

SELF CONGRUITY VERSUS SITUATION CONGRUITY:
A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY OF SELF-CONCEPT, BRAND PERSONALITY,
AND SITUATIONAL CUES IN PERSUASION

by

YONGJUN SUNG

Under Direction the of Dr. Spencer F. Tinkham

ABSTRACT

Despite the importance of understanding of the interactions among self-concept, brand personality, and situational cues in consumer psychology and the persuasion process, relatively little work has examined how persuasive appeals can use these interactions to enhance persuasion. The current research tests two theoretical conceptualizations of the self: *stable self-concept* and *malleable self-concept* to shed further light on the role of brand personalities, consumers' self-concepts, and situational cues on the brand persuasion process. Further, these effects are tested in a set of theory-based interactions that rely on cultural difference and the self-monitoring individual difference variable. Two experimental studies are conducted in each of the two cultures: the United States and Korea. The results of two experiments demonstrate that brands with distinct personality traits that are congruent with consumers' self-concepts are evaluated more positively than brands with incongruent personality traits. Also, brands were evaluated more positively when situational cues were congruent with the personality traits of the brands than when incongruent situational cues were presented. That is, across the two

experiments, both self and situation congruity effects were strongly supported across brand personality dimensions and cultures. However, the results of the current research provide no evidence for the moderating role of self-monitoring in situation congruity effects. Regardless of individuals' levels of self-monitoring, subjects' attitudes toward brands were determined by situational cues. Together, the results of Experiments 1 and 2 provide empirical support for the premise that the self-expressive use of commercial brands is driven by both the stable and malleable (dynamic) self-concepts. The theoretical and practical contributions and implications are presented. Finally, limitations and suggestions are offered regarding future research directions.

INDEX WORDS: Brand Personality, Self-Concept, Persuasion, Brand Evaluation

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DEDICATION

To my wife and best friend, Hoonjung, with love.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Over the last several decades, there has been an increasing focus on the concept of the self among scholars in a variety of disciplines. A number of philosophers and psychologists consider the self-concept a powerful regulator of many aspects of human behavior and an important driver of how individuals perceive others (Cross and Madson 1997). Social psychologists suggest that there is an interdependent relationship between self-knowledge and perception of others, and emphasize the importance of the self/other relationship in the perception process. Markus, Smith, and Moreland (1985) provide a thorough review of how the mutual and reciprocal influence between the self-concept and perception of others was conceptualized by early theorists, and later reaffirmed by social psychologists who documented the importance of the self/other relation in perceptions.

In consumer research, understanding the self-concept is important because many consumer attitudes and behaviors (e.g., attitude formation, brand choice, purchase and decision making processes) are significantly influenced by the images consumers have of themselves. Levy (1959) noted that consumer behaviors are significantly influenced by the symbols used to identify goods in the marketplace. That is, consumers buy brands that express and develop their self-concepts and images. Following the ideas of Levy, a number of self-concept models were proposed to explain and predict the role of self-concept in consumer behavior (e.g., Birdwell 1968; Dolich 1969; Grubb and Hupp 1968; Hamm and Cundiff 1969). Overall results of these

studies have been supportive of a positive relationship between self (or ideal) self-concepts and consumers' purchase decisions.

Sirgy (1982) reviewed the importance of self-concept to consumer behavior research by discussing self-concept theory and summarizing theoretical perspectives and empirical findings. As Sirgy (1982) noted, one general approach to self-concept research in consumer behavior involves brand image as it relates to the self-concept of consumers. Consumer researchers have tried to examine the extent to which an image of a brand is associated with the consumer's self image (e.g., Belch and Landon 1977; Landon 1974). Other work has suggested that consumers use brands to create, reinforce, and communicate their self-concepts (Belk 1988; Escalas and Bettman 2003; Kleine, Kleine, and Allen 1995; Sirgy 1982; Solomon 1983). Thus, it can be argued that consumers' conscious personalities such as self-concept might be defined through the brands they purchase and use.

Considerable research in consumer psychology has examined the self-expressive role of consumer brands (e.g., Aaker 1999; Belk 1988; Birdwell 1968; Gardner and Levy 1955; Kassirjian 1971; Landon 1974; Levy 1959; Sirgy 1982). As Aaker (1999) noted, the motivating paradigm was that consumers were thought to prefer brands with images or personalities that were congruent with their self-concepts (often called *self congruity* or *self-concept/product-image congruity theory*). Consumers tend to buy a brand because they feel that the brand is consistent with their self-images and personalities. Similarly, consumers may not buy a brand if they believe that its image or personality is not consistent with their perceptions of themselves (Heath and Scott 1998).

Although the results of previous empirical studies have generally been supportive of a congruity hypothesis, this intuitive premise lacks complete empirical support. As Sirgy (1982)

argued, the primary reason for the limited validation of self concept and brand-image congruity is the conceptualization and testing of the self-concept as a single variable or unitary construct (e.g., actual self-concept). The underlying assumption of previous research was that consumers have a stable self-concept and their set of personality traits remains invariant across social situations (Aaker 1999). However, a considerable amount of research has conceptualized self-concept as having more than one component. For example, researchers have argued that self-concept should be treated as having dual dimensions: an actual and an ideal self-concept (e.g., Belch 1978; Belch and Landon 1977). Sirgy (1982) expands the self-concept construct to include actual, ideal, social, and ideal social self-image.

Similarly, in the social psychology and self-concept literatures, two contradictory aspects of the self have emerged: *stability* and *malleability* of the self (Markus and Kunda 1986). In fact, throughout the history of psychology, there has been ongoing debate over the relative stability versus malleability of the self (Strauman 1996). Previous research on the self in social psychology regards it as a stable, enduring, generalized, or average view of one's self, suggesting that self-concept resists change and maintains stability across situations (e.g., Allport 1937; Markus 1977; Swann and Read 1981). The basic premise of the stable-self theory is that individuals strive to resolve inconsistent psychological experiences. However, the self is also regarded as malleable and fluid depending upon different social environments and situations (Markus and Kunda 1986). That is, different selves tend to emerge in different social situations.

The objective of this research is to test two theoretical conceptualizations of the self: stable self-concept and malleable (or dynamic) self-concept to shed further light on the role of brand personalities and consumers' self-concepts in persuasion and in their decision making process. Furthermore, the current research considers the impact of situational cues on the brand

persuasion process. Despite the importance of understanding the interactions among self-concept, brand personality, and situational cues in consumer psychology and the persuasion process, relatively little work has examined how persuasive appeals can use these interactions to enhance persuasion (Wheeler, Petty, and Bizer 2005). Although researchers have assumed that consumers use commercial brands to express and communicate their self-concepts, as noted by Aaker (1999), few have found empirical support for this seemingly intuitive premise. Drawing upon recent advances in the theoretical conceptualization of, and the literature on, self-concept, the present study extends previous research and makes theoretical contributions to the role of self-concept and brand personality.

To explore the premise of self-concept/brand personality congruity (referred to here as “self congruity”), this study examines and empirically tests the relationship between symbolic consumption and consumer choice, and more importantly the impact of social situational influences (referred to here as “situation congruity”) on consumers’ evaluation and choice of commercial brands. In addition, this relationship is explored in cross-cultural settings. Previous cross-cultural studies provide evidence that the nature and structure of the self is more discrepant than assumed across cultures. Researchers have showed that individuals in other cultures, such as East Asian cultures, construct a self that is much more interdependent or relational than those constructed in individualistic cultures such as European American culture (Markus and Kitayama 1991; Triandis 1989). As noted by Singelies (1994), collectivist cultures encourage the development of cognitions that refer to a group or collective, whereas individualist cultures nurture the growth of cognitions that refer to the individual’s traits and states. Consistent with the interest in cultural differences, the current research test self congruity and situation congruity in the U.S. as well as in Korea as an exemplar of one of the East Asian cultures. Thus, this research

provides theoretical insight into the cultural differences involved in the psychological process of constructing the self, as well as the role of the self and brand personality in forming brand preferences.

Two experimental studies are conducted to test the proposed hypotheses across two cultures: the United States and Korea. Experiment 1 is conducted in the United States and Korea with six real apparel and watch brands identified from a series of pilot studies. The same methods and design employed in Experiment 1 are used in Experiment 2 across two cultures, but with a set of fictitious brands created for the current research.

CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

Self-Concept

In social psychology, the self-concept provides a framework for the perception and organization of the self as well as for comprehending the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of others (Markus, Smith and Moreland 1985). That is, how we perceive and understand our own and others' behaviors is particularly influenced by our own self-concept.

There are a number of views and definitions of the self. For example, self-concept has been defined as “the totality of an individual’s thought and feeling having reference to himself as an object” (Rosenberg 1979, 7). It involves reflected appraisal (e.g., others’ perceptions of the self), self-attribution (e.g., inference from own behavior), and psychological centrality (e.g., hierarchical organization of different self-concepts) (Rosenberg 1979; Sirgy 1982). Markus, Smith, and Moreland (1985) defined the self-concept as a set of self-schemas that organize past experiences and are used to recognize and interpret relevant stimuli in the social environment. The term self-schema refers to the “cognitive generalization about the self, derived from past experience that organizes and guides the processing of self-related information contained in the individual’s social experiences” (Markus 1977, 64). This generalization process helps an individual to understand the particular features of his/her disposition and behavior (Markus, Smith and Moreland 1977).

In the present study, the structures of self-knowledge that represent an individual's personalities (e.g., having a sophisticated personality or a rugged personality) are called self-schemas. For example, if an individual has a given personality (e.g., glamorous or tough) and believes that this personality is of critical personal importance, these will produce a self-schema for a sophisticated or rugged personality. In contrast, individuals without a self-schema for particular personality traits or dimensions can be categorized as aschematic for that specific characteristic. Markus (1977) noted that aschematic individuals do not recognize their personality and do not assign personal importance on it. Previous empirical studies have found a systematic influence of self-schema in how individuals organize and use information and knowledge about the self.

In the marketing literature, the role of self-concept has been investigated in a number of contexts, such as brand perception and choice (Birdwell 1968; Dolchi 1969; Grubb and Hupp 1968; Hamm and Cundiff 1969), purchase intention (Birdwell 1968; Landon 1974), advertising perception (Markus 1977), and advertising effectiveness (Hong and Zinkhan 1995). Although there are a number of self-concept studies in the consumer behavior literature, many tend to discuss self-concept as a single variable and conceptualize it as either the actual or ideal self-concept (Sirgy 1982). Sirgy (1982, p. 288) noted that "there is ambiguity and confusion on the precise conceptualization of self-concept in the consumer behavior literature." However, all of the self-representations that comprise the self-concept differ in terms of their origins, importance, functions, and reflection. Some are core conceptions, more important and more positive than others, while others are more peripheral conceptions, less important and more negative than others (Markus and Wurf 1987). In this vein, self-concept has been conceptualized as having more than one component.

Over the years, psychologists have long been fascinated with the concept of self and identified different facets of the self-concept or self-image. A review of the literature on the self suggests that it can be conceptualized in several different ways, such as the type of person individuals would like to be (e.g., Higgins 1987; Markus and Nurius 1986; Strauman 1996), the type of person that others believe they ought to be like (e.g., Higgins 1987; Strauman 1996), social ideal self involving individuals' beliefs about others' hopes, goals, and aspiration for them (e.g., Piers and Singers 1971), feared self (e.g., Markus and Nurius 1986), possible selves (e.g., Cantor et al 1986; Markus and Nurius 1986), and fantasy selves (e.g., Freud 1961; Levinson 1978). To better understand different domains and constructs of the self, the following discussion focuses on the actual-self, desired (ideal and ought) self, and possible self.

Domains of the Self-Representations

In the social psychology and consumer behavior literatures, self-concept has generally been viewed as a multidimensional concept. People commonly use the term “self” to refer to representation of the *actual* self and this is often referred to as the self-concept (Higgins 1996). The actual self represents the attributes that oneself and significant others believe the person actually possesses (Higgins 1987). Therefore, the actual self is one's own beliefs about one's own stable properties as a distinct object. This has received more attention than any other form of self (Higgins 1996) and most conceptions of the self-schema have focused on the actual self (Hewitt and Genest 1990).

Another type of self is the *desired* self. In psychology, many different types of desired selves have been identified (see Higgins 1996 for more discussion). One conception of the desired self is the *ideal* self which has been described as sets of attributes that individuals and

their significant others would like them, ideally, to possess, representing someone's hopes, aspirations, or wishes for an individual (Higgins 1987). Rogers (1961) distinguished the ideal self from the self that other people believed a person should be normatively. The latter can be called the *ought* self which is the domain of self representing the attributes and characteristics that someone (self or other) believes you should or ought to have such as sense of duty, obligations, or responsibilities (Higgins 1983; Strauman 1996). Higgins's (1987, 1996) self-discrepancy theory expands on the distinction by proposing two dimensions underlying desired selves: (a) domain of desired self – ideal self versus ought self, and (2) standpoint on desired self – own vs. other. Since ideal and ought self constitute significant standards for self-evaluation, the attributes of both selves are referred to as self-guides (Strauman 1996).

Further, Markus and Nurius (1986) explored the concept of *possible* selves and suggested that these future-oriented self-conceptions originate from representation of the self in the past as well as in the future and differ from the actual selves. Similarly, Cantor et al. (1986) proposed that individuals are guided by their future representations which reflect individuals' perceived potential. Markus and Nurius (1986) defined possible selves as representations of the selves the person could become, would like to become, or is afraid of becoming. Since possible selves build a bridge between the actual self and the desired state through the processes of anticipation and stimulation, if individuals create more vivid and elaborate possible selves as a preparation for a performance, they will perform better than they would with less elaborate possible selves (Cross and Markus 1994). As Cantor et al. (1986) argued, motivation does not reside outside the self-concept but is derived from self knowledge that represents an individual's potential, desires or values. Therefore, possible selves can be seen as type of desirable (or undesirable) selves and can function like reference points (Higgins 1996).

According to self-discrepancy theory (Higgins 1987, 1989), individuals are motivated to ensure that their actual state matches with their ideal or ought states. A self-discrepancy is a cognitive structure that represents a psychological situation. The self-discrepancy theory proposes that a discrepancy between an actual self and a self-guide results in a specific negative affective state and that there are individual differences in which self-guide a person is especially motivated to meet (Higgins 1987, 1989). For example, a discrepancy between actual self and ideal self results in the absence of a positive emotional outcome such as dissatisfaction, disappointment, and sadness whereas a discrepancy between actual and ought self represents the presence of a negative emotional outcome such as fear, apprehension, and edginess (Higgins et al. 1986; Strauman 1996). Previous empirical studies (e.g., Higgins et al 1986; Strauman 1989, 1992; Strauman and Higgins 1987) have demonstrated that the level of emotional impact (e.g., negative or positive states) can be influenced by the degree of discrepancy (or congruency) the individual currently possesses.

Congruity Hypothesis in Interpersonal Relationships

Early social psychologists Krech and Crutchfield (1948, 69) noted that “the nature of the relationships of the self to other parts of the field – to other objects, to people, to groups, to social organizations – is of critical importance in understanding the individual’s perception of a connection between various objects, individuals, and groups and himself.” Across a variety of populations and many different manipulations of similarity, numerous studies have found that during interpersonal interaction, people are not only more attracted to others who are perceived to share their personality, but they also tend to be more influenced by them as well (Ajzen 1974; Byrne 1971; Byrne and Griffitt 1969; Clore and Baldridge 1968; Monotoya and Horton 2004).

The most well-accepted theoretical explanation for the so-called “similarity effect” is based on a distinct social psychological dynamic: that is, similarity is hypothesized to be emotionally rewarding because it provides socially-based reassurance and self-confirmation with respect to one’s self-concept (Byrne 1971). Social psychologists have found that individuals tend to be more responsive to individuals who share their personality characteristics and have designated this linear association as the *law of attraction* (Byrne and Nelson 1965). Studies in this area have demonstrated that people are not only more attracted to similar “others,” but they also tend to be more influenced by them as well (Byrne and Nelson 1965). That is, an individual seeks for his acquaintances (e.g., friends) those whose attitudes are similar to those of him or her because it provides some evidence for the validity of his views. Validating the self view (by discovering similarity between one’s own constructs and another’s) would lead to attraction (Duck 1973).

Byrne (1971), using a reinforcement framework, proposes a model in which evaluative responses are a function of reinforcing stimuli (e.g., similar attitudes) associated with conditioned stimuli and provides some evidence for the attractiveness of similarity, presumably because one’s views of the world are validated, and because shared beliefs result in fewer disagreements and conflicts (Byrne 1971). Previous research on interpersonal relationships has suggested that both dominant and submissive individuals tend to be more responsive to people who share their personalities (Byrne 1971; Duck 1973; Griffitt 1969). In fact, these studies tested the similarity-attraction hypothesis based on the actual self.

More recent research, however, suggested that the ideal self (vs. the actual self) should be the basis of the similarity-attraction relationship (LaPrelle et al. 1990; Wetzel and Insko 1982). That is, individuals tend to be attracted to people who they find to be the most desirable (i.e., the

person they want to be) rather than the person they actually are (Herbst, Gaertner and Insko 2003; LaPrelle et al. 1990). For example, LaPrelle et al. (1990) found that the similarity-attraction relationship was stronger for the ideal self than the actual self and that the actual self was associated with attraction only when participants' actual selves are similar to their ideal selves. Similarly, Wetzel and Insko (1982) tested the relationship between the ideal-self and attraction and found a consistent main effect for similarity to the ideal self but not a main effect to the actual self. Finally, in their recent experiment, Herbst, Gaertner and Insko (2003) replicated the results of previous research and found that participant's attraction to the partner increased as the partners similarity to their ideal selves increased. However, they found a decrease in evaluative attraction when the partner surpassed the participant's ideal self in a more extreme way, suggested that the actual and ideal selves are confounded on attitudinal dimensions.

Objects as Extended Self

There seems little doubt that the self-concept plays a significant role in the perception of others and interpersonal relationships. As noted, however, the role the self-concept plays in the perception of others is not limited to people but can be extended to such objects as institutions, social organizations, messages, and commercial brands. For example, Moon (2002) found that messages are more effective at generating attitude change when the presentation styles match the personality of the recipient. In addition, research has shown that commercial brands can be associated with personality traits (Aaker 1997) and that individuals often form and maintain preferences toward particular brands that are reflective of themselves in nature. Consumer researchers have demonstrated that individuals use consumer brands to communicate their self-

concepts (Aaker 1999, Belk 1988; Escalas and Bettman 2003; Kleine, Kleine and Allen 1995; Shavitt 1990; Sirgy 1982).

As noted by Belk (1988), it is necessary for consumer researchers to understand the meaning that consumers attach to possessions, such as commercial brands, to get better insight into consumer behaviors. There is considerable empirical evidence supporting the human tendency to attribute human personality characteristics to nonhuman entities such as animals (Belk 1988; Hirschman 1994), automobiles (Levy, 1985), and computers (Deane 1993; Weizenbaum 1976). For instance, animals play utilitarian and aesthetic roles in consumers' lives such as ornaments, status symbols, and accessories (Hirschman 1994). Animals also act as extensions of the consumer's self. Savishinsky (1986, p. 120) posits that, to the extent that pets are ego extensions, a person's choice of an animal is an act of self-definition. In this regard, animals are seen to reflect the owner's self, personality, and characteristics, suggesting that a relationship between personality and choice of pets exists (Kidd and Kidd 1980; Secord 1968). Consumers and their animal companions commonly develop a mutually evolving relationship that defines their lives together. This suggests that they can communicate in subtle, nonverbal ways grounded in mutual understanding and experience (Hirschman 1994).

Three decades ago, Weizenbaum (1976) characterized computers as not just objects, but personified intelligence. He described computers as follows: "(They are) bright young men of disheveled appearance, often with sunken glowing eyes...They work until they nearly drop, twenty, thirty hours at a time. Their food, if they arrange it, is brought to them: coffee, Cokes, sandwiches" (Weizenbaum 1976, p. 116). Since the computer can convincingly stimulate human conversation, it is not surprising that operators of computers should act at times as if the computer were truly another person (Schiebe and Erwin 1979).

