen geloof aan de milieuclaim van Garnier.

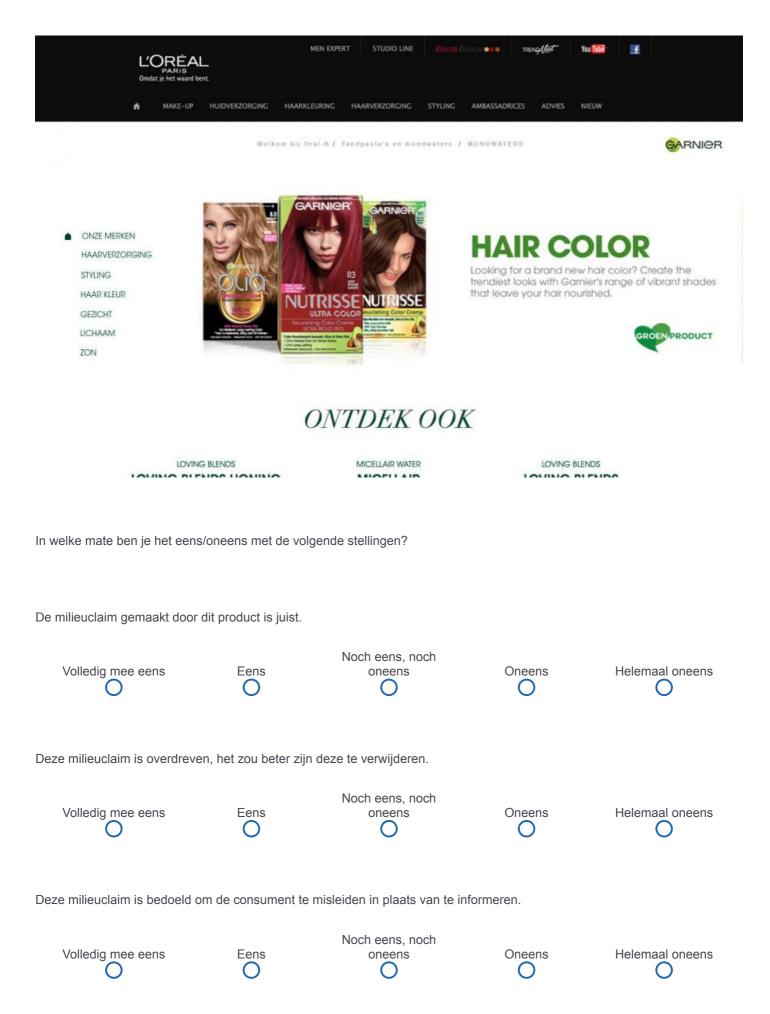


Als je denkt aan Garnier, welke van de volgende statements beschrijven best uw gevoelens.

Ik vind het heel leuk
Ik vind het leuk
Neutraal
Ik vind het niet leuk
Ik vind het helemaal niet leuk

L'oreal product

Je ziet hier communicatiemateriaal over haarproducten, bekijk deze goed en beantwoord vervolgens de stellingen. Let goed op de milieuclaim!



Ik hecht geen geloof aan de milieuclaim van dit product.