The preceding discussion has presented some evidence supporting the human tendency to ascribe human characteristics to a nonhuman entity. In some instances, consumers have difficulty in articulating the different images they hold, especially when discussing competitive brands. As Levy (1985) noted, however, by relating the brand to other people, consumers can be helped to express their impression of the brand. Therefore, although the anthropomorphic qualities are most commonly associated with living creatures (e.g., animals), consumer can also imbue brands (e.g., automobiles or boats) with human personality traits (Aaker 1997; Levy 1985). Because brands acquire symbolic meaning, they can add meaning to the consumer's life through their status as partners in a relationship (Caprara, Barbaranelli and Guido 2001). It is reasonable to suggest that the brands consumers use, own, and surround themselves with might quite accurately reflect aspects of their personalities (Csikszentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton 1981).

Brand Personality and Consumer-Brand Connections

The notion that inanimate objects such as commercial brands can become associated with human characteristics has been given a considerable amount of attention in consumer behavior research. This symbolic meaning brands acquire is often called *brand personality*, defined as “the set of human characteristics associated with a brand” (Aaker 1997). For example, a brand can be described by such characteristics as gender, age, social class, and lifestyle as well as such classic human personality traits as rugged (e.g., Harley Davidson), formal (e.g., IBM), up-to-date (e.g., Samsung), and sophisticated (e.g., Mercedes Benz). Thus, it seems reasonable to say that human personality characteristics can be applied to commercial brands and that human personality is a viable metaphor to understand how consumers perceive the images of commercial brands (Caprara, Barbaranelli, and Guido 2001). Recently, the applications of human personality models

(e.g., Big Five Model) to marketing and consumer behavior settings have appeared (Aaker 1997, 1999; Sung and Tinkham 2005; Aaker, Benet-Martinez, and Garolera 2001; Caprara, Barbaranelli, and Guido 2001). Brand personality and human personality are not completely analogous, however. For instance, while human personality traits may have not only an implicit component but also an actual component that is independent of the perceiver's characterization of the individuals who possess them, brand personality traits do not have actual (objective) components independent of a consumer's perception of them. Instead, it is a hypothetical construct developed by the consumer (Sung and Tinkham 2005).

From the viewpoint of advertisers, the concept of brand personality is very important for several reasons. Since advertising is a form of symbolic communication about the brand, it is a particularly appropriate method to transfer symbolic meaning by bringing the consumer good and a representation of the culturally constituted world together within the frame of an advertisement (McCracken 1986). Thus, advertisers view a brand personality as an efficient way to distinguish the brand from its competitors, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of advertising marketing efforts. Further, it is a central driver for positive attitude and preference for the brand (Biel 1993) and an efficient way of creating and building a bond with the consumer (Sung and Tinkham 2005). Thus, advertising researchers and practitioners have suggested the importance of brand personality in persuasion process (e.g., Biel 1993; Ogilvy 1983; Plummer 1985).

Aaker (1997) conducted extensive research to determine that consumers do assign personalities to brands and developed a theoretical framework of brand personality structure by identifying five dimensions of brand personality: *Sincerity*, *Excitement*, *Competence*, *Sophistication*, and *Ruggedness*. Based on the results of both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, she found that three of the brand personality dimensions (sincerity, excitement, and

competence) resemble three human personality dimensions (agreeableness, extroversion, and competence) that are present in psychology's big-five human personality model (Aaker 1997). Additional study (Aaker, Benet-Martinez, and Garolera 2001) replicated previous work across three cultures: Japan, Spain, and the U.S. They identified a set of brand personality dimensions that share similar meanings as well as relatively culture-specific dimensions: Peacefulness (Japan) and Passion (Spain). More recent study (Sung and Tinkham 2005) observed six common dimensions of brand personality in the U.S. and Korea using a set of global brands. Further, they observed two factors unique to each culture. The two culture-specific factors emerged were Passive Likeableness and Ascendancy in Korea and White Collar and Androgyny in the U.S. Their findings suggest that brand personality structure carries cultural meaning, reflecting the importance of Confucian values in Korea and cultural values associated with occupational status and gender roles in the U.S.

Consumers use brands to create and communicate their self-concepts. The association between their self-concepts and brand personality is an important factor for creating brand equity and for maintaining long-term consumer-brand relationships (Keller 1993). As proposed by Escalas and Bettman (2003), consumers use brands to meet self-needs and they form connections between their self-concepts and brand personalities, referred to as self-brand connections. They suggest that consumers value the psychological brand benefits they can get from associating with brands because consumers can construct and define their self-concept and present themselves to others in a variety of social contexts (Escalas and Bettman 2003). By employing two different self-motives (e.g., self-enhancement and self-verification), Escalas and Bettman (2003) show that brands used by member groups and aspiration groups can become connected to consumers' mental representations of self as they use brands to define and create their self-concepts. For

example, they found that individuals, for self-enhancement purposes, tend to manage their presentations of self (e.g., possible selves) to maximize positive image in social interactions. Thus, consumers' behaviors will be directed toward the protection and enhancement of their self-concept (Grubb and Grathwohl 1967). In addition, to verify their current self-conceptions, they often seek out situations and adopt behavioral strategies that are consistent with their present self-conceptions (e.g., actual self) (Escalas and Bettman 2003), suggesting that consumers' predominant self-goals (i.e., self-enhancement vs. self-verification) determines which type of reference groups' brand use will have the most influence on self-brand connections.

In sum, consumers' behaviors are not only functionally oriented but also significantly influenced by symbolic goods such as brands which communicate their self-concepts (Levy 1959). Consumers purchase and use commercial brands for self-expressive purposes in a variety of situations. Consumers tend to appropriate associations belonging to brands such as brand images, brand personality traits, and user characteristics, and incorporate them into their self-concepts (Chaplin and John 2005). The consumer's sense of identify or self-concept would be maintained and developed through the associations of such symbolic goods (Heath and Scott 1998).

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Self-Concept and Brand-Personality Congruity

More than four decades ago, researchers proposed that consumers tend to prefer products with images which are congruent with their self-image (e.g., Birdwell 1968; Dolich 1969; Douglas et al. 1967; Gardner and Levy 1955; Levy 1959; Sirgy 1982). For example, using a semantic differential scale, Birdwell (1968) found that self-image was more congruent with a car brand consumers owned than with the other brands and that the congruity effects were stronger for luxury cars than for economy cars. The main premise was that consumers are likely to prefer brands with images or personalities that are congruent with self-images and self-concepts (Sirgy 1982). Self-concept and consumer behavior theorists suggest that the greater the congruity between the human characteristics that consistently and distinctively describe an individual's either actual self or ideal self and those that describe a brand, the greater the preference for the brand (see, Sirgy 1982, for summary and discussion), suggesting that consumers' attitudes are correlated with the congruity between self-image and brand-image. That is, the greater the congruity between self-concept and brand image or personality (self congruity), the greater the likelihood that the brand will satisfy a consumer (Heath and Scott 1998) because consumers tend to use brands to express themselves.

This self congruity hypothesis is based on the premise that individuals have a tendency to make inferences about others based on their choices of objects, such as commercial brands (Belk,

Bahn, and Mayer 1982). For example, consumers have more extreme attitudes toward brands that help them to express their selves (Grubb and Hupp 1968; Sirgy 1982). Further, as proposed by the self congruity hypothesis, a product or brand is used as an instrument in enhancing self-concept through projecting socially attributed meanings of the brand to oneself. This self-enhancement depends upon the brand being a publicly recognized symbol (Belk, Bahn, and Mayer 1982). In short, individuals are likely to use brands that share similar traits and characteristics to maintain their self-concepts and to express something about themselves.

Although self congruity was supported in a number of empirical studies and well documented in the consumer psychology literature (e.g., Birdwell 1969; Green, Maheshwari, and Rao 1969; Grubb and Hupp 1968), this premise met with limited empirical evidence and some criticism. For example, considering the multi-dimensional nature of the self (e.g., actual self, ideal self, ought self, possible self), previous self congruity research was not successful in providing strong empirical support to confirm the relationship between self-image/product image congruity and consumer choices such as product preference, purchase intention, and loyalty (Aaker 1999; Sirgy 1982). For example, Hughes and Guerrero (1971) and Green et al. (1969) failed to support the relationship between actual self-concept/product-image congruity and product preference, intention, usage, and loyalty. Similarly, Landon (1974) provided no support for the premise that ideal versus actual self-concept predicts brand preference better. Further, the relationship between social self-image/product image congruity and consumer behavior was not been strongly supported by Samli and Sirgy (1981).

Further, although a number of studies in the self congruity literature have hypothesized and argued for a causal type of relationship between congruity effects and product-image perceptions, such causal predictions and inferences are not valid because the studies provided

correlational data (e.g., Hamm and Cundiff 1969; Landon 1972; Mason and Mayer 1970). Furthermore, the relationship between congruity effects and product-image perceptions can be very much affected by the consumer's egocentricity (Sirgy 1982). Despite a number of self-concept models being proposed to explain and predict consumer behavior as a function of self-concept and product-image congruity, the proliferation of self-concept constructs (e.g., actual self, ideal self, expected self) decreases the ability of researchers to explain and predict the nature of the interrelationship between the self-concept and brand personality on consumer behavior. Further, as Sirgy (1982) criticized, most self-concept studies in consumer research are not clear on what theoretical support the congruency hypothesis is based on. Although previous studies referred to many self theories in social psychology (e.g., social comparison theory, self-efficacy theory, self-presentation theory), much work is still needed to generate theories, constructs, and models to explain consumer self-concept effects on consumer choice (Sirgy 1982). In the following section, two theoretical constructs (stable self theory vs. malleable self theory) which provide alternative explanations for the congruity hypothesis are discussed. The discussion of two competing theories of the self provides an explanation for why validation of the self-expressive use of brands has remained elusive in consumer research. It also provides a theoretical rationale for the hypotheses developed in the current study.

Stable Self Theory

Previous research on self in the social psychology literature proposes that people have a stable, enduring, generalized, or average view of the self, suggesting that self-concept resists change and maintains stability across situations (e.g., Allport 1937; Markus 1977; Swann and Read 1981). In fact, most empirical self-concept research has focused only on the stable aspect

of the self (Markus and Kunda 1986), with the enduring behavioral dispositions of the self mainly discussed by trait personality theorists (e.g., Briggs 1992; McCrae and Costa 1989, 1997; McCrae and John 1992) who emphasized that consistency plays a central role in personality theory and assumed that consistency is the foremost expression of personality (Shoda 1998).

Early personality psychologists suggested that individuals strive to resolve inconsistent psychological experiences and try to develop and maintain a consistent identity (e.g., Lecky 1945; Maslow 1954; Rogers 1951). For instance, Rogers (1951) suggested that an individual will achieve psychological well-being after resolving incongruent internal experience and emphasized the consistent self-view across situations. To reduce negative experiences such as anxiety, tension, and confusion that are all caused by a lack of consistency, early personality psychologists suggested that the self-concept should be internally consistent and be consistent across situations (Suh 2002).

Trait personality theorists also have suggested that individuals are assumed to possess personality dispositions that are relatively stable, consistent, and expressed over time, situations, and social roles (see Mischel 1998, for an in-depth discussion). For instance, in his longitudinal study, McCrae (1993) confirms the view that personality traits are extremely stable in adulthood and suggests that individual change scores appear to be largely errors of measurement. Further, in a study exploring the cross-situational consistency of behavior, Funder and Colvin (1991) found that individuals still manage to keep their distinctive styles of behaviors across situations although situations profoundly affect what people do. This perspective of self-concept suggests that to be true to oneself is to behave consistently based on one's own latent personality traits. Therefore, individuals look for stability and resist any change that challenges their view of themselves (Markus and Kunda 1986). Previous empirical studies found that individuals tend to

ignore or reject views or behaviors which are discrepant from their own self-concepts (e.g., Greenwald 1980; Markus 1977; Swann 1985).

More recent research on self-verification theory (Swann 1983; Swann and Read 1981) provides empirical support for the importance of consistency as a foundation of psychological well-being. Swann and his colleagues found that individuals try to verify and maintain their existing self-concepts in social contexts and interact with people who see them as they view themselves and provide feedback that is congruent with their self-views (Swann 1983; Swann and Read 1981; Swann, de la Ronde, and Hixon 1994). Similarly, a number of studies provide empirical evidence that identity consistency is an important psychological variable that predicts well-being (Donahue et al. 1993; Roberts and Donahue 1994; Sheldon et al. 1997). For example, Donahue et al. (1993) found that individuals were more depressed than others if they viewed themselves as behaving highly inconsistently across social situations and roles. Sheldon et al. (1997) found that self-concept consistency is significantly associated with psychological thriving.

In sum, the view of a stable self-concept suggests that the self is a stable and enduring structure which is quite unresponsive to variations in social situations (Markus and Kunda 1986). Consistent with the theories proposed by personality psychologists (e.g., Lecky 1945; McCrae and Costa 1989; McCrae and John 1992; Rogers 1951), a number of empirical studies support that the self-concept is a stable and enduring view of the self and that individuals try to sustain self-views that are consistent across different social situations and roles. As noted by Suh (2002), however, this powerful theory and premise should be questioned as to whether identity consistency and stability is a universally essential condition of psychological well-being. For example, consistency is emphasized in Western cultures whereas behavioral consistency is less emphasized and salient in East Asian cultures, suggesting that East Asians and Westerners

construe the self in somewhat different manners. Further, even within Western cultures, this monolithic and unitary view of self has been criticized due to its focus on stability or consistency, neglecting the importance of social-contextual influences on personality (McAdams 1992). The alternative view of the self, malleable (dynamic) self theory (Markus and Kunda 1986), and its empirical support are discussed in the following section.

Malleable (Dynamic) Self Theory

Some social psychologists have suggested that the self-concept is not a unitary and monolithic entity. As noted by Markus and Kunda (1986), different selves appear to emerge in different social environments and situations. For example, one's attitudes and behaviors when teaching in a classroom as a teacher are different from those when one is interacting with high school friends in a local sports bar. Similarly, one may intend to show rugged and tough personality traits when leaving for a weekend trip on his Harley-Davidson motorcycle, while he actually perceives himself as a very intelligent and sophisticated business person (Aaker 1999). Based on this malleable self concept, Markus and Kunda (1986, p. 859) proposed that "although the self-concept is in some respects quite stable, this stability can mask significant local variations that arise when the individual responds systematically to events in the social environment."

Over the last two decades, there has been a steady stream of research suggesting that the self structure is an active one and is a multiplicity of identities (Markus and Kunda 1986; Rosenberg 1979). They recognized these multiple aspects of the self and described the self-concept as consistent but also as fluid (Rogers 1951). In this sense the self-concept can be viewed as having a dynamic interpretive structure – as active, forceful, and capable of change

(Markus and Wurf 1987), suggesting that individuals do not always dispose themselves in accord with their stable selves or personality traits. Rather, they change their attitudes or behaviors from situation to situation to express themselves. In fact, as noted by Funder and Colvin (1991), previous empirical studies that have addressed behavioral consistency, which is regarded as an essential attribute of personality, have offered limited results. More empirical studies provide evidence that the self should be viewed as more contextual and dynamic, suggesting that the self is a product of specific situations (see Funder 1983, 1994; Jackson and Paunonen 1985; Mischel and Peake 1983). They suggested that the specific characteristics of a social situation will determine the individual's choice of self (e.g., actual self, ideal self, ought self) to express.

Further, the dynamic (or malleable) view of the self helps us to understand and explain cultural differences in how individuals view and construe themselves across cultures. For instance, Koreans (East Asian culture) tend to construe themselves more flexibly across different social situations than Americans (Western culture), making the degree of consistency less predictive of subjective well being in Korean (Suh 2002). That is, the East Asian self-view appears to be more malleable across social situations and roles, suggesting that East Asians are less concerned about cognitively dissonant situations than are North Americans (Heine and Lehman 1997). In contrast, it is critical for individuals in Western cultures to maintain and express their stable and consistent selves that are mandated and expected by social norms. As noted by Suh (2002), although cognitive dissonance theory and its explanations are certainly valid, it leaves open the question of its underestimation of the role of social and cultural factors in explaining why and the extent to which individuals try to be stable and consistent.

As noted by Aaker (1999), one of the advantages of conceptualizing the self as a dynamic construct is the ability to integrate the multiple aspects of selves. Over the last few decades,

researchers have generated several different constructs of the self (e.g., actual self, ideal self, social self, ought self, private self, and so on) to explain consumer self-concept effects on consumer choice (Sirgy 1982). Considering the multidimensionality of the self-concept, as Markus and Wurf (1987) noted, it may not be feasible to refer to the self-concept any more. Some psychologists and sociologists (e.g., Cantor and Kihlstrom 1986; Markus and Nurius 1986; Schlenker 1985) suggested the term “the working self-concept” or “the self-concept of the moment,” is best viewed as a continually active self-knowledge because not all self-representations that are part of the complete self-concept will be accessible at any one time (Markus and Wurf 1987).

In the perspective of the working self-concept, although the self-concept is viewed as a somewhat stable and enduring perception of the self at any given moment, this stability can be significantly changed or varied when individuals react and respond to a variety of social situations (Markus and Kunda 1986). For example, recent research by Aaker (1999) suggested that individuals exhibit a preference for brands that are congruent with their own self-schemata and the schemata appropriate for different social situations. Further, they came to realize that the function of the self-concept depends on self-motives (e.g., self-monitoring) as well as social situations (Aaker 1999; Markus and Wurf 1987). In the following section, discussions of the concept, definition, and previous empirical research on self-monitoring are provided. The current study explores the moderating role of self-monitoring in determining the effectiveness of persuasions that are compatible with the self-concept or with the social situation.

Self-Monitoring

Individuals vary widely in expressive control. Some people are better than others in expressing or controlling their attitudes and behaviors such as facial expressions, hand gestures, body posture, voice textures, and other expressions (Gangestad and Snyder 2000). Understanding individual differences in self expressive control is very important in explaining how social interactions and interpersonal relationships are regulated by expressive behaviors (e.g., brand choice and preference). One theory of expressive control is self-monitoring theory, first introduced more than three decades ago (Snyder 1974, 1987). The theory of self-monitoring concerns the antecedents and consequences of variation in the extent to which individuals strategically cultivate public appearances (Gangestad and Snyder 1991, 2000).

Self-monitoring is defined as the extent to which people “can and do exercise control over their verbal and nonverbal self-presentation” (Snyder 1979, p. 88). Self-monitoring theory suggests that individuals differ meaningfully on the extent to which they choose to control their expressive behavior and self-presentation (Snyder and Gangestad 1986; Gangestad and Snyder 2000). Since its formulation, the psychological construct of self-monitoring has been a central concept in the studies of social interaction. Self-monitoring theory divides individuals into two different groups: high self-monitoring and low self-monitoring groups based on how individuals guide their self-presentation (Snyder 1974).

High self-monitors will behave in response to a specific social and interpersonal situation. Since they are concerned with the situational appropriateness of their self expressive self-presentation, they tend to monitor their expressive behavior and will regulate their self-presentation for the sake of desired public appearance (Gangestad and Snyder 2000). Thus, they often change and tailor their attitudes and behaviors to fit social and interpersonal considerations

of situational appropriateness (Lippa 1976) and often show situation-to-situation shifts in the images they convey to others (Shaffer, Smith and Tomarelli 1982; Snyder and DeBono 1985). High self-monitors are willing and able to project their images to impress others in different social situations and believe the appearances they create can become social realities (Gangestad and Snyder 2000).

By contrast, low self-monitors, those who engage in less expressive control and are not as concerned with what is or is not appropriate, will behave consistently across situations and interpersonal relationships. They do not have either the ability or the motivation to regulate their self-presentations (Snyder 1974), suggesting that their expressive behaviors are not controlled by deliberate attempts to appear situationally appropriate, but by their own inner attitudes, feelings, and dispositions. Low self-monitors typically do not attempt to change their attitudes and behaviors to fit situational and interpersonal considerations (Gangestad and Snyder 2000). Thus, they tend to show consistency between their inner attitudes and their actual behavior in a variety of social contexts (Snyder and Swann 1976). In sum, low self-monitoring individuals will behave more in accordance with their personality traits, while high self-monitors will behave more in response to situational cues (Becherer and Richard 1978).

Over the last three decades, the theory and construct of self-monitoring has captured the interests of social psychologists, personality theorists, and other social science researchers. A number of studies have provided empirical support for the cognitive, behavioral, and interpersonal consequences of self-monitoring (e.g., Becherer and Richard 1978; Snyder 1974; Snyder, Berscheid, and Glick 1985; Snyder and Cantor 1980; Snyder and Simpson 1984). The literature on self-monitoring and its applications can be found in a number of domains of social behavior and interpersonal relationships such as expressive control (e.g., Snyder 1974), the

correspondence between private attitudes and public actions (DeBono and Omoto 1993; Snyder and Swann 1976), the nature of friendships (e.g., Snyder and Smith 1986), romantic and sexual relationships (e.g., Snyder and Simpson 1984; Snyder, Simpson and Gangestad 1986), evaluations of product quality (e.g., DeBono and Snyder 1989), and applications to the psychology of advertising (e.g., Shavitt, Lowrey, and Han 1992; Snyder and DeBono 1985).

For example, a number of studies on interpersonal relationships have suggested that high and low self-monitors adopt different relationship orientations. While high self-monitors tend to have different friends for different social occasions, low self-monitors tend to have exclusive friendships that are deemed suitable for all social occasions (Snyder, Gangestad, and Simpson 1983; Snyder and Smith 1986). Similarly, Snyder and colleagues provided empirical evidence that individuals adopt different orientations toward commitment to dating relationships. In particular, Snyder and Simpson (1984) found that high self-monitoring individuals tend to adopt an uncommitted orientation toward dating relationships and establish an unrestricted orientation toward sexual relationships. By contrast, low self-monitors tend to adopt a committed orientation toward dating relationships and establish a restricted orientation (Snyder and Simpson 1984; Snyder, Simpson and Gangestad 1986). They found that high self-monitoring individuals tend to engage in interpersonal relationships (e.g., friendship, dating, sex) with others to whom they are not necessarily psychologically close, whereas low self-monitors will engage only with partners to whom they share psychological closeness (Snyder, Simpson and Gangestad 1986).

In consumer research, Becherer and Richard (1978) recognized the important role of self-monitoring as a moderating variable in consumer behavior and noted that the behavior of low self-monitoring consumers will be associated with dispositional information such as personality traits, whereas the behavior of high self-monitors will be consistent with situational cues. For

example, Snyder and DeBono (1985) found that high self-monitoring individuals show favorable attitudes toward image oriented ads, they are willing to pay more money for products than are low self-monitors, and they agree to try products if they are advertised and marketed with an image orientation. Since high self-monitoring individuals are very sensitive to the images of the self that they project in social situations, they are attentive to and influenced by advertisements that communicate messages about the images that they can project by using particular consumer brands (Snyder DeBono 1985). By contrast, low self-monitors react favorably to product-quality-oriented ads and show greater likelihood of paying extra money and engaging in product trial if products' advertisements emphasize quality because they are less concerned with the images they project in social situations. Rather, they tend to guide their behavioral choices based on relevant inner sources, such as attitudes, feelings, and dispositions (Snyder and DeBono 1985; Snyder and Tanke 1976).

Since high self-monitors are very sensitive to the images of self that they project and convey in social situations, they may be especially attentive to and influenced by the image or personality of the brands that are consistent with each social situation. In contrast, low self-monitoring individuals tend to display their own personal dispositions and attitudes across social situations, suggesting that their brand preferences and choices will mainly be influenced by their own personality and self-concept.

Construal of the Self and the Influence of Culture

Culture has long been identified as an environmental characteristic that influences consumer behavior as well as the content of marketing communications, such as persuasion appeals. For instance, Triandis (1994) suggested that subjective culture, representing the

categorizations, associations, norms, roles, and values in cultures is one of the important factors that influence social behaviors such as consuming products and services. Therefore, cross-cultural comparisons can provide meaningful insights into the psychological theories, assumptions, beliefs, and consumer behaviors in a particular culture and society.

Recent research has shown that there are at least two different ways every individual, in any culture, constructs the self: *independent* and *interdependent* self-construal (Cross and Madson 1997; Gudykunst et al., 1996; Markus and Kitayama 1991; Singelis 1994). Self-construal refers to an individual's sense of self in relation to others, reflecting the extent to which individuals view themselves either as an individual entity as well as in relation to others (Agrawal and Maheswaran 2005; Hardin, Leong, and Bhagwat 2004). In line with the conceptualization of Singelis (1994, 581), self-construal is conceptualized in this study as a constellation of thoughts, feelings, and actions concerning one's relationship to others, and the self as distinct from others. The two different views of the self, *independent* and *interdependent self-construal*, are two of the most influential developments in the past decades in cross-cultural psychology. These distinct views of the self influence a broad range of social and cognitive processes and are supported by a number of cross-cultural studies (see Markus, Kitayama, and Heiman 1996, for a review). Markus and Kitayama (1991) suggested that these divergent views of the self have significant consequences on several aspects of cognition, emotion, and motivation.

Although independent and interdependent self-construal appear to coexist within every individual and in any culture (Markus and Kitayama 1991), the chronic level of accessibility of the independent and interdependent self-views are likely to be determined by social or cultural surroundings (Aaker and Schmitt 2001). Triandis (1989) proposed that culture plays a significant

role in development of these selves. Further, as suggested by Aaker and Schmitt (2001), cultural differences such as traditions, religions, philosophies, and socialization processes may foster differential development of the self-construal dimensions. In fact, this construct does not refer to a cultural context but rather to a set of beliefs people have about themselves (Kim, Kasser and Lee 2003). However, Markus and Kitayama (1991) suggest that an individual's dominant self-construal is largely determined by the cultural and environmental contexts of *individualism* and *collectivism*.

A number of cross-cultural comparisons have established cultural differences in self-construal and have suggested that individuals in East Asian cultures tend to construct a self that is much more interdependent than the self constructed by individuals in Western culture such as the United States (e.g., Cross and Madson 1997; Markus and Kitayama 1991; Triandis 1989 1995). For instance, since individuals from collectivist cultures tend to be influenced by group-oriented values, they are likely to have an interdependent self-construal, whereas people in individualist cultures are likely to have an independent self-construal due to individual-focused cultural values (Hardin, Leong, and Bhagwat 2004). Therefore, individual differences in the self-view (independent vs. interdependent self-construal) have been linked to cultural differences. In particular, the theory of cultural individualism and collectivism (Hofstede 1980; Triandis 1989) can be employed to explain these differences.

Individualism and the United States

Individualism-collectivism (Hofstede 1980, p. 87) is one of the most cited and central aspects of cultural variability identified in cross-cultural research. The individualism-collectivism construct captured the interest of cross-cultural psychologists, and has subsequently

been used extensively to explain cultural differences for a wide variety of phenomena including values (Hofstede, 1980; Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck 1961), cognitive differentiation (Berry 1976), social behavior (Triandis, McCusker, and Hui 1990), communication (Gudykunst 1993), economic development (Adelman and Morris 1967), and self-perception (Markus and Kitayama 1991).

Triandis (1995) defines individualism as a social pattern that consists of individuals who see themselves as autonomous and independent. Individualistic cultures, such as those of North American, Northern and Western European cultures, and generally the English speaking countries, emphasize autonomy, emotional independence, privacy, and individual need, and they give priority to personal goals over collective concerns. As noted by Read (1955), the moral duties of the individualist are greater than any of the duties which they possess as a member of society. People in individualistic cultures believe in self-reliance, hedonism, and competition (Triandis 1994). Such a self-view gives rise to emphasis on self-actualization or self-realization, and expression of one's unique configuration of needs, rights, and capacities (Singelis 1994). Geertz (1984, 126), an anthropologist, asserted the Western conception of a person as "a bounded, unique, more or less integrated motivational and cognitive universe, a dynamic center of awareness, emotion, judgment, and action organized into a distinctive whole and set contrastively both against other such wholes and against its social and natural background."

In Hofstede's (1991) study of a multinational corporation, the United States ranked highest in individualism. There is considerable evidence of American individualism across situations. As noted by Triandis (1995, 98), such factors as the British influence, cultural complexity, affluence, the open frontier, and social/geographic mobility may have been responsible for American individualism. For example, geographic mobility tends to fragment

families and lessen generational influence, contributing to individual rather than collective values. Since moving requires breaking with traditional behaviors, many immigrants may have been more individualistic than others (Triandis 1995).

In addition, both Protestantism and the process of civic emancipation in Western societies led to advocacy of individual choice, personal freedom, and self-actualization (Oyserman, Coon, and Kimmelmeier 2002). This is in line with some findings (e.g., Freeberg and Stein, 1996; Rhee, Uleman, and Lee, 1996) that within the United States, European Americans are higher in individualism and lower in collectivism than are members of ethnic minority groups. Others have linked American individualism to the representative democracy of the United States. For instance, as Arieli (1964, p. 281) noted, Emerson (1834) had written in his journal that giving freedom and self-government a higher significance could serve as guide to a definition of the American ideal and American nationality. Individualism became the sole basis of democracy in the U.S. Thus, from the beginning of its history, Americans have valued life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness and regard themselves as separate and independent individuals, isolated from others (Oyserman, Coon, and Kimmelmeier, 2002).

Americans continue to pursue individualism. They are trained and educated to create a personal and unique self as well as to seek autonomy, personal privacy, individual rights, and personal freedoms (e.g., Sampson 1977, 1988). Taken together, as noted by Hofstede (1980), current theorizing in cultural psychology portrays the United States to be the most individualistic culture.

Collectivism and Korea

In contrast, collectivism can be defined as a social pattern that consists of individuals who see themselves as a part of collectives such as family, community, and group (Triandis 1995). Collectivistic cultures such as those of Korea, Japan, China, Southeast Asia, Africa, and Latin America emphasize emotional dependence, group harmony, cohesion, and cooperation, and value the collective over the individual. People in collectivist cultures favor attitudes that reflect interdependence, sociability, and family integrity (see Triandis 1995; Triandis, McCusker, and Hui 1990; Schwartz 1994). Therefore, collectivists are more likely than individualists to seek situations that produce harmonious interpersonal atmospheres. They value good social relationships and in-group harmony. People who are more collectivist tend to display only positive emotions and control negative emotions (Gudykunst 1993). Collectivist communication emphasizes context and concern for the feelings of the other and avoids the devaluation of others, whereas individualists communication emphasizes clarity (Triandis 1994). As noted by Triandis (1989, p. 509), “individualists give priority to personal goals over the goals of collectives; collectivists either make no distinctions between personal and collective goals, or if they do make such distinctions, they subordinate their personal goals to the collective goals.” While some studies (Triandis et al. 1988; Fernandez and Carlson 1997) indicate that there have been some significant shifts toward individualism in collectivist countries since Hofstede’s study (due to affluence, mass media, and modernization), a glance at the literature suggests that Koreans still tend to be less individualistic than Americans.

Further, despite the predominance of the individualism-collectivism dimension (as a dichotomy), there are other dimensions that differentiate collectivist and individualistic cultures from each other. For example, Kashima et al. (1995) found significant differences between

Korean and Japanese cultures. The major difference between Korea and Japan was relatedness which can be signified by culturally specific concepts such as *cheong* (affection) and *woori* (we) (Choi, Kim, and Choi 1993). Kahima et al. (1995) noted that historical circumstances may have amplified this difference. Therefore, it is an agreed-upon view that the Japanese are more Westernized than Koreans. Western culture, in particular U.S. popular culture, has influenced the Japanese tremendously. Therefore, Japan is a primary example of a country which has become fascinated by Western, especially American, culture (Rosenberg 1986). Gudykunst, Yoon, and Nishida (1987) found that Koreans are highly collectivist, Japanese are somewhat collectivist, and Americans are highly individualistic.

Independent Self-Construal

In Western culture, theories of personality and social psychology have been based on an individualistic definition of the person (see Cross and Markus 1999; Markus and Kitayama 1991). This independent view tends to be found in many Western cultures where there is a belief in the inherent separateness of distinct persons (Markus and Kitayama 1991). In Western cultures in which individualism is valued, the individual is viewed as autonomous, unique, abstracted from the social environment, and independent of others. Most Western cultures emphasize individuals becoming independent from others and to discover and expressing one's unique attributes and personality traits, resulting in the development of an independent self-construal (Markus and Kitayama 1991).

Singelis (1994) defined independent self-construal as a "bounded, unitary, and stable" self that is separate from social context and emphasizes internal abilities, thoughts, being unique, and being direct in communication. In this view of the self, individuals believe that their own

rights and feelings fundamentally, morally, and legally outweigh those of the society, group, and community. People with an independent self-construal view the self as stable and consistent and value self-promotion, autonomy, and uniqueness (Hardin, Leong, and Bhagwat 2004). Han and Shavitt (1994) found that message strategies (i.e., messages conveying individual values and benefits) that are consistent with the chronic self in the United States, independent self-construal, are effective in persuasion.

In Western cultural contexts, individuals who show behavioral consistency across different social and interpersonal situations are evaluated more positively and mature than those who show inconsistency across different roles and situations (Suh 2002). Therefore, consistent expression of stable personality traits, motives, attitudes, and other personal characteristics develops the foundation for constructing the real or true self in Western cultural contexts (Cross, Gore and Morris 2003). As a result of this construal of the self, inconsistency is considered a threat to the core stable self and results in self-concept confusion and lack of clarity, whereas individual consistency is suggestive of maturity, self-integrity, and unity (Cross, Gore and Morris 2003).

Self-verification theory (Swann 1983; Swann and Read 1981) offers explanations for the importance of consistency motives in Western cultures. According to self-verification theory (Swann 1983), people tend to actively try to verify, validate, and sustain their existing self-views in social contexts. This self-verification goal can be achieved by seeking out and choosing relationship partners who provide feedback that is consistent with their own self-perceptions because it leads to smooth interpersonal interactions (Swann, de la Ronde and Hixon 1994). In fact, early personality psychologists and researchers shared the idea that people actively establish and sustain self-views that are consistent across different social contexts and situations (e.g.,

Lecky 1945; Rogers 1951) and provided empirical evidence that consistency is a key foundation of psychological well-being and is a predictor of psychological adjustment (e.g., Donahue et al. 1993; Sheldon et al. 1997).

As proposed by Cross, Gore, and Morris (2003), if consistency is a fundamental human motive, it should be a universally pervasive and essential condition across different cultures. They suggested that the independent view of the self is not capable of describing the self-views of all people across cultures; and they provided empirical evidence that the independent conceptualization of the self is not universally held, even in North American cultures (Cross, Gore, and Morris 2003). As suggested by Suh (2002), this idea of self consistency needs to be further tested and studied in somewhat different cultural contexts such as collectivistic cultures. Indeed, virtually all of the consistency theories and empirical findings were generated from individualistic cultures such as North America, where a particular view of the self is fostered (Aaker and Schmitt 2001). In the next section, recent developments in cross-cultural psychological theory and research on the interdependent view of the self will be discussed.

Interdependent Self-Construal

As discussed, Western cultures tend to reward independence, activating independent self-construal (Agrawal and Maheswaran 2005). In East Asian cultures, where interpersonal harmony is a key element in fostering a collectivistic culture (Hofstede 1991), individuals are more likely than their Western counterparts to seek situations that produce a harmonious interpersonal atmosphere (Sung and Tinkham 2005). This theme was derived from Confucianism, a philosophy which emphasizes family relationships as fundamental to the entire social fabric and influences individual attitudes and behavior (Macdonald 1996, 69). As a result, the

interdependent self view is found in many collectivist cultures, such as East Asian cultures, as well as African and Latin-American cultures.

Individuals in collectivist cultures tend to view the self as part of their social context and believe that the self becomes most meaningful and complete when it is connected to others in social relationships (Cross, Gore and Morris 2003; Markus and Kitayama 1991). Individuals in collectivist cultures, are therefore motivated to embed themselves in a social network by finding “a way to fit in with relevant others, to fulfill and create obligation, and in general to become part of various interpersonal relationships” (Markus and Kitayama 1991, p. 227). Therefore, members of collectivist cultures develop an interdependent self-construal, in which both the expression and the experience of motives will be significantly shaped and influenced by a consideration of the interactions with others across social situations and interpersonal relationships. For example, in Korea, where the chronic self is interdependent, Han and Shavitt (1994) found that individuals prefer messages that emphasize group harmonies and benefits. They found that messages compatible with the interdependent chronic self are more effective at persuading in Korea than are those that emphasize the independent self (Han and Shavitt 1994).

Singelis (1994) defined interdependent self-construal as a “flexible and variable” self that emphasizes external and public features (e.g., status, roles, and relationships), belonging and fitting in, and being indirect in communication. People with an interdependent self-construal view the self as more flexible and intertwined with the social context, leading to maintenance of group harmony (Markus and Kitayama 1991; Singelis 1994). As with members of individualistic cultures, individuals in collectivist cultures possess and express a set of internal attributes, such as abilities, opinions, judgments, and personality characteristics. However, as noted by Markus

and Kitayama (1991), their internal attributes can change depending upon social situations, suggesting that their internal factors are sometimes elusive and unreliable.

Cross-cultural research suggests that consistency is less valued and emphasized in collectivist cultures than in individualist cultures (e.g., Cross, Gore, and Morris 2003; Heine, et al. 2001; Kitayama and Markus 2000; Suh 2002). People in collectivist cultures tend to adjust their behavior to promote harmony in their close relationships (Cross, Gore, and Morris 2003). Markus and Kitayama (1994) argued that extreme forms of self-consistency in collectivist cultures could be perceived as a “lack of flexibility, rigidity, or even immaturity” (p. 576). Further, in East Asian cultures, inconsistency across social situations should be expected because of the different norms and rules that are associated with different situations. Thus, maintaining self-integrity is not a matter of being consistent but, rather, fitting into the norms and rules of particular situations (Cross, Gore, and Morris 2003). For example, in his cross-cultural research that examined the association between self-consistency and well-being in the U. S. and Korea, Suh (2002) found that the Korean students’ self-descriptions across their relationships were less consistent than those of North American students and revealed that consistency was not as strongly related to well-being for Koreans as for North Americans. Also, North American participants tended to evaluate individuals with high levels of self-concept consistency across relationships as socially skilled and likeable, but Korean participants did not show any relationship between these (Suh 2002).

In sum, self-construal is an important construct that influences individuals’ psychological experiences; and different construals of the self should shape and influence differences in individuals’ cognitions, emotions, and motivations. This research employs the theory of the two different self-views (independent vs. interdependent self-construal) and focuses on the

moderating role of self-construal on the relationship between the self-concept and brand personality as a determinant of consumer behavior. In sum, given the review of prior research on cultural difference between the U.S. and Korea (e.g., Gudykunst et al. 1996), it can be assumed that U.S. consumers are more likely to have independent self-construals and less likely to have interdependent self-construals than the highly collectivistic Korean consumers. On the other hand, Korean consumers are more likely to hold an interdependent view of the self than the more individualistic North American consumers.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

A large body of research in the field of personality psychology suggests that the structure of human personality (e.g., the Big Five human personality model) is stable across Western and non-Western cultures (e.g., McCrae and John 1992; McCrae and Costa 1997). Despite well known problems in the translation of verbal personality items and possible interpretive differences arising because of varying cultural meanings and values, very similar patterns of relations emerged when verbal and nonverbal formats were compared across groups differing in language, culture, and nationality. Further, application of the Big Five structure to commercial brands have appeared recently in the marketing literature (e.g., Aaker 1997; Aaker 1999; Caprara, Barbaranelli, and Guido 1988; Sung and Tinkham 2005). Although prior literature suggests that brand personality might operate in different ways from human personality (Aaker 1997), the application of human personality traits to commercial brands still appears to be promising.

However, no research to date has applied brand personality traits to consumer self-concepts. As an exploratory research question, this study attempts to investigate whether there are meaningful differences in how consumers with different cultural backgrounds respond to brand personality traits to describe their self-concepts across cultures. By employing 80 brand personality traits developed by Sung and Tinkham (2005), this study first examines the extent to which consumers' perceptions of the self differ by culture and by gender. Answering these questions, this study will provide some insights into cultural differences as well as individual differences in terms of consumers' self-concepts. Thus, the following two exploratory research questions are put forth:

RQ1: Are there any differences (or similarities) between consumers in the U.S. and Korea in how they perceive and view themselves in terms of the five brand personality dimensions of Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness?

RQ2: Are there any differences (or similarities) between females and males in how they perceive and view themselves in terms of the five brand personality dimensions of Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness?

Drawing on the growing interest in cultural differences among consumer researchers, this study investigates the role of self-concept and brand personality on consumer behavior. Since the first discussion of actual self-image and product-image congruity (so called "self congruity") by Levy (1959), empirical studies have generally supported the notion that consumers tend to prefer

products with images or personality traits that are congruent with their self-concepts (Kassarjian 1971; Sirgy 1982). That is, consumers are likely to prefer and use brands that share compatible personality traits and characteristics to maintain their self-concepts and to express something about themselves. However, most of the empirical research on self-concept and consumer-brand image congruity (refer to here as “self congruity”) has focused on consumers in the U.S. and was conducted in a Western cultural setting. No study in the Korean culture has investigated how brand personality affects consumers’ brand preferences and choice, nor examined the self congruity effect. To fill this gap in the literature, the current study first explores the self congruity hypothesis in cross-cultural settings: the U.S. and Korea. First, this study predicts that self congruity will be found in the U.S.

H1: There will be a positive relationship between self congruity (congruity between consumers’ self-concepts and brand personalities) and attitudes toward the brand in the U.S. That is, consumers in the U.S. will have more positive attitudes toward brands associated with a set of personality traits congruent with their own self-concepts.

In addition, on the basis of prior empirical research on the self congruity hypothesis in the U.S., this study predicts that the self congruity effect will be found in Korean culture as well. That is, regardless of cultural background, consumers will show more positive attitudes toward brands that are compatible with their self-concepts and images.

H2: There will be a positive relationship between self congruity (congruity between consumers' self-concepts and brand personalities) and attitudes toward the brand in Korea. That is, consumers in Korea will have more positive attitudes toward the brands associated with a set of personality traits congruent with their own self-concepts.

Further, from the perspective of the malleable (or dynamic) self-concept, the stability of the self-concept can be significantly changed or varied when salient situational cues are presented (Markus and Kunda 1986). That is, although the self-concept is viewed as a somewhat stable and enduring perception of the self at any given moment, consumers will try to conform their dispositional behavior to situational cues (Aaker 1999). Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H3: Regardless of culture, consumers will have more positive attitudes toward the brands associated with a set of personality traits congruent with social situation (situation congruity). That is, consumers' brand preferences will increase when social situation cues are congruent versus incongruent with the personality traits of the brands.

In addition, as discussed earlier, interpersonal harmony is a key element in Korean thinking (Rosenberger 1992) and is derived from Confucian values. Confucianism serves as a national belief system and can therefore be seen as a central element in the body of Korean thought (Sung and Tinkham 2005). Thus, in Korea, where the traditional Confucian order is

greatly valued, harmony among humankind is the supreme goal. To maintain and foster this interpersonal harmony, individuals in East Asian cultures tend to view the self as relatively malleable and highly context sensitive (Heine et al. 2001). Further, as Suh (2002) found, Koreans viewed themselves more flexibly across situations. Therefore, this study proposes that members of East Asian cultures are more responsive to social situations in forming brand preferences and making brand choices than members of Western cultures.

H4: Situation congruity effects will be more evident in Korea than in the U.S. That is, consumers in Korea will be more sensitive to situational cues than self-concepts in determining brand preference and choice.

H5: Self congruity effects will be more evident in the U.S. than in Korea. That is, consumers in the U.S. will be more sensitive to self-concepts than situational cues in determining brand preference and choice.

Finally, given the prior review of the relationship between self-concept and self-monitoring, the following hypotheses are put forth:

H6: Situation congruity effects will be more evident for high self-monitors than for low self monitors.

H7: Self congruity effects will be more evident for low self-monitors than for high self monitors.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

Overview

Two experiments were conducted to test the proposed hypotheses and research questions. Both experiments were conducted in each country, with each set of studies comprised of one using real brands and the other fictitious brands. In Experiment 1, the proposed research questions and proposed hypotheses were tested with a set of real brands in the U.S. and Korea. The same procedure and design relied in Experiment 1 was used in Experiment 2 in the U.S. and Korea, but with a set of fictitious brands. The total U.S. sample in Experiments 1 and 2 consisted of 422 undergraduate students enrolled in a large southern university, and the total Korean sample in both experiments consisted of 411 undergraduate Korean students enrolled in universities in Korea.

The proposed hypotheses of the study were tested by investigating the role of self-concept, brand personality, and social situations on consumers' attitudes and behavioral intentions toward the brands. This research focused on personality at the trait factor level (Aaker 1999), thus employing brand personality dimensions to measure each of three constructs. That is, brand personality dimensions and traits describing commercial brands were used to measure individual's self-concept as well as to define social situations. Recent research has identified six common dimensions that describe brand personality in the U.S. and Korea (Sung and Tinkham, 2005). In that research, a total of 657 subjects (American 320 and Korean 337) rated the extent to

which 13 global brands could be described by a set of 80 brand personality traits that were developed from the previous human personality literature and free-association tasks in both cultures. Employing both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis, Sung and Tinkham (2005) identified six dimensions common to both cultures (Competence, Trendiness, Likeableness, Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Tradition) and two dimensions unique to each culture. By relying on these common dimensions in both cultures, personalities of the real brands and the corresponding self-concept of the subjects were measured and fictitious brands and social situations were manipulated. Note that three dimensions (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness) were used in Experiment 1 whereas five dimensions (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness) were tested in Experiment 2.¹

Stimuli Development

Identification of Real Brands. To identify the real brands to be used in Experiment 1, a series of pilot studies was conducted in the U.S. and Korea. First, self-expressive product categories were identified with 52 subjects (70% female, age $M = 21$) in the U.S. and 40 subjects (63% female, age $M = 23$) in Korea. Subjects were given several different social situations (e.g., a fancy wedding dinner, a business dinner with the boss, a dinner at a tailgating party, a dinner with the family at home, etc.), and they were asked to list all product categories they were likely to buy or use to express themselves during each social situation. A number of product categories

¹ Although Sung and Tinkham (2005) identified six common dimensions in the U.S. and Korea, the Tradition dimension was excluded from the current study. Therefore, in Experiment 2, five dimensions were tested. Further, the results of the pilot studies reveal no real brands in both product categories that appeared to have either a distinct Likeableness or Competence dimension both in the U.S. as well as in Korea. Thus, only three dimensions were tested in Experiment 1.

were identified in both cultures such as ties, shoes, apparel, perfume, necklaces, bags, jewelry, sunglasses, wine, watches, cosmetics, etc. Among them, two product categories (i.e., apparel and watches) were chosen for the present research because (1) they were the most commonly listed products across different social situations in the U.S. and Korea, and (2) they are not gender-specific products such as cosmetics, ties, or handbags.

Second, 10 familiar brands for each of the two product categories were identified. In order to test the proposed hypotheses of the current study, it was essential to ensure that subjects were familiar enough with the brands tested, to ensure that they had acquired well-defined brand personalities. To identify well-known brands for subjects in each culture, 45 American subjects (54% female, age $M = 21$) and 38 Korean subjects (49% female, age $M = 23$) were asked to write down any brands they were familiar with, or had experience with, in the apparel and watch product categories. As a result, 20 brands (10 for each product) were identified in each culture.

Finally, brands having distinct personalities were identified. That is, brands that scored highest on one of the three dimensions (Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness) and scored low and remained constant on the other two (unintended) dimensions were identified. One hundred thirty-five American subjects (67% female, age $M = 21$) and 98 Korean subjects (52% female, mean age = 23) were asked to rate the extent to which 20 brands in two product categories could be described by 80 traits on seven-point scales (1 = not at all describes, 7 = perfectly describes). In both cultures, three brands in each category were identified which had distinct personalities. In the U.S., Diesel apparel and Swatch watches were rated significantly higher on Trendiness ($M_{(\text{Diesel})} = 5.23, p < .01$; $M_{(\text{Swatch})} = 5.20, p < .05$), Ralph Lauren apparel and Rolex watches were rated significantly higher on Sophistication ($M_{(\text{Ralph Lauren})} = 5.24, p < .001$; $M_{(\text{Rolex})} = 5.53, p < .001$), and Timberland apparel and Swiss Army watches scored high

on Ruggedness ($M_{(\text{Timberland})} = 5.86, p < .001$; $M_{(\text{Swiss Army})} = 5.28, p < .05$). In Korea, Diesel apparel and Technomarine watches were rated significantly higher on Trendiness ($M_{(\text{Diesel})} = 5.60, p < .05$; $M_{(\text{Technomarine})} = 5.43, p < .01$), Ralph Lauren apparel and Rolex watches were rated significantly higher on Sophistication ($M_{(\text{Ralph Lauren})} = 5.26, p < .05$; $M_{(\text{Rolex})} = 6.12, p < .001$), and North Face apparel and Tag Heuer watches scored higher on Ruggedness ($M_{(\text{North Face})} = 5.78, p < .01$; $M_{(\text{Tag Heuer})} = 5.11, p < .05$). In sum, the pilot studies revealed six brands (one brand for each of the three dimensions and for the two product categories in the U.S. and Korea). Note that three brands (i.e., Diesel – apparel for Trendiness, Ralph Lauren – apparel for Sophistication, and Rolex – watch for Sophistication) were identified not only in the U.S. but also in Korea. The procedures for developing ten fictitious brands are discussed on the following section.

Development of Fictitious Brands. As noted, in addition to the real brands evaluated Experiment 1, Experiment 2 tested the hypotheses using a set of fictitious brands to reduce the potential noise created by the use of real brands such as brand preference, experience, and past behavior (Aaker 1999). Fictitious brands were created for the same product categories (apparel and watch) identified for the real brands. First, to create the names of 10 fictitious brands (5 for each product category) with distinct personalities in terms of five dimensions (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness), 24 student members of the advertising club at the University of Georgia were asked to create fictitious brand names corresponding to the five personality dimensions. They were given brief instructions and some examples of real brand names in the two product categories. In this way, they created a number of fictitious brand names corresponding to the five dimensions.

Second, in choosing the fictitious brands for Experiment 2, 6 American students and four Korean students participated in a focus group session. After discussions, they selected two

fictitious names that most effectively communicated each of the five dimensions for the two product categories, resulting in 20 fictitious brand names (10 for the apparel and 10 for the watch product category).

Finally, a different group of 20 subjects in each culture was asked to rate the extent to which the fictitious brands could be described by the five brand personality dimensions (Sung and Tinkham 2005). Consistent with Aaker (1999), respondents were given limited information about the brand. That is, personalities of the fictitious brands were manipulated through (1) a fictitious brand name and (2) some personality trait associations (e.g., glamorous for Sophistication, tough for Ruggedness, new for Trendiness, reliable for Competence, and cheerful for Likeableness). On the basis of this process, five fictitious brands with distinct personalities in each product category were created. To illustrate, the ten fictitious brands were *Venice* apparel and *Kensington* wrist watch (Sophisticated), *Miner* apparel and *Summit* wrist watch (Ruggedness), *Chaos* apparel and *Tocks* wrist watch (Trendiness), *Colors International* apparel and *Technologe* wrist watch (Competence), and *Kicks* apparel and *True* wrist watch (Likeableness). The same set of fictitious brands was used in both cultures.

Development of Social Situations. The development of social situations followed a three-step process. First, three professional writers authored paragraphs describing fifteen social situations. Each writer developed five social situations that corresponded to the five common dimensions (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness) in the U.S. and Korea identified by Sung and Tinkham (2005). All of the situations involved dining scenarios to maintain consistency across dimensions and cultures (Aaker 1999; Cantor, Mischel, and Schwartz 1982), and each situation was developed to describe and to make only one of the five dimensions accessible. All situations were manipulated through (1) overall tonality (i.e.,

vocabulary choice and phrasing); (2) physical characteristics (i.e., type of meal, atmosphere); and (3) social characteristics (i.e., type of people at the meal) (Cantor, Mischel, and Schwartz 1982).

Second, to identify five situations that represent the five dimensions, 32 subjects (20 American and 12 Korean subjects, 72% women, age $M = 23$) were asked to rate the fifteen dinner situations in terms of the extent to which they would try to demonstrate the personality traits in each of the specified situations using the 80 personality traits (Sung and Tinkham 2005) along a scale that ranged from 1 (would not try to demonstrate) to 7 (definitely would try to demonstrate). Situations that scored highest on their intended dimension and lowest on the unintended dimensions were identified. Of the fifteen situations pretested, the five identified were those that made the intended personality dimensions accessible, to the exclusion of the four unintended personality dimensions ($p < .01$). The Likeableness dining situation was an annual holiday dinner with family members and close friends; the Trendiness dining situation was a night out at a dance club with a number of young, cool, and trendy people; the Competence dinner was an important dinner meeting with a potential business partner; the Sophistication dinner was a ritzy New Year's Eve Ball with friends; and the Ruggedness dining situation was a meal after mountain biking with friends. To illustrate, the Trendiness situation scenario is provided below (see Appendices for all five social situations tested in Experiments 1 and 2):

Elizabeth and Matt decided to have a night out with their friends and try a new dinner and dance club their friends had told them about. They were excited about it because they were told that the new club is the place for young, trendy, and cool people. Elizabeth took extra care getting ready and Matt stopped by the bank to make sure he'd have enough cash on hand for their dinner and drinks. The music

from the club could be heard from the parking lot and the smells from the kitchen tempted their tastebuds. After being shown to their table, Elizabeth and Matt read over the menu and made their selections. It was difficult for them to sit still as the band began to play. They were able to dance to a couple of songs before their food arrived.

Finally, based on the verbal descriptions of the five dinner situations developed in the previous stages, corresponding visual illustrations were created by a professional illustrator. Thus, the final stimuli were similar to print advertisements (i.e., magazine ads). Employing both verbal descriptions and visual illustrations helps subjects to imagine themselves in different social situations. Further, since the hypotheses were tested cross-culturally, stimuli had to maintain consistency across the two cultures. American subjects were given English versions of the social situation stimuli (e.g., verbal descriptions were written in English and visual illustrations portrayed Americans in different situations), whereas Korean subjects received another set of stimuli similar to those of the U.S. except for the language used and people shown in visual illustrations. As a result of this three-step process, two final sets of stimuli were developed and these were used in the U.S. study as well as in the Korean study (see Appendices A, B, C, D, and E).

Participants

The initial American sample of Experiment 1 consisted of 238 undergraduate students enrolled in introductory courses at a large southeastern university in the U.S. In Experiment 2, a different group of 241 undergraduate students participated in the study. The final sample size (n

= 218 in Experiment 1; $n = 204$ in Experiment 2) reflects a reduction from the initial number of participants. From the initial American sample in Experiments 1 and 2, some responses were eliminated because of incomplete questionnaires ($n = 14$ in Experiment 1; $n = 26$ in Experiment 2) or extreme and consistent high or low rating patterns ($n = 6$ in Experiment 1; $n = 11$ in Experiment 2) indicating response sets. All participants were given extra course credit as an incentive. The participants ranged in age from 19 to 34 ($M = 20.4$) in Experiment 1 and from 18 to 28 ($M = 20.5$) in Experiment 2. Seventy percent and 69% of the sample were female, respectively in Experiment 1 and 2; 4.1% (Experiment 1) and 5.9% (Experiment 2) were African-American; 9.2% (Experiment 1) and 8.8% (Experiment 2) were other ethnicity such as Hispanic and Asian. The U.S. respondents' demographic information is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Selected Demographics of the U.S. Participants in Experiments 1 and 2

		Experiment 1		Experiment 2	
		<i>Percent (%)</i>	<i>Freq. (N)</i>	<i>Percent (%)</i>	<i>Freq. (N)</i>
Gender	Male	30.3	66	30.9	63
	Female	69.7	152	69.1	141
	Total	100.0	218	100.0	204
Race	White	86.2	188	84.3	172
	Black	4.1	9	5.9	12
	Asian	4.6	10	4.4	9
	Hispanic	4.6	10	4.4	9
	Other	0.5	1	1.0	2
	Total	100.0	218	100.0	204
Age		$M = 20.4$	$SD = 1.82$	$M = 20.5$	$SD = 1.29$

The Korean sample consisted of undergraduate students from four different universities in Korea. Two universities are located in a large Korean city and the other two universities are located in suburban areas. Participants were given extra course credit as an incentive. After

eliminating from the sample participants who exhibited extreme response sets or turned in incomplete questionnaires ($n = 28$ in Experiment 1; $n = 34$ in Experiment 2), the final sample size was 196 in Experiment 1 and 215 in Experiment 2. Fifty-one percent (Experiment 1) and 60.9% (Experiment 2) of the Korean sample were female, the average age was 22 years old in Experiment 1 and 21 in Experiment 2, ranging from 18 to 28. All participants were Korean citizens who use Korean as their primary language (see Table 2).

Table 2

Selected Demographics of the Korean Participants in Experiments 1 and 2

		Experiment 1		Experiment 2	
		Percent (%)	Freq. (N)	Percent (%)	Freq. (N)
Gender	Male	49.0	96	39.1	84
	Female	51.0	100	60.9	131
	Total	100.0	196	100.0	215
Age		$M = 21.7$	$SD = 1.93$	$M = 21.3$	$SD = 2.07$

Procedure

Each of the two experiments consisted of two different parts. In the first part of each experiment, actual and ideal self-concept, degree of self-monitoring, attitude toward the brands, and demographic information were measured. In the second part, brand evaluations were measured again, but in different social situations.

Experiment Part I. Three weeks prior to the second part of the each experiment in the U.S. and Korea, participants were invited to participate in the first part of the experiment. To keep the number of participants in each session at a manageable size, and to give flexible timing options, there were a number of different experimental sessions in the U.S. and Korea at which

students could participate. Upon arrival at their scheduled session, they were asked to rate their actual selves on the 80 personality attributes (Sung and Tinkham 2005) and then describe how important each of the 80 personality attributes is to them. Korean subjects were given the Korean version of the 80 traits that were translated and back translated in a previous study (Sung and Tinkham 2005).

Also, they were asked to rate self-monitoring information (18 items, based on Snyder and Gangestad 1986) and complete a self-construal scale (24 items, based on Singelis 1994). Both self monitoring (18) and self-construal items (24) were first translated into the Korean language by two Korean-Americans skilled in both languages. Then, the translated items were translated back into English by another pair of Korean-Americans (Marsella et al., 2000). Finally, all subjects in Experiment 1 were asked to evaluate the six real brands (i.e., 3 apparel and 3 watch brands) identified from the pilot studies in terms of attitude, liking, brand preference, familiarity, purchase likelihood, trial likelihood, etc. (see Appendix F).

Similarly, participants in Experiment 2 were asked to rate ten fictitious brands identified from the pilot studies (i.e., 5 apparel and 5 watch brands). However, since they were asked to rate fictitious (new) brands, they were told that these brands were being considered for introduction and were asked to rate them with limited information. Accordingly, they were given a “Brand Concept Statement” (Aaker 1999) which included a fictitious brand name and some personality trait associations for each of ten fictitious brands, and were asked to evaluate each of the brands based only on how they were described. For example, to describe the Technologe wrist watch brand, they were given the statement, “*the brand image and personality of the new Technologe wrist watch (a fictitious brand for Competence dimension) can be described by such terms as reliable, popular, leading, efficient, and satisfying.*” In Experiment 2, half the subjects

in each culture evaluated five fictitious apparel brands and the other half of the subjects rated five fictitious wrist watch brands. The first part of each experiment took between 30 to 40 minutes to complete (see Appendix G).

Experiment Part II. Three weeks after they completed the first part of the experiments, subjects were invited again to participate in the second part of the study. In groups of 15 to 20 in a laboratory setting, subjects re-evaluated the brands that they were exposed to three weeks before. However, unlike before, they were asked to evaluate the brands under different social situations. That is, subjects in Experiment 1 were asked to re-evaluate six real brands across three different social situations corresponding to three dimensions (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness) and subjects in Experiment 2 were asked to re-evaluate ten fictitious brands across five different social situations corresponding to five dimensions (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness (see Appendices H and I). Thus, they were given the following brief instructions:

The primary object of the second part is to re-evaluate a set of brands you evaluated three weeks ago. Therefore, you will be given the same set of brands. However, unlike before, you will be asked to evaluate these brands in certain situations. By re-evaluating the brands in these situations, we can better predict how the brands are actually used in real life. The key to the success of this research depends on your trying to really imagine yourself in these situations. In the following section, you will be asked to evaluate the set of brands as if you were in the situations or were planning to go to the situations. To give you an

overall feel of what these situations are like, each situation will be visualized by illustration and will be briefly described.

To control and minimize order bias from maturation or possible primacy/recency effects, the order in which the situations were presented and the order in which the brands were presented in the questionnaire were systematically rotated. Finally, manipulation checks for both real and fictitious brands were assessed. On average, Part II of each Experiment took between 20 to 30 minutes to complete. All subjects were debriefed and thanked. The summary of research procedure is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Summary of Research Procedure in the U.S. and Korea

Pilot Studies in the U.S. and Korea**Identification of Real Brands**

- 1. Identification of self-expressive products** (N = 92, 52 Americans and 40 Koreans)
 - Two products (apparel & watch) were identified in both cultures
- 2. Identification of Familiar brands** (N = 83, 45 Americans and 40 Koreans)
- 3. Identification of brands with distinct personalities** (N = 233, 135 Americans and 98 Koreans)
 - A set of six real brands with distinct personalities were identified in each culture
 - Diesel, Technomarine, Swatch, Ralph Lauren, Rolex, Timberland, Swiss Army, North Face, Tag Heuer

**Identification of Fictitious Brand Names**

- 1. Development of fictitious brand names for apparel and watch** (24 Ad Club students in the U.S.)
- 2. Focus group** (N = 10, 6 Americans and 4 Korean)
 - 20 potential brand names were selected.
- 3. Identification of fictitious names with distinct personalities** (N = 40, 20 Americans and 20 Koreans)
 - Five fictitious brand names with distinct personalities in each product category were identified.

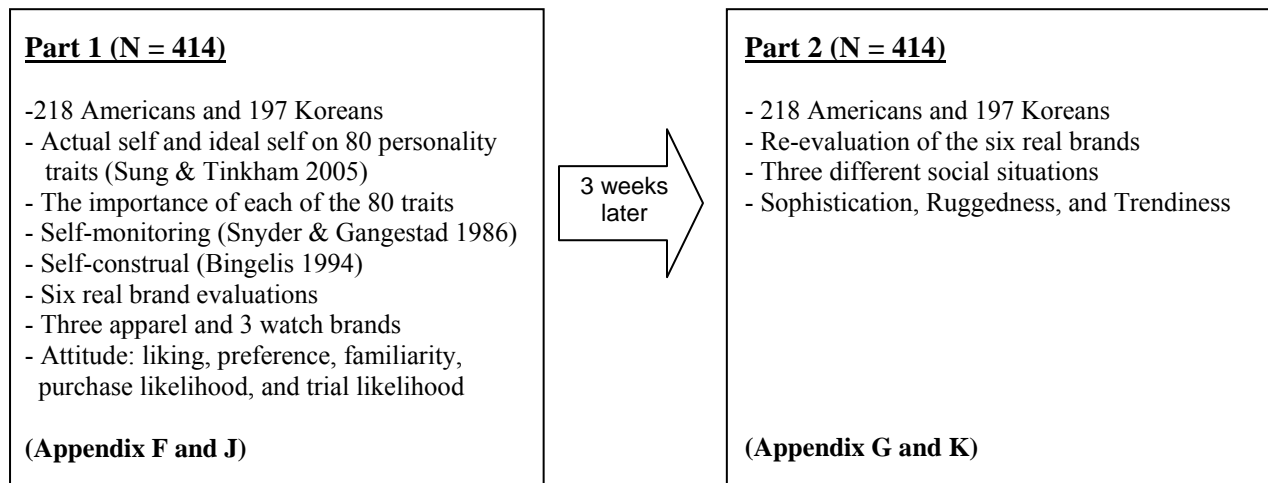
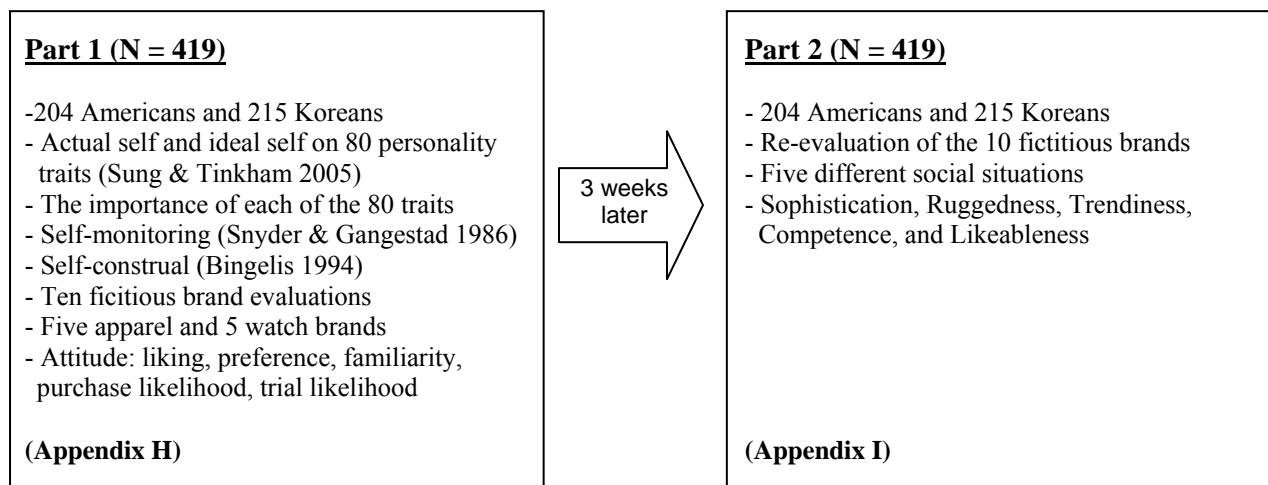
**Development of Experimental Stimuli (Social Situations)**

- 1. Three professional writers authored 15 social situations**
 - Each writer developed five social situations to make only one of the five dimensions accessible
 - All of the situations involved dining scenarios
- 2. Identification of five social situations that represent the five dimensions**
 - N = 32, 20 Americans and 12 Koreans
- 3. Visual Illustration**
 - A professional illustrator created five visual illustrations corresponding to the verbal descriptions identified in step 2.

(Appendix A, B, C, D, and E)

Figure 1 (continued)

Summary of Research Procedure in the U.S. and Korea

Main Experiments: 1**Main Experiments: 2**

CHAPTER V

RESULTS – EXPERIMENT 1

Overview

To test proposed hypotheses and research questions, the data set of Experiment 1 was analyzed. First, to examine two research questions (RQ1 and RQ2: the extent to which one's perception of the self differs across culture and gender), a 2 (cultures) \times 2 (gender) ANOVA was conducted on each of the three personality dimensions (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness). Second, a 2 (culture) \times 3 (self-concept: low vs. moderate vs. high) between-subjects ANCOVA was conducted for the three personality dimensions to test the self congruity hypotheses (H1 and H2) in the U.S. and Korea. Third, across the three personality dimensions, a 2 (culture) \times 3 (self-concept) \times 3 (three different social situations corresponding to the three personality dimensions) mixed-factorial design was conducted to test the situation congruity hypotheses (H3, H4, and H5). Finally, the moderating role of self-monitoring in the situation congruity effects (H6 and H7) was tested with a 2 (self-monitoring) \times 3 (self-concept) \times 3 (three social situations) mixed-factorial design.

Reliability of Measures

Self-Concept. Since a set of 80 brand personality traits (Sung and Tinkham 2005) was employed to measure consumers' self-concepts in this research, reliability analyses were conducted to see if the set of brand personality traits can be used to reliably measure consumers'

self-concepts in terms of three dimensions: Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness (Sung and Tinkham 2005). Reliability estimates (Cronbach alpha) were computed for the set of measures designed to estimate each of the three self-concept dimensions. The results of the reliability analyses suggest that 10 items (e.g., different, new, trendy, up-to-date) were reliable to measure respondents' Trendiness self-concepts (coefficient $\alpha = .80$). Further, the resulting alpha values of the Sophistication dimension (5 items; e.g., elegant, glamorous, upper class; coefficient $\alpha = .74$) and the Ruggedness dimension (3 items; e.g., tough, rugged; coefficient $\alpha = .75$) were sufficient as well (Nunnally 1978; Peterson 1994). For each self-concept dimension, a single measure was formed by averaging across items. On the basis of the single measure of self-concept for each dimension, three groups (i.e., low vs. moderate vs. high) were identified using third splits of mean scores, thereby creating consumer self-concept indices for the three dimensions. Thus, each subject were assigned three self-concept indices, one for each dimension (i.e., a subject can be classified as having high sophisticated, high trendy, and low rugged self-concepts). This self-concept index for each of the three dimensions was used as a between-subject factor in the subsequent hypotheses-testing analyses.

Self-Monitoring. Using the 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder and Gangestad 1986), respondents' self-monitoring scores were calculated. On the basis of a median split (Snyder and DeBono 1985) of Self-Monitoring scale scores ($M = 10.76$), respondents were divided into either a high self-monitoring group or a low self-monitoring group. Table 3 shows the distribution of high vs. low self-monitoring individuals across cultures. As can be seen in Table 3, over 60 percent of Korean respondents were high self-monitoring individuals whereas 50 percent of the U.S. subjects were high self-monitors. This proportional difference was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 4.34$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$), suggesting that a disproportionately higher

number of subjects in Korea are more likely to be high self-monitors than are individuals in the U.S.

Table 3

Culture \times Self-Monitoring Crosstabulation (EX1)

	High Self-Monitors		Low Self-Monitors		Total N
	Percent (%)	Freq. (N)	Percent (%)	Freq. (N)	
U.S.	50.0	109	50.0	109	218
Korea	60.2	118	39.8	78	196

Pre-Brand Attitude Index (Dependent variables in H1 and H2). For each real brand tested in Experiment 1, a pre-brand attitude index (i.e., attitude toward the brand before social situations were presented) was created by combining five items. The five items were 1) *like vs. dislike the brand*; 2) *likely vs. unlikely to buy the brand in the future*; 3) *prefer vs. don't prefer the brand over alternative brands*; 4) *definitely vs. definitely not consider buying the brand*; and 5) *can vs. can't imagine buying the brand*. Reliability estimates were computed, and all five items were found to be reliable to measure a pre-brand attitude for all brands in both cultures: Rolex $\alpha = .81$ (U.S.) and $.84$ (Korea); Diesel $\alpha = .86$ (U.S.) and $.86$ (Korea); Swiss Army $\alpha = .90$; Tag Hauer $\alpha = .88$; Timberland $\alpha = .91$; North Face $\alpha = .89$; Swatch $\alpha = .87$; Technomarine $\alpha = .88$; Ralph Lauren $\alpha = .89$ (U.S.) and $.90$ (Korea). Thus, these pre-brand indices were used as dependent variables in testing of Hypotheses 1 and 2.

Post-Brand Attitude Index (Dependent variables in H3, H4, H5, H6, and H7). In addition to pre-brand attitudes, three post-brand attitude indices (i.e., attitude toward the brand after social situations were presented) were created by combining five attitudinal measures. Thus, for each brand, three post-brand attitude indices were created (i.e., brand attitudes in

sophisticated, rugged, and trendy situations). Similar to pre-brand attitudes, the results of reliability estimates indicate that the five items were reliable for all brands across the three different social situations (e.g., Timberland in the sophisticated situation $\alpha = .91$; in the rugged situation $\alpha = .92$; in the trendy situation $\alpha = .91$). All coefficient alphas were higher than .88 and ranged between .88 and .95. Thus, these post-brand attitude indices were used as dependent variables in the analyses of hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7.

Brand Personality Manipulation Check

Although the real brands used in Experiment 1 were carefully selected to ensure that each brand was well known and had a distinct personality through a series of pilot studies, internal manipulation checks were conducted. That is, after an experimental session, each subject in the U.S. and Korea was asked to match which brand is most strongly associated with the three personality dimensions for each of the two product categories. The results of these manipulation checks indicate that 96% of the U.S. and 83% of the Korean subjects picked Ralph Lauren as a sophisticated apparel brand. As for rugged apparel, 97% of the U.S. subjects and 93% of Korean subjects selected Timberland and North Face, respectively. Regarding a trendy apparel brands, 93% in the U.S. and 78% of the Korean subjects picked Diesel, suggesting that Diesel is positioned more as a trendy brand in the U.S. than in Korea. Further, 97% of the U.S. individuals and 99% of the Korean subjects indicated that Rolex is a sophisticated watch brand. As for a rugged watch, 93% in the U.S. and 90% of Korean subjects chose Swiss Army and Tag Hauer, respectively. Finally, 91% of the U.S. subjects indicated that Swatch is a trendy watch and 89% of the Korean subjects picked Technomarine as a trendy watch. Overall, the internal manipulation checks suggest that subjects in the U.S. are familiar with all the real brands tested

in Experiment 1 and perceive those brands as having distinct personalities. In Korea, although two brands (i.e., Ralph Lauren and Diesel) appeared to show less personality consensus than other brands, the overall results still suggest that the real brands selected for each of the three personality dimensions were satisfactory in the subsequent data analyses for the hypotheses proposed.

The Similarity/Difference of Self-Concept Across Cultures (RQ1) and Gender (RQ2)

To examine the extent to which one's perception of the self (in terms of three dimensions: Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness) differs across cultures and gender, mean scores of a self-concept index for each of the three dimensions were compared.

Accordingly, a separate 2 (culture: U.S. vs. Korea) \times 2 (gender: male vs. female) between-subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for the three dimensions.

Sophisticated Self-Concept. As displayed in Table 5, the results of a 2 \times 2 ANOVA on the sophisticated self-concept index yielded a non-significant main effect for culture, $F(1, 410) = .65, p = .42$. However, a significant main effect for gender was found, $F(1, 410) = 17.02, p < .01$. That is, as shown in Table 4, both U.S. ($M = 4.16$) and Korean ($M = 4.12$) individuals had similar mean scores on the personality traits such as glamorous, upper class, and charming, for the sophisticated self-concept. However, the results indicate that regardless of cultural background, female subjects had higher scores on sophisticated personality traits ($M = 4.31$) than male counterparts ($M = 3.87$), suggesting that females are more likely to perceive themselves to be sophisticated individuals than males. Further, the culture \times gender interaction was significant, $F(1, 410) = 3.94, p < .05$. As displayed in Figure 2, the gender differences for the sophisticated self-concept was more evident in the U.S. than in Korea (female $M = 4.37$ vs. male $M = 3.68$ in

the U.S.; female $M = 4.24$ vs. male $M = 3.99$ in Korea). In sum, for the Sophistication dimension, no cultural difference in sophisticated self-concept was observed. However, regardless of culture, mean scores of the sophisticated self-concept differed across gender and this difference is more pronounced in the U.S.

Table 4

Self-Concept Means and Standard Deviations – Sophistication Dimension (EX1)

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Female	4.37	1.08	152
	Male	3.68	1.04	66
	Total	4.16	1.11	218
Korea	Female	4.24	1.11	100
	Male	3.99	1.07	96
	Total	4.12	1.09	196
Total	Female	4.31	1.09	252
	Male	3.87	1.07	162
	Total	4.14	1.10	414

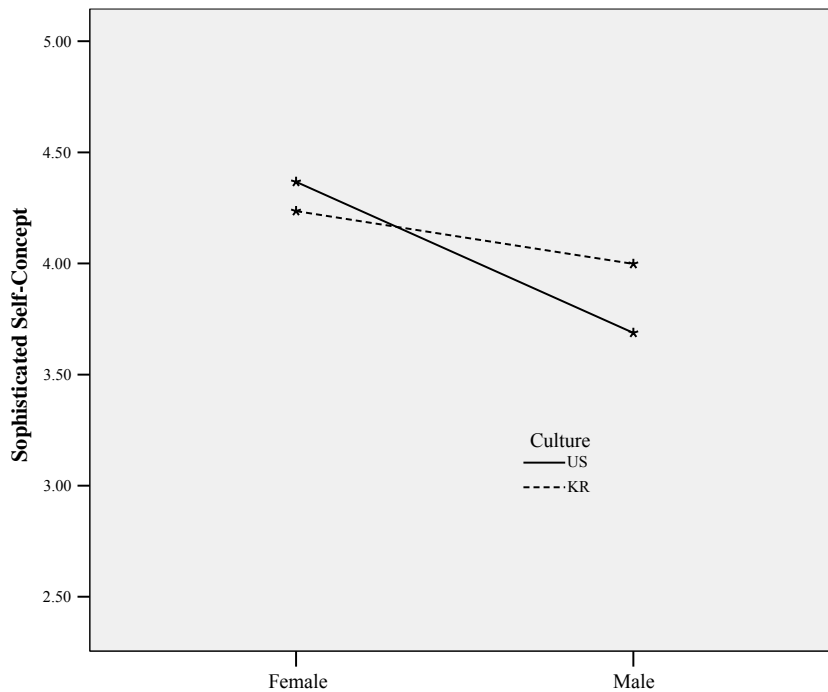
Table 5

Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Sophistication Dimension (EX1)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Corrected Model	24.190 ^a	3	8.063	6.872	.000
Intercept	6295.287	1	6295.287	5365.200	.000
Culture	.760	1	.760	.647	.422
Gender	19.965	1	19.965	17.015	.000
Culture × Gender	4.617	1	4.617	3.935	.048
Error	481.076	410	1.173		
Total	7606.360	414			
Corrected Model	505.265	413			

a. R Squared = .048 (Adjusted R Squared = .041)

Figure 2

Self-Concept Means – Sophistication Dimension (EX1)

Rugged Self-Concept. The results of a 2 (culture) \times 2 (gender) between-subjects ANOVA on the rugged self-concept yielded significant main effects for culture, $F(1, 410) = 10.32, p < .01$, and for gender, $F(1, 410) = 35.97, p < .01$. Further, the culture \times gender interaction was significant as well, $F(1, 410) = 3.99, p < .05$ (see Table 7). As displayed in Table 6, regardless of gender identification, individuals in Korea were more likely to consider themselves to be a rugged persons ($M = 3.37$) than were the U.S. participants ($M = 2.77$). In addition, regardless of culture, male participants ($M = 3.57$) were more likely to have higher mean scores on rugged personality traits (e.g., tough, rugged) than female subjects ($M = 2.72$). As qualified by a significant culture \times gender interaction effect, the results indicate that Korean female subjects had higher mean scores on the rugged self-concept ($M = 3.12$) than American

female participants had ($M = 2.45$) (see Figure 3). In sum, for the Ruggedness dimension, both cultural and gender differences were observed.

Table 6

Self-Concept Means and Standard Deviations – Ruggedness Dimension (EX1)

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Female	2.46	1.02	152
	Male	3.48	1.52	66
	Total	2.77	1.28	218
Korea	Female	3.12	1.23	100
	Male	3.64	1.36	96
	Total	3.37	1.32	196
Total	Female	2.72	1.15	252
	Male	3.57	1.42	162
	Total	3.05	1.33	414

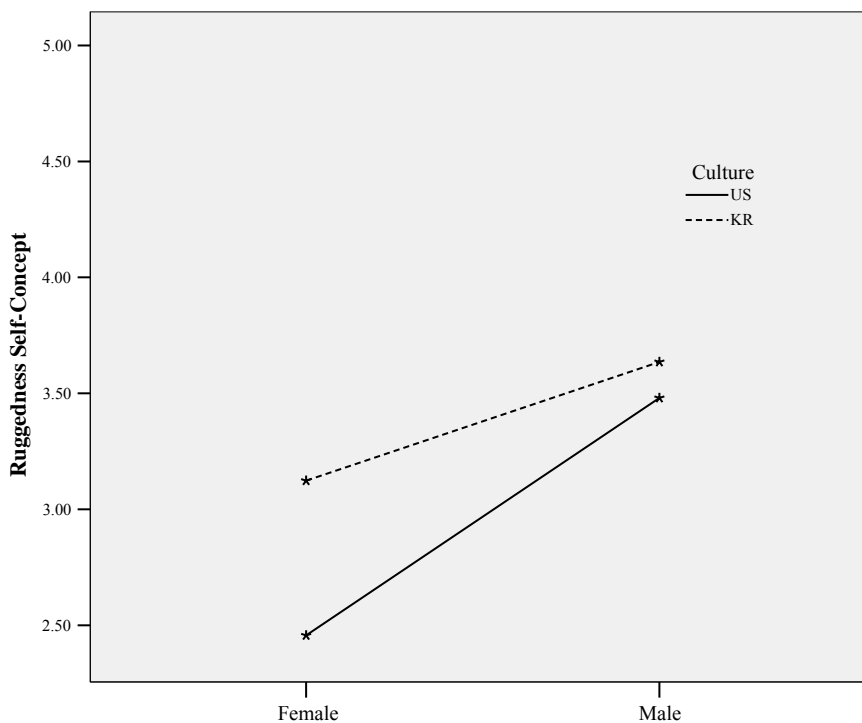
Table 7

Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Ruggedness Dimension (EX1)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Corrected Model	99.229 ^a	3	33.076	21.259	.000
Intercept	3823.632	1	3823.632	2457.581	.000
Culture	16.063	1	16.063	10.324	.001
Gender	55.959	1	55.959	35.967	.000
Culture × Gender	6.209	1	6.209	3.991	.046
Error	637.899	410	1.556		
Total	4598.333	414			
Corrected Model	737.129	413			

a. R Squared = .135 (Adjusted R Squared = .128)

Figure 3

Self-Concept Means – Ruggedness Dimension (EX1)

Trendy Self-Concept. The results of a two-way between-subjects ANOVA on the trendy self-concept index indicate non-significant main effects for culture ($F(1, 410) = 3.58, p = .06$) as well as for gender ($F(1, 410) = .59, p = .45$). However, the culture and gender interaction was significant, $F(1, 410) = 3.89, p < .05$ (see Table 9). That is, there was no statistically significant differences on self-concept mean scores for the Trendiness dimension across cultures (U.S. $M = 4.79$ vs. Korea $M = 4.62$) and gender (Female $M = 4.70$ vs. Male $M = 4.73$). However, as displayed in Figure 4, U.S. female participants were more likely to consider themselves to be trendy ($M = 4.83$) than were Korean female participants ($M = 4.51$) ($p < .05$). It was interesting to observe that female subjects had higher mean scores for the trendy self-

concept traits than male subjects in the U.S., whereas male subjects showed higher mean scores for trendy self-concept traits than female subjects in Korea.

Table 8

Self-Concept Means and Standard Deviations – Trendiness Dimension (EX1)

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Female	4.83	.79	152
	Male	4.73	.78	66
	Total	4.79	.78	218
Korea	Female	4.51	.85	100
	Male	4.73	.77	96
	Total	4.62	.82	196
Total	Female	4.70	.82	252
	Male	4.73	.77	162
	Total	4.71	.80	414

Table 9

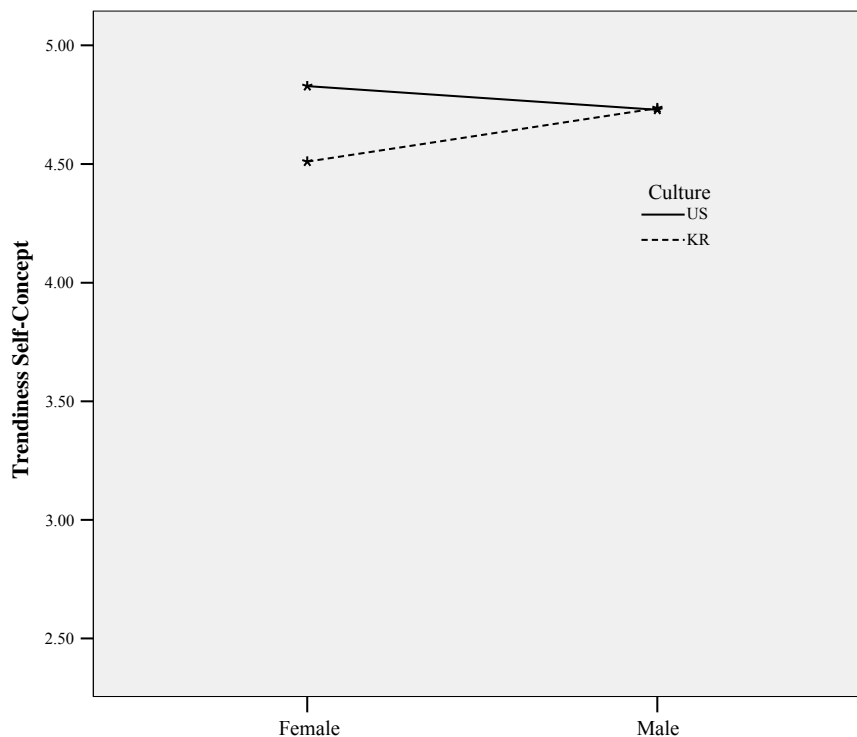
Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Trendiness Dimension (EX1)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Corrected Model	6.206 ^a	3	2.069	3.220	.023
Intercept	8388.087	1	8388.087	13055.971	.000
Culture	2.305	1	2.305	3.587	.059
Gender	.376	1	.376	.586	.445
Culture × Gender	2.505	1	2.505	3.899	.049
Error	263.413	410	.642		
Total	9469.480	414			
Corrected Model	269.619	413			

a. R Squared = .023 (Adjusted R Squared = .016)

Figure 4

Self-Concept Means – Trendiness Dimension (EX1)

**Summary of Results (RQ1 and RQ2)**

Taken together, the results of the two-way between-subjects ANOVAs suggest that both culture and gender play an important role in how consumers conceive and view themselves in terms of the three personality dimensions of Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness. For the Sophistication dimension, no cultural difference was observed, whereas the gender effect was significant. Both U.S. and Korea individuals had similar mean scores on sophisticated self-concept traits. However, females were more likely to have higher mean scores on sophisticated personality traits than males. Regarding the Ruggedness dimension, both culture and gender were found to be statistically significant. The results suggest that Korean individuals were more

likely to have higher mean scores on rugged self-concept traits (e.g., tough, rugged) than were individuals in the U.S. As intuitively expected, male subjects perceived themselves as having more rugged self-concept traits than did females subjects. Finally, neither culture nor gender was found to be significant for the Trendiness dimension. However, the findings (e.g., interaction effect) suggest that U.S. female individuals had somewhat higher ratings on trendy self-concept traits such as different, new, trendy, and unique than did Korean females. Overall, the impact of culture and gender was even stronger when the two factors were combined, evidenced by a two-way interaction effect for each of the three dimensions. The results of Experiment 1 are replicated with different groups of individuals in the U.S. and Korea in Experiment 2. In Experiment 2, in addition to the three dimensions examined in Experiment 1, two dimensions (Competence and Likeableness) are added and examined to see if cultural and gender differences are observed.

Self Congruity Hypothesis in the U.S. and Korea (H1 and H2)

To test the self congruity hypotheses in the U.S. (H1) and Korea (H2), a 2 (culture: U.S. vs. Korea) \times 3 (self-concept index: low vs. moderate vs. high) between-subjects analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted for each of the three dimensions (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness). The dependent variable was the pre-brand attitude measure (a composite measure of five items). Because the objective of the study was to test the self congruity effect at personality-dimension levels, rather than a single product category or a brand level, the two product categories were averaged in the subsequent hypothesis testing analyses. Gender was included as a covariate. Although the gender proportion was equally distributed in the Korean data set (i.e., male = 49% vs. female = 51%), the same gender proportion was not

found in the U.S. data set (i.e., male = 30.3% vs. female 69.7%). Further, both the main effect of gender and consistent gender \times culture interaction effect on self-concept ratings for the three dimensions suggest that the gender effect needs to be controlled. Thus, gender was included as a covariate in the following hypothesis testing of the three personality dimensions.

Self Congruity - Sophistication Dimension. As shown in Table 11, a 2×3 ANCOVA on pre-attitudes toward the sophisticated brands yielded a significant main effect for sophisticated self-concept, $F(2, 407) = 17.93, p < .01$. However, the results indicate that a main effect of culture was not statistically significant, $F(1, 407) = .69, p = .41$. Further, the culture \times self-concept interaction, $F(2, 407) = .27, p = .76$, and the gender (covariate), $F(1, 407) = .03, p = .86$, were not significant. These results indicate that both U.S. and Korean participants who rated themselves high on sophisticated self-concept traits such as upper-class, glamorous, and charming were more likely to show positive attitudes toward the sophisticated brands such as Rolex and Ralph Lauren ($M = 5.11$) than the other self-concept groups (e.g., low sophisticated self-concept $M = 4.31$; moderate sophisticated self-concept $M = 4.79$) (see Table 10). That is, in support of H1 and H2, regardless of individuals' cultures, the greater the congruity of self-concepts with the personality traits of the brands (i.e., congruity between sophisticated self-concept and the perceived personalities of Rolex), the greater the likelihood that the consumers show positive attitudes toward the brands. If consumers possess sophisticated self-concepts, they are more likely to prefer, use, buy, and be interested in the brands that are viewed as having sophisticated personality traits. In line with prior literature on self congruity (e.g., Birdwell 1968; Dolich 1969; Douglas et al. 1967; Gardner and Levy 1955; Grubb and Hupp 1968; Kassarian 1971; Levy 1959; Sirgy 1982), the findings of Experiment 1 support the self congruity hypothesis for the Sophistication dimension in the U.S. and Korea. Namely, consumers prefer

brands associated with a set of personality traits congruent with their own (Kassarjian 1971), supporting H1 and H2 (see Figure 5).

Table 10

Attitude Means and Standard Deviations – Sophistication Dimension (EX1)

Self-Concept – Sophistication		<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Low	4.31	1.24	78
	Moderate	4.75	1.26	70
	High	5.02	.93	70
Korea	Low	4.31	1.06	69
	Moderate	4.83	.99	66
	High	5.21	1.03	61
Total	Low	4.31	1.15	147
	Moderate	4.79	1.13	136
	High	5.11	.98	131

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

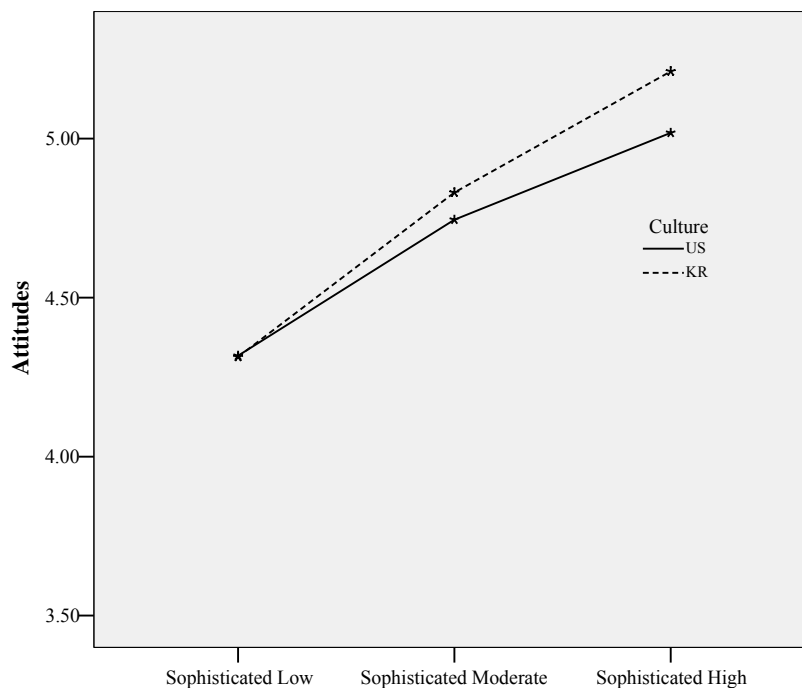
Table 11

Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Sophistication Dimension (EX1)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Corrected Model	46.315 ^a	6	7.719	6.369	.000
Intercept	5445.357	1	5445.357	4492.738	.000
Gender	.038	1	.038	.031	.860
Culture	.832	1	.832	.686	.408
Self-Concept	43.465	2	21.732	17.931	.000
Culture × Self-Concept	.663	2	.332	.274	.761
Error	493.298	407	1.212		
Total	9767.780	414			
Corrected Total	539.613	413			

a. R Squared = .086 (Adjusted R Squared = .072)

Figure 5

Self Congruity – Sophistication Dimension (EX1)

Self Congruity – Ruggedness Dimension. Table 13 and Figure 6 present a summary of the 2×3 ANCOVA results for the Ruggedness dimension. Similar to those of the Sophistication dimension, the results of a 2×3 ANCOVA on pre-brand attitude toward rugged brands such as Timberland, North Face, Swiss Army, and Tag Hauer yielded a significant main effect for rugged self-concept, $F(2, 394) = 5.66, p < .01$, but a non-significant main effect for culture, $F(1, 394) = .45, p = .50$. Neither the culture \times self-concept ($F = .39, p = .68$) or a covariate of gender ($F = .55, p = .46$) were significant, indicating that neither a cultural nor gender differences was observed in the Ruggedness dimension. Therefore, similar to that of the Sophistication dimension, the ANCOVA results indicate that regardless of cultural background, consumers who perceive themselves to have a rugged self-concept were more likely to have positive attitudes

toward the rugged brands ($M = 4.45$) than individuals with either low ($M = 4.01$) or moderate ($M = 4.10$) rugged self-concepts (see Tables 12 and Figure 6). Overall, the findings replicate the results of the Sophistication dimension and show that the self congruity hypothesis is supported for the Ruggedness dimension in both the U.S. and in Korea, thereby supporting H1 and H2.

Table 12

Attitude Means and Standard Deviations – Ruggedness Dimension (EX1)

Self-Concept – Ruggedness		Mean	S.D.	N
U.S.	Low	3.89	1.01	99
	Moderate	4.15	1.11	63
	High	4.53	1.14	56
Korea	Low	4.06	.92	54
	Moderate	4.04	.80	50
	High	4.39	1.15	79
Total	Low	4.01	.98	153
	Moderate	4.10	.98	113
	High	4.45	1.14	135

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

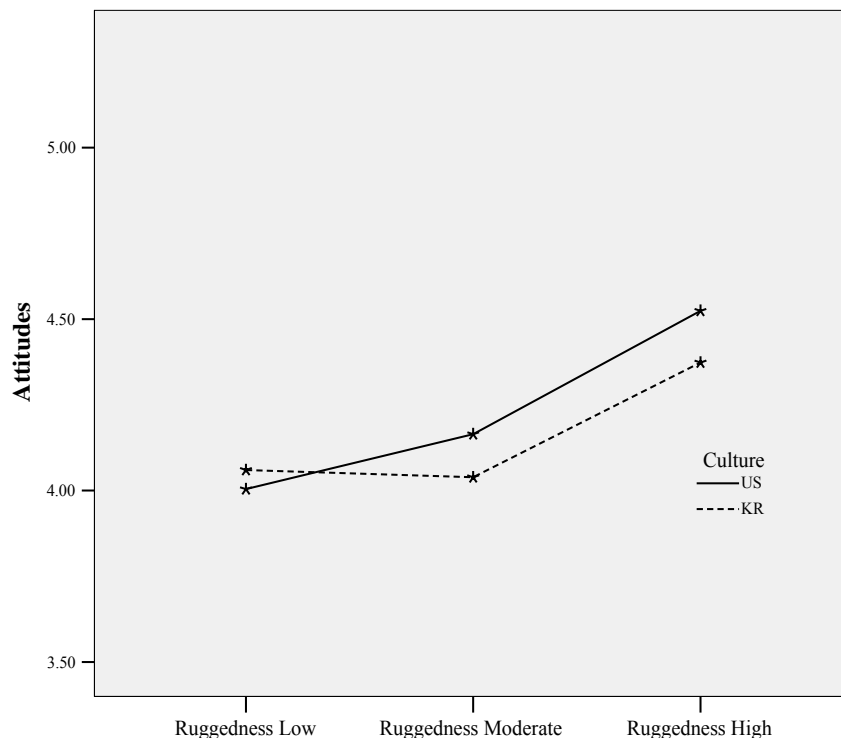
Table 13

Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Ruggedness Dimension (EX1)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	16.583 ^a	6	2.764	2.530	.020
Intercept	3762.441	1	3762.441	3444.689	.000
Gender	.602	1	.602	.551	.458
Culture	.496	1	.496	.454	.501
Self-Concept	12.364	2	6.182	5.660	.004
Culture × Self-Concept	.852	2	.426	.390	.677
Error	430.344	394	1.092		
Total	7475.280	401			
Corrected Model	446.927	400			

a. R Squared = .037 (Adjusted R Squared = .022)

Figure 6

Self Congruity – Ruggedness Dimension (EX1)

Self Congruity – Trendiness Dimension. Finally, the self congruity hypothesis was tested for the Trendiness dimension across two cultures. The results of a 2×3 ANCOVA on the pre-attitude toward the trendy brands yielded statistically significant main effects for culture, $F(1, 399) = 15.72, p < .01$, as well as for self-concept, $F(2, 399) = 4.69, p < .01$. Further, the gender (covariate) effect was significant, $F(1, 399) = 5.69, p < .05$. However, the culture \times self-concept interaction was not significant ($F = .65, p = .52$) (see Table 15). As displayed in Figure 7, in support of the self-congruity hypothesis for the Trendiness dimension, results of a 2×3 ANCOVA yielded similar findings to those of the Sophistication and Ruggedness dimensions. Overall, individuals who had high mean scores on trendy self-concept traits such as different,

new, trendy, and unique, showed more positive attitudes ($M = 4.17$) toward the trendy brands such as Diesel, Swatch, and Technomarine than those individuals with either low ($M = 3.81$) or moderate trendy self-concepts ($M = 4.05$) (see Table 14). However, as displayed in Figure 7, the results indicate that Korean individuals with both moderate and high trendy self-concepts exhibited more positive attitudes toward trendy brands ($M = 4.37$ and $M = 4.31$, respectively) than individuals with a low trendy self-concept ($M = 3.98$). Also, the significant main effect of culture ($p < .001$) indicates that across all trendy self-concept categories (low, moderate, and high) Korean consumers have more positive attitudes toward trendy brands than do the U.S. consumers. Overall, the findings of Experiment 1 still suggest that there is a positive relationship between consumer-brand congruity and brand evaluation not only in the U.S. but also in Korea. Thus, consistent with the findings from the Sophistication and Ruggedness dimensions, H1 and H2 were supported for the Trendiness dimension.

Table 14

Attitude Means and Standard Deviations – Trendiness Dimension (EX1)

	Self-Concept - Sophisticated	Mean	S.D.	N
U.S.	Low	3.63	.98	68
	Moderate	3.82	1.00	74
	High	4.05	1.21	76
Korea	Low	3.98	1.05	71
	Moderate	4.37	.96	55
	High	4.31	1.33	62
Total	Low	3.81	1.03	139
	Moderate	4.05	1.02	129
	High	4.17	1.27	138

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

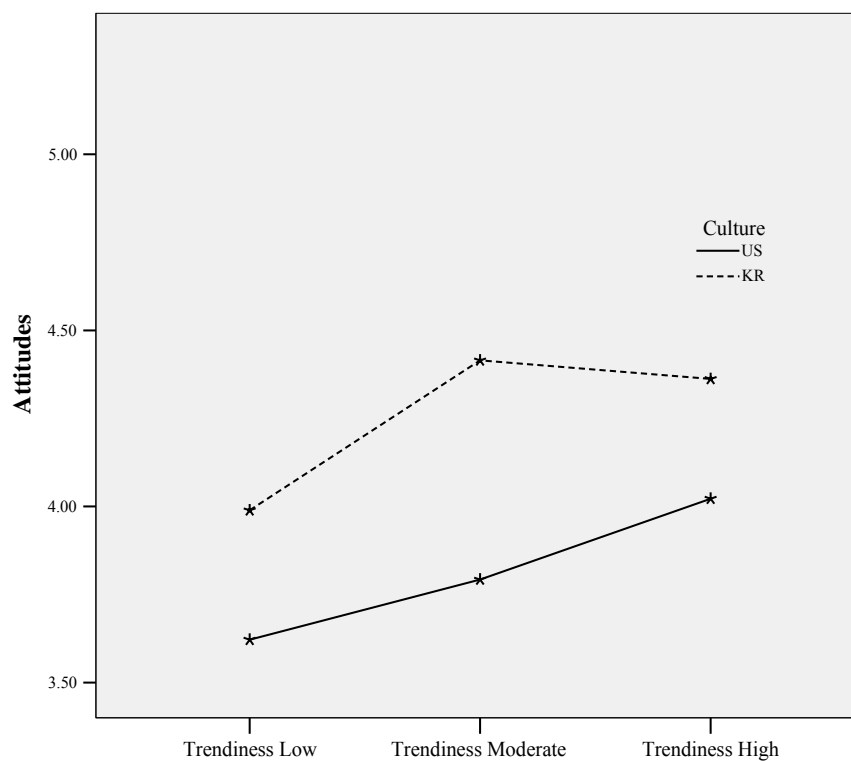
Table 15

Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Trendiness Dimension (EX1)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	32.392 ^a	6	5.399	4.491	.000
Intercept	4027.908	1	4027.908	3350.612	.000
Gender	6.845	1	6.845	5.694	.017
Culture	18.892	1	18.892	15.716	.000
Self-Concept	11.267	2	5.633	4.686	.010
Culture × Self-Concept	1.568	2	.784	.652	.522
Error	479.654	399	1.202		
Total	7048.910	406			
Corrected Model	512.046	405			

a. R Squared = .063 (Adjusted R Squared = .049)

Figure 7

Self Congruity – Trendiness Dimension (EX1)

Summary of Results (H1 and H2)

The goal of both H1 and H2 was to test the impact of brand personality as a form of self-expression on consumer attitudes toward commercial brands in the U.S. and Korea, respectively. Based on the premise that consumers prefer brands with personality traits congruent with their self-concepts, the self congruity hypothesis was tested with a set of real brands across cultures. The 2×3 ANCOVA results for each of the three dimensions appear promising. As predicted by H1 and H2, consumers' attitudes (e.g., preference and likelihood to buy) toward the brands were increased when consumers' self-concepts were congruent, versus incongruent, with personality traits of the brands. Self-concept was a significant factor in consumers' attitudes toward the brands for all three dimensions tested. However, a cultural difference was found only in the Trendiness dimension. That is, across three trendy self-concept groups, individuals in Korea have more positive attitudes toward trendy brands than do individuals in the U.S. In sum, the findings of Experiment 1 provide strong support for H1 and H2. That is, regardless of culture, consumers tend to form positive attitudes toward the brands which possess congruent personality traits with consumers' self-concepts.

Although self congruity was generally supported in Experiment 1, only three dimensions were tested. In Experiment 2, the self congruity hypothesis is tested using five dimensions. In addition, all real brands used in Experiment 1 were familiar and had strong personalities. Thus, it would be interesting to see if the same results of self congruity effect are found across cultures, but with fictitious brands that are less familiar and have less salient brand personalities and images in consumers' minds.

Situation Congruity Hypothesis in the U.S. and Korea (H3, H4, and H5)

To test the situation congruity hypothesis in the U.S. and Korea, a 2 (culture: U.S. vs. Korea) \times 3 (self-concept: low-moderate-high) \times 3 (different social situations) mixed design ANCOVA on the post-brand attitude index was conducted. Both culture and self-concept were entered as between-subjects factors and the three social situations (sophisticated, rugged, and trendy situation) were entered as a within-subjects factor. Two covariates were included: (1) the order of the social situations manipulation, and (2) gender. Neither was significant. Further, the pre-brand attitude index for each dimension was included as a covariate to control for the effect of consumers' attitudes toward the brands before social situations were presented.

Situation congruity: Sophistication dimension. First, the results of the 2 \times 3 \times 3 mixed design ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the sophisticated brands suggest that the within-subjects main effect of the social situation types was statistically significant, $F(2, 796) = 13.39, p < .001$. The nature of this effect was determined using a Bonferroni pairwise comparisons test. Results indicate that the attitude toward the sophisticated brands in the rugged situation ($M = 3.75, SD = 1.39$), trendy situation ($M = 5.06, SD = 1.22$), and sophisticated situation ($M = 5.65, SD = 1.14$) all differed significantly from one another ($p < .001$). That is, as predicted in H3 (consumers will have more positive attitudes toward the brands associated with a set of personality traits congruent with social situation), the sophisticated brands were evaluated most positively when the nature of situation was congruent with the personality traits of the brands (e.g., sophisticated brands such as Rolex and Ralph Lauren for a New Year's annual party in a hotel ballroom), thereby supporting H3. The sophisticated brands, however, appeared to be least acceptable in a rugged situation (e.g., mountain bike). In contrast, participants showed more positive attitudes toward the sophisticated brands in the trendy situation than in the rugged

situation, suggesting that the sophisticated brands can be used not only in sophisticated situations but also in trendy situations (see Figure 8).

Second, the between-subjects main effect of culture ($F(1, 398) = 2.83, p = .09$) and sophisticated self-concept ($F(2, 398) = .89, p = .41$) were found not to be statistically significant. That is, self-concept does not appear to be a significant factor when consumers are faced with different social situations. Regardless of culture, situation congruity shows stronger effects than self congruity when a congruent situation was presented. However, the effect of pre-attitude (covariate) on sophisticated brands was significant, $F(1, 398) = 142.92, p < .001$, suggesting that pre-brand attitude influenced the subsequent brand evaluations across social situations. Further, the interaction effects of situation types \times culture ($F(2, 796) = 34.99, p < .001$) and situation types \times pre-attitude ($F(2, 796) = 9.96, p < .001$) were found to be significant. Although the results indicate non-significant main effect of culture, the culture \times situation interaction suggests cultural differences. For example, as displayed in Figure 8, U.S. subjects show greater attitude change than do Korean participants across the three social situations. Further, U.S. participants ($M = 3.49$) were less likely to accept the sophisticated brands in the rugged situation than Korean participants were ($M = 4.05$). However, across the three self-concept groups, when the personality traits were congruent with the situation, U.S. participants showed ($M = 5.91$) more positive attitudes toward the brands than Koreans did ($M = 5.35$) (see Table 16). Thus, the results fail to support H4, which predicted that the situation congruity effects will be more evident in Korea than in the U.S.

Third, as displayed in Figure 8, the self congruity effect was found for the rugged situation in the U.S. though the same pattern was not found for the trendy situation. That is, when the situation was not congruent with the personality traits of the brand, the attitudes toward

the sophisticated brands were determined by the level of self-concepts (e.g., low = 3.34, moderate = 3.46, high = 3.79). However, the self congruity effect was not observed in any of the three situations in Korea, thereby partially supporting H5 which predict that the self congruity effects will be more evident in the U.S. than in Korea. .

In sum, on the basis of the results of the $2 \times 3 \times 3$ mixed design ANCOVA on the attitude toward the sophisticated brands, the situation congruity hypothesis (H3) is supported not only in the U.S. but also in Korea. However, H4, which predicts that situation congruity will be more evident in Korea, was not supported for the Sophistication dimension in Experiment 1. Finally, the results of Experiment 1 partially support H5 for the Sophistication dimension, which predicted that self congruity will be more evident in the U.S.

Table 16

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Sophisticated Brands Attitudes
by Culture and Sophisticated Self-Concept (EX1)

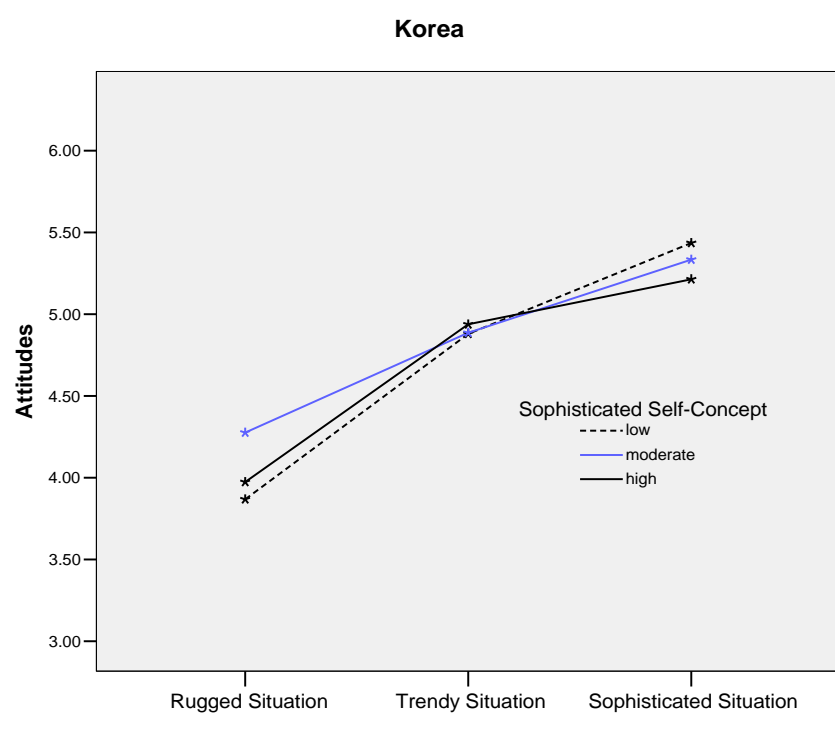
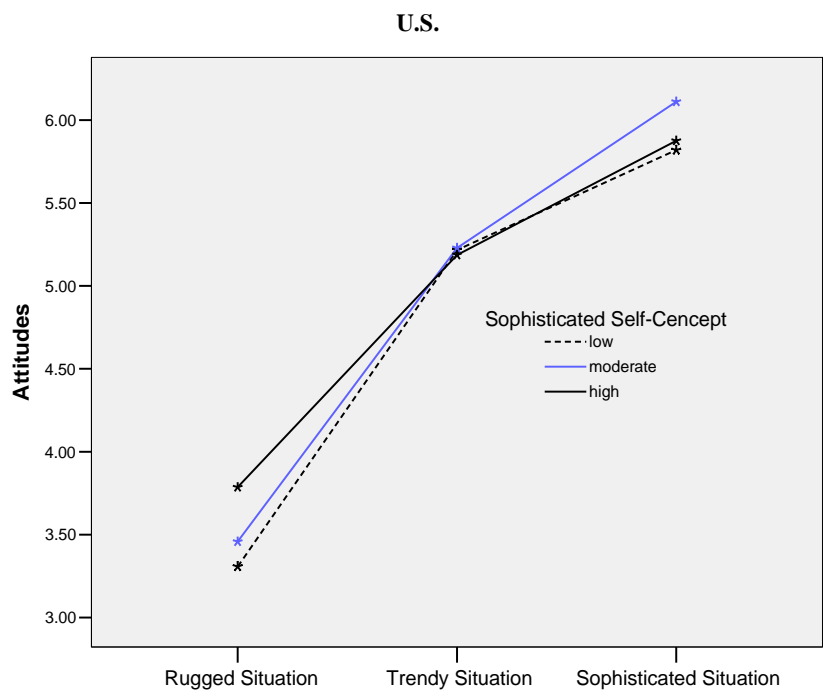
	U.S.			Korea		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Rugged Situation	3.31 (.15) N = 76	3.46 (.12) N = 69	3.79 (.12) N = 68	3.87 (.16) N = 69	4.28 (.17) N = 63	3.97 (.17) N = 60
	Total Mean = 3.51			Total Mean = 4.04		
Trendy Situation	5.21 (.16) N = 76	5.23 (.12) N = 69	5.19 (.13) N = 68	4.88 (.13) N = 69	4.88 (.13) N = 63	4.94 (.14) N = 60
	Total Mean = 5.21			Total Mean = 4.90		
Sophisticated Situation	5.82 (.12) N = 76	6.11 (.12) N = 69	5.88 (.12) N = 68	5.43 (.12) N = 69	5.33 (.13) N = 63	5.21 (.13) N = 60
	Total Mean = 5.93			Total Mean = 5.33		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-sophisticated brand attitude index = 4.72.

Figure 8

Situation Congruity – Sophistication Dimension (EX1)



Situation congruity: Ruggedness dimension. A $2 \times 3 \times 3$ ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the rugged brands yielded a significant within-subjects main effect of situations, $F(2, 770) = 36.85, p < .001$. The nature of this effect was examined using a Bonferroni pairwise comparisons test. Similar to those of the Sophistication dimension, the results suggest that the attitudes toward the rugged brands in the rugged situation ($M = 5.31, SD = 1.16$), the trendy situation ($M = 3.69, SD = 1.22$), and the sophisticated situation ($M = 3.27, SD = 1.21$) all differed significantly from one another ($p < .001$). In support of H3, regardless of cultures, the rugged brands were evaluated most positively when the nature of the social situation is compatible with the personality traits of the brands (e.g., Timberland, North Face, Swiss Army, and Tag Hauer in mountain biking and hiking). In contrast, an incongruent situation with the personality traits of the brands (e.g., North Face in a New Year's party at hotel ballroom) results in the lowest brand attitudes not only in the U.S. but also in Korea (see Figure 9), thereby replicating the results of the Sophistication dimension which suggest that sophisticated brands were most negatively evaluated in rugged situation across cultures.

Unlike the Sophistication dimension, however, the between-subjects main effect of culture, $F(1, 385) = 12.81, p < .001$, and the rugged self-concept, $F(2, 385) = 3.20, p < .05$, were found to be statistically significant. However, a non-significant culture \times self-concept interaction was found, $F(2, 385) = .03, p = .97$. In addition, a covariate of pre-attitude on rugged brand was significant, $F(1, 385) = 125.80, p < .001$, replicating the findings for the Sophistication dimension. It suggests that pre-brand attitudes have a significant effect on brand evaluations in different social situations. As shown in Table 17, the results indicate that both U.S. and Korean participants evaluated the rugged brands very similarly in the trendy situation (U.S. $M = 3.21$; Korea $M = 3.35$) as well as in the sophisticated situation (U.S. $M = 3.69$; Korea $M = 3.68$).

However, U.S. participants evaluated the rugged brands in the rugged situation more positively ($M = 5.70$) than individuals in Korea ($M = 4.86$), suggesting that consumers in the U.S. showed the greater attitude changes for the rugged brands when a situation that was congruent with the personality traits of the rugged brands was presented (see Figure 9). Thus, the results of Experiment 1 for the Ruggedness dimension provide no support for H4, which predicted that the situation congruity effects will be more evident in Korea than in the U.S.

Further, two-way interaction effects of situation types \times culture ($F(2, 770) = 23.50, p < .001$) and situation types \times self-concept ($F(4, 770) = 4.35, p < .01$) were found to be statistically significant. However, a three-way interaction of situation types \times culture \times self-concept was not significant, $F(4, 770) = .59, p = .67$. As displayed in Figure 9, a self congruity effects were found for the trendy situation for U.S. individuals whereas it was observed in the sophisticated situation for Korean individuals. That is, when rugged brands were presented in a trendy situation, the attitudes toward the rugged brand were determined by the level of rugged self-concept in the U.S. Similarly, when rugged brands were presented with a sophisticated situation in Korea, a self congruity effect was observed. Thus, the results suggest that both situation congruity and self congruity effects are observed not only in the U.S. but also in Korea, providing no support for H5. Overall findings suggest that rugged brand attitudes tend to be determined by the level of rugged self-concept if social situations were not congruent with the personality traits of the brands.

Interestingly, subsequent contrasts indicate that regardless of cultures, among the three self-concept groups, individuals with low rugged self-concepts had the lowest attitude mean scores in incongruent situations such as the sophisticated and trendy situations. However, they evaluated the rugged brands most positively when the congruent situation (with brand

personality traits) was presented, thereby suggesting that the situation congruity effect was a stronger factor than the self congruity effect when the situation was congruent versus incongruent with the personality traits of the brands.

In sum, consistent with the Sophistication dimension, the results of the ANCOVA for the Ruggedness dimension in Experiment 1 provide strong support for the situation congruity hypothesis not only in the U.S. but also in Korea (H3). However, based on the findings of Experiment 1, neither H4 nor H5 was supported for the Ruggedness dimension.

Table 17

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Rugged Brands Attitudes
by Culture and Rugged Self-Concept (EX1)

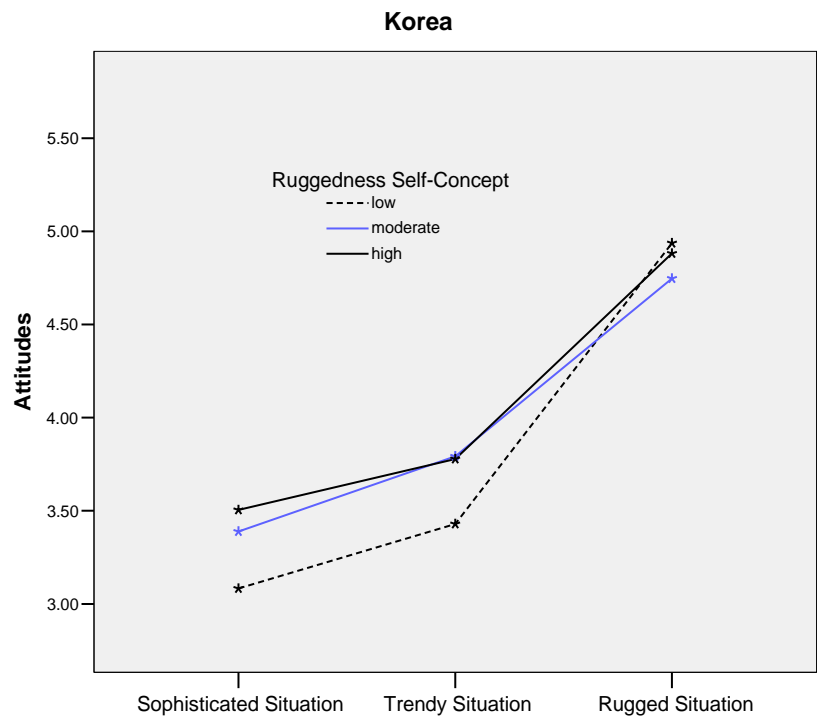
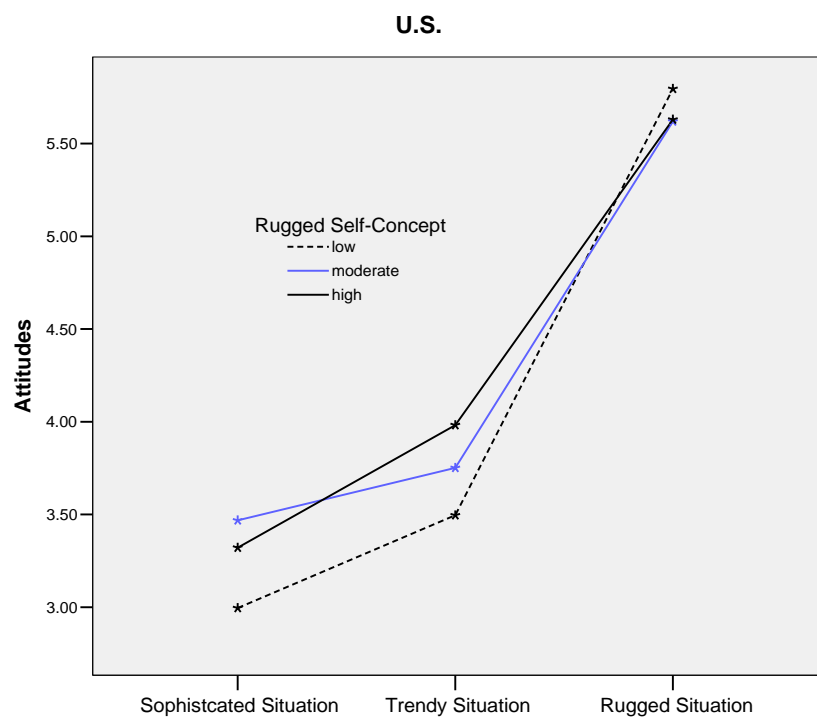
	U.S.			Korea		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Sophisticated Situation	2.99 (.11) N = 97	3.47 (.14) N = 60	3.32 (.15) N = 56	3.08 (.15) N = 51	3.39 (.16) N = 49	3.50 (.12) N = 79
	Total Mean = 3.26			Total Mean = 3.33		
Trendy Situation	3.49 (.11) N = 97	3.75 (.14) N = 60	3.98 (.15) N = 56	3.43 (.15) N = 51	3.79 (.16) N = 49	3.77 (.12) N = 79
	Total Mean = 3.74			Total Mean = 3.67		
Rugged Situation	5.79 (.10) N = 97	5.62 (.13) N = 60	5.63 (.14) N = 56	4.94 (.14) N = 51	4.75 (.15) N = 49	4.88 (.12) N = 79
	Total Mean = 5.68			Total Mean = 4.86		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-rugged brand attitude index = 4.19.

Figure 9

Situation Congruity – Ruggedness Dimension (EX1)



Situation Congruity: Trendiness dimension. The results of the ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the trendy brands indicate that the within-subjects main effect of the social situation was statistically significant, $F(2, 786) = 3.70, p < .05$. The nature of this effect was determined using a Bonferroni pairwise comparisons test. The results suggest that the attitudes toward the trendy brands in all three situations differed and three pairwise comparisons were statistically significant ($p < .001$). In support of H3, individuals in the U.S. and Korea had the most positive attitudes toward the trendy brands such as Diesel, Swatch, and Technomarine in a trendy social situation ($M = 4.56, SD = 1.27$), followed by a rugged situation ($M = 4.17, SD = 1.09$) and a sophisticated situation ($M = 3.87, SD = 1.31$). However, as displayed in Figure 10, there was a cultural difference in that how individuals in the U.S. and Korea evaluated the trendy brands across social situations differed.

In addition, as displayed in Figure 10, although the main effect of self-concept was not significant ($F(2, 393) = 2.62, p = 0.7$), the main effect of culture was significant, $F(1, 393) = 26.08, p < .001$. Further, an interaction of the two between-subjects factors (culture \times self-concept) was not significant, $F(2, 393) = .43, p = .65$. A situation types \times self-concept interaction was not significant as well, $F(4, 786) = .95, p = .44$. That is, the results of Experiment 1 for the Trendiness dimension suggest that the self congruity effect was not observed either in the U.S. or in Korea, providing no support for H5.

As displayed in Figure 10, regardless of their levels of trendy self-concepts, the U.S. individuals showed the least positive attitudes toward the trendy brands in a sophisticated situation ($M = 3.47$) whereas Korea participants generally had the lowest attitude mean scores for the trendy brands in a rugged situation ($M = 4.17$) (except the moderate self-concept group, see Table 18). This finding was qualified by a two-way interaction of situation types \times culture, $F(2,$

786) = 20.80, $p < .001$. Further, a three-way interaction of situation types \times culture \times trendy self-concept was significant as well, $F(4, 796) = 3.12, p < .05$. That is, as displayed in Figure 10, when the congruent situation was presented (i.e., trendy situation), Korean individuals with high trendy self-concepts showed greater attitude changes ($M = 5.15$) than individuals with either low ($M = 4.63$) or moderate ($M = 4.58$) trendy self-concepts, whereas the same pattern was not observed in the U.S. Overall, as shown in Table 18, individuals in Korea evaluated the trendy brands more positively ($M = 4.79$) than individuals in the U.S. ($M = 4.35$) when the situation was congruent with the personality traits of the brands. On the basis of the results of the ANCOVA for the Trendiness dimension, H4 was supported.

More important, the results suggest that the U.S. subjects evaluated the trendy brands very similarly in both a rugged situation ($M = 4.21$) and trendy situation ($M = 4.35$), suggesting that the brands with trendy personality traits can be used and accepted not only in the trendy situation (e.g., club party), but also in the rugged situation (e.g., mountain biking) in the U.S. However, the same pattern was not found in Korea (see Figure 10). A covariate of pre-attitude on trendy brands was significant, $F(1, 393) = 106.92, p < .001$, replicating the findings for the Sophistication and Ruggedness dimensions. Thus, the results demonstrate that pre-brand attitudes had significant effects on the follow up brand evaluations across social situations.

In sum, on the basis of the results of the $2 \times 2 \times 3$ ANCOVA on the trendy brand attitudes, the situation congruity hypothesis (H3) was supported for the Trendiness dimension in both cultures. As noted, although the situation congruity hypothesis was supported, some meaningful cultural differences were observed for the Trendiness dimension. That is, the sophisticated situation was the least acceptable situation for the trendy brands in the U.S., whereas the rugged situation was the least acceptable in Korea. Further, regardless of self-

concept, individuals in the U.S. had similar mean attitude scores for the three situations. However, individuals in Korea had somewhat different attitudes toward the trendy brands depending on both situation and self-concept. Regarding H4, unlike the two dimensions tested earlier (Sophistication and Ruggedness) situation congruity appeared to be more evident in Korea than in the U.S., thereby supporting H4 for the Trendiness dimension. Finally, no self congruity was observed across cultures after controlling for prior brand attitude. Thus, the results of Experiment 1 provide no support for H5 in the Trendiness dimension.

Table 18

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Trendy Brands Attitudes
by Culture and Trendy Self-Concept (EX1)

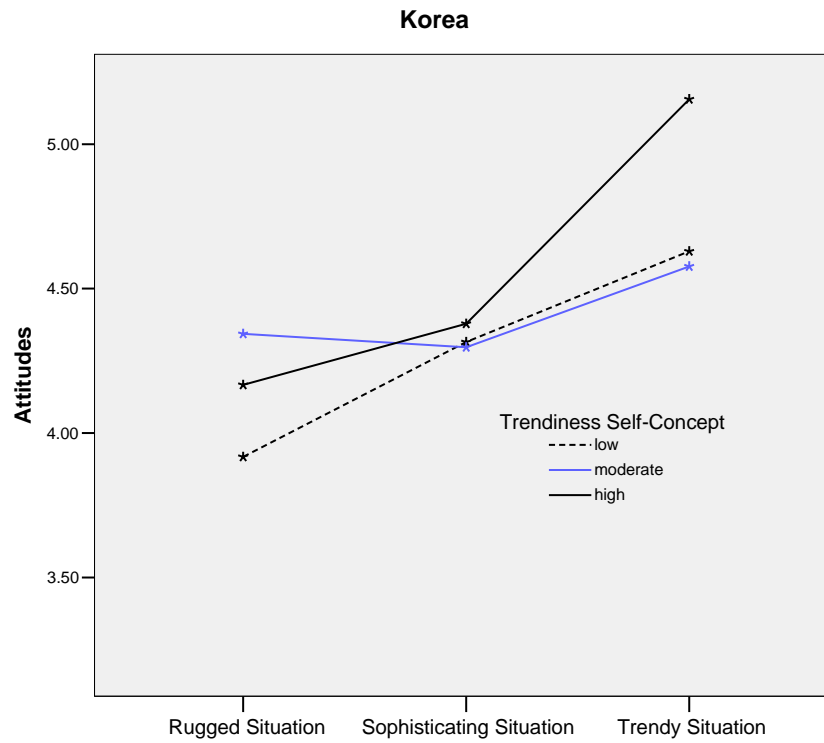
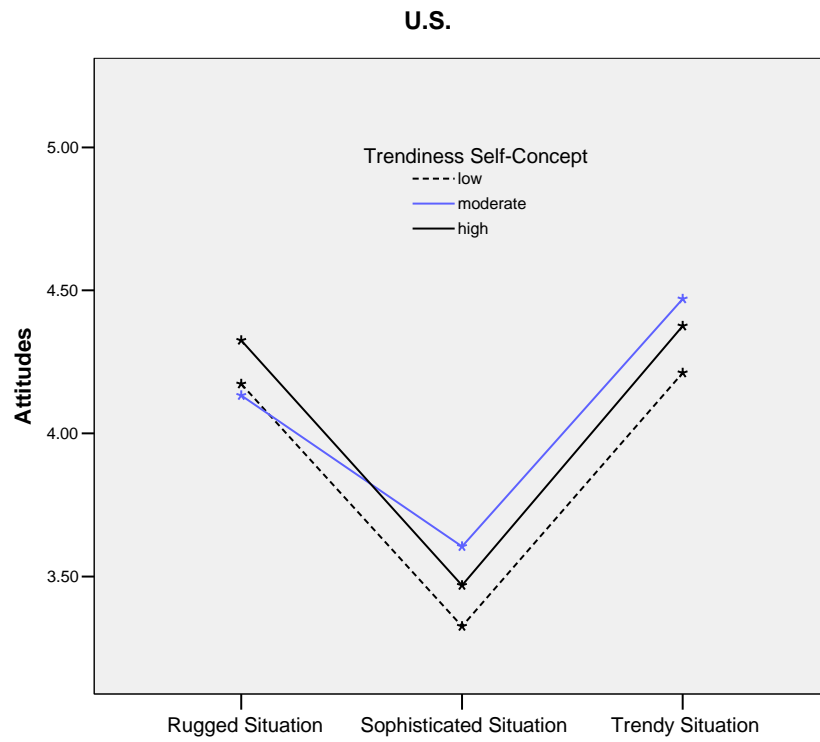
	U.S.			Korea		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Rugged Situation	4.17 (.11) N = 97	4.13 (.14) N = 60	4.33 (.15) N = 56	3.92 (.15) N = 51	4.34 (.16) N = 49	4.17 (.12) N = 79
	Total Mean = 4.21			Total Mean = 4.14		
Sophisticated Situation	3.33 (.11) N = 97	3.60 (.14) N = 60	3.47 (.15) N = 56	4.32 (.15) N = 51	4.30 (.16) N = 49	4.38 (.12) N = 79
	Total Mean = 3.47			Total Mean = 4.33		
Trendy Situation	4.21 (.10) N = 97	4.47 (.13) N = 60	4.38 (.14) N = 56	4.63 (.14) N = 51	4.58 (.15) N = 49	5.15 (.12) N = 79
	Total Mean = 4.35			Total Mean = 4.79		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-trendy brand attitude index = 4.02.

Figure 10

Situation Congruity – Trendiness Dimension (EX1)



Summary of Results (H3, H4, and H5)

The goal of H3, H4, and H5 was to test the impact of the interplay of the social situation and brand personality (situation congruity) as a form of self-expression on consumer attitudes in the U.S. and Korea. Based on the premise that consumers prefer brands with personality traits congruent with those of social situations, the situation congruity effects were examined using a set of real brands across cultures. The results of the $2 \times 3 \times 3$ ANCOVA suggest that as predicted in H3, the situation congruity effect, for which brand attitude increases when the situations are congruent versus incongruent with the personality traits of the brand, was supported across the three dimensions (Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness) and cultures. That is, regardless of culture, consumers preferred commercial brands with personality traits that are congruent, rather than incongruent, with the social situation.

Further, the results indicate that there were main effects of culture (except for the Sophistication dimension) as well as a culture \times situation interaction effects across the three dimensions, suggesting that the situation congruity effect appeared to form different patterns for each culture. As noted, mixed results were found for H4 which predicted that situation congruity will be more evident in Korea than in the U.S. That is, for the Sophistication and Ruggedness dimensions, U.S. individuals showed greater attitude changes when the situation was congruent with the personality traits of the brand than Korean individuals did. However, Korean subjects had more positive attitudes toward the trendy brands in the trendy situation than individuals in the U.S., suggesting that the situation congruity effect was more evident for the Trendiness dimension in Korea than in the U.S. Therefore, H4 was partially supported in Experiment 1.

Regarding H5, a self congruity effect was found in the rugged situation (for sophisticated brands) as well as the trendy situation (for rugged brands) in the U.S. In Korea, self

congruity was observed in the sophisticated situation for the rugged brands. Therefore, the overall results of Experiment 1 indicate that the self congruity effect was marginally more evident in the U.S. than in Korea, supporting H5. In sum, although situation congruity predictions (H3) were strongly supported in Experiment 1, two hypotheses (H4 and H5) were not supported or partially supported depending on the personality dimension tested. The methods of Experiment 1 are replicated in Experiment 2 with the same procedure and design, but with two additional personality dimensions (Competence and Likeableness), and using fictitious rather than real brands in the apparel and watch product categories.

The Role of Self-Monitoring in Self and Situation Congruity (H6 and H7)

Finally, this research predicts that the situation congruity effects will be more evident for high self-monitors than for low self monitors (H6) whereas the self congruity effects will be more evident for low self-monitors than for high self monitors (H7). To test for a moderating role of self-monitoring on situation congruity, a 2 (Self-Monitoring: low vs. high) \times 3 (Self-Concept: low vs. moderate vs. high) \times 2 (Situation Types: incongruent vs. congruent situation) mixed design ANCOVA was conducted for each dimension. Both self-monitoring and self-concept were entered as between-subjects factors and two social situation types (incongruent vs. congruent) were entered as a within-subjects factor. Of three situations tested for each dimension, two situations that are incongruent with the brand personality traits were combined. For example, for the Sophistication dimension, brand attitude mean scores for the trendy and rugged situations were combined and served as the incongruent situation brand evaluation, and mean scores for the sophisticated situation served as a congruent situation brand evaluation. Further, two covariates were included: (1) the order of the social situation manipulation, and (2)

gender. Neither was significant. Finally, the pre-brand attitude index for each dimension was included as a covariate. Note that H6 and H7 were tested with two pooled data sets (U.S. and Korea).

Self-Monitoring Interaction: Sophistication dimension. First, the results of the $2 \times 3 \times 2$ mixed design ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the sophisticated brands suggest that the within-subjects main effect of the social situation types was statistically significant, $F(1, 398) = 29.77, p < .001$. In line with the findings for H3, the sophisticated brands were evaluated more positively in the congruent (sophisticated) situation ($M = 5.64$) than in the incongruent (trendy and rugged) situations ($M = 4.41$). Further, the between-subjects main effect of self-monitoring was found to be significant, $F(1, 398) = 5.67, p < .05$. However, main effects for sophisticated self-concept, $F(2, 398) = .59, p = .55$, and a self-concept \times self-monitoring interaction, $F(2, 398) = 2.66, p = .07$, were found not to be statistically significant. Pre-attitudes toward the sophisticated brand (covariate) was significant, $F(1, 398) = 131.92, p < .001$. That is, regardless of the level of sophisticated self-concept, the situation congruity effect was stronger for high self-monitors (especially for low sophisticated self-concept group) than low self-monitors on the Sophistication dimension (see Table 19). In support of H6, the situation congruity effect was more evident for high self-monitors than for low self-monitors on the Sophistication dimension. However, as shown in Table 19, self congruity effects were not observed for any of the situations across the two self-monitoring groups. Thus, H7 was not supported for the Sophistication dimension.

Self-Monitoring Interaction: Ruggedness dimension. The results of the $2 \times 3 \times 2$ ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the rugged brands indicate that the within-subjects main effect of the social situation types was statistically significant, $F(1, 385) = 45.71, p < .001$. That is, the

rugged brands were evaluated more positively in congruent (rugged) situations ($M = 5.32$) than in incongruent (trendy and sophisticated) situations ($M = 3.48$), thereby replicating the results of previous findings (situation congruity effect). Unlike for the Sophistication dimension, however, non-significant main effects for self-monitoring ($F(1, 385) = 1.75, p = .19$) and self-concept ($F < 1$) were found. Further, the self-monitoring \times self-concept interaction effect was not significant ($F < 1$). As shown in Table 20, both low and high self-monitors had similar mean scores for rugged brands attitudes across situations. No support for H6 was provided for the Ruggedness dimension. That is, regardless of the level of self-monitoring, individuals show more positive attitudes toward the rugged brands in a congruent situation (i.e., rugged situation) than in incongruent situations such as trendy and sophisticated. As for H7, as shown in Table 20, although the main effect for self-concept were not statistically significant, follow-up contrasts indicated that the self congruity effect was observed for low self-monitors when rugged brands were presented in incongruent situations. This finding was qualified by a significant social situation \times self-concept interaction effect, $F(2, 385) = 9.24, p < .001$. That is, when the situation was not compatible with the personality traits of the brands, low self-monitoring individuals evaluated the rugged brands based on their self-concepts. However, the same results were not observed for high self-monitors. Thus, H7 was supported for the Ruggedness dimension.

Self-Monitoring Interaction: Trendiness dimension. The results of the ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the trendy brands indicate that the within-subjects main effect of the social situation types was not significant, $F(1, 393) = .90, p = .34$. Although social situation types was not statistically significant, the results still suggest that individuals had higher attitude mean scores for the trendy brands in a congruent (trendy) situation ($M = 4.56$) than in incongruent situations ($M = 4.02$). Thus, the situation congruity effect was further supported for the

Trendiness dimension. Similar to those of the Ruggedness dimension, non-significant main effects for self-monitoring ($F < 1$) and self-concept ($F(2, 393) = 1.40, p = .07$) were found. Further, the self-monitoring \times self-concept interaction effect was not significant ($F < 1$). That is, as shown in Table 21, both low and high self-monitors had similar attitudes toward the trendy brands across social situation types. For example, in the incongruent situations, both low ($M = 4.02$) and high self-monitors ($M = 4.01$) had approximately equal mean scores for trendy brands. Similar results were observed in a congruent situation (e.g., low self-monitors $M = 4.60$ vs. high self-monitors $M = 4.46$). Therefore, H6 was not supported for the Trendiness dimension.

Regarding H7, the self congruity effect was observed across two self-monitoring groups. As shown in Table 21, for low self-monitoring individuals, a self congruity effect was found when the situation was not congruent with the personality traits of the brands. They evaluated the trendy brands on the basis of their level of trendy self-concepts. In contrast, for high self-monitors, a self congruity effects appeared for the trendy situation, which