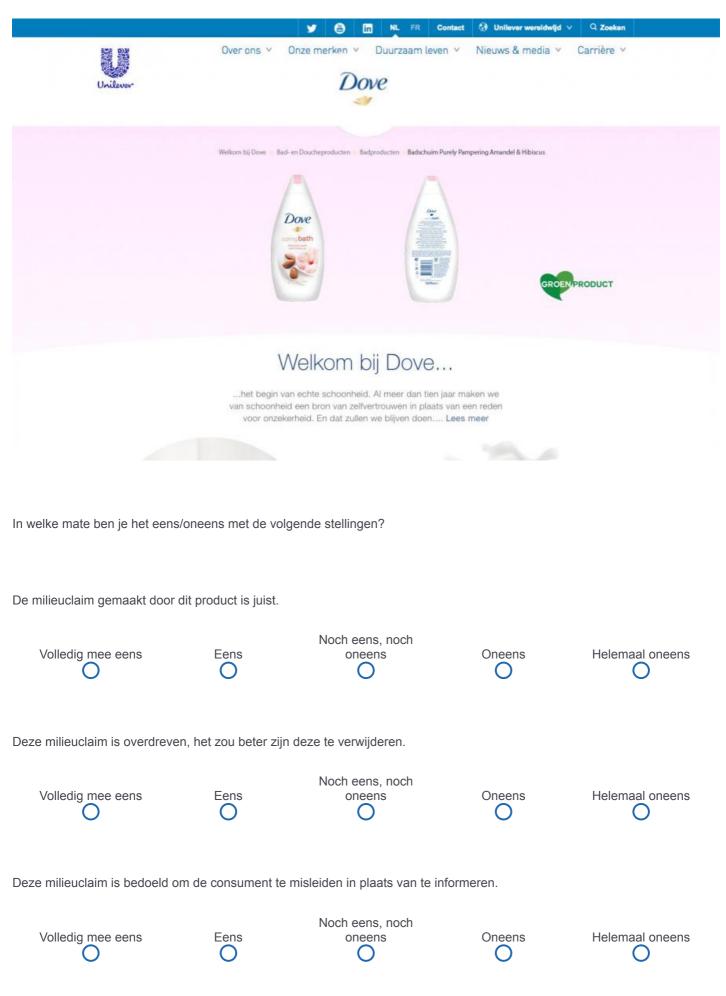


Als je denkt aan dit product, welke van de volgende statements beschrijven best uw gevoelens.

Ik vind het heel leuk
Ik vind het leuk
Neutraal
Ik vind het niet leuk
Ik vind het helemaal niet leuk

Unilever product

Je ziet hier communicatiemateriaal over shampoo, bekijk deze goed en beantwoord vervolgens de stellingen. Let goed op de milieuclaim!



Ik hecht geen geloof aan de milieuclaim van dit product.

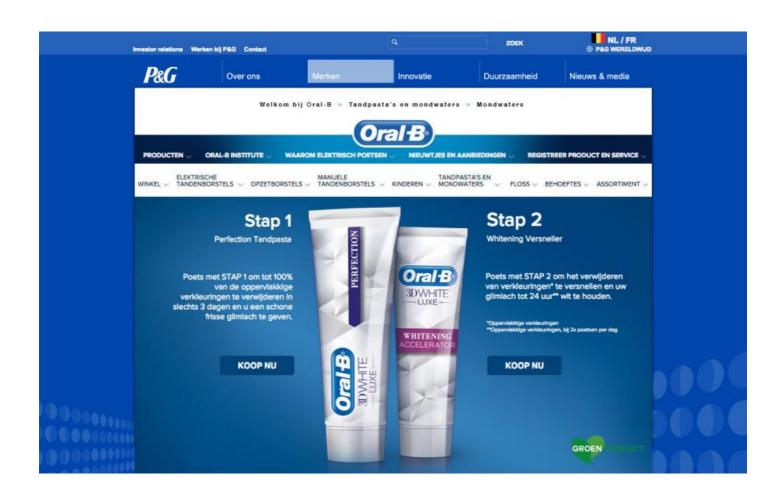


Als je denkt aan dit product, welke van de volgende statements beschrijven best uw gevoelens.

Ik vind het heel leuk
Ik vind het leuk
Neutraal
Ik vind het niet leuk
Ik vind het helemaal niet leuk

PG product

Je ziet hier communicatiemateriaal voor tandpasta, bekijk deze goed en beantwoord vervolgens de stellingen. Let goed op de milieuclaim!



In welke mate ben je het eens/oneens met de volgende stellingen?

De milieuclaim gemaakt door dit product is juist.



Ik hecht geen geloof aan de milieuclaim van dit product.



Als je denkt aan dit product, welke van de volgende statements beschrijven best uw gevoelens.

Ik vind het heel leuk
Ik vind het leuk
Neutraal
Ik vind het niet leuk
Ik vind het helemaal niet leuk

Demografics

lk ben



Wat is je leeftijd?

		0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
	Leeftij	d										
lk ben van												
O Belgi	sche national	liteit										
O Nede	rlandse natio	naliteit										
O Ande	re											

Beste Cipriana.

Je vulde de evaluatie van jouw Masterproef in op 20-5-2017 om 11:16.

Student: Cipriana Daels (01107437) Titel: The influence of brand architecture on perceived greenwashing. Should you position your company, brand or product as environmentally friendly? Promotor: Bert Weijters

Druk deze mail af en breng hem mee op het moment dat je je Masterproef indient.

mvg, Tom

Kwaliteitscel Onderwijs FPPW Tel. 09/264 64 40 Van: Bert Weijters Bert.Weijters@UGent.be & Onderwerp: RE: takenverdeling Datum: 22 mei 2017 08:51 Aan: Cipriana Daels ciprianadaels@gmail.com

Beste Cipriana,

Bij deze mijn akkoord met de taakverdeling in bijlage (het volstaat deze mail te printen en bij je Masterproef te voegen).

Groeten,

Bert Weijters FPPW - Ghent University Room 24.01.130.066 Dunantlaan 2, B9000 Ghent, Belgium bert.weijters@ugent.be

-----Original Message-----From: Cipriana Daels [mailto:ciprianadaels@gmail.com] Sent: 21 May 2017 20:08 To: Bert Weijters Subject: takenverdeling

Beste Prof.Weijters,

In bijlage vind u de takenverdeling. Ik wacht nog om het te ondertekenen tot als je het goedgekeurd aangezien dat enkel in pdf kan.

Met vriendelijke groeten, Cipriana



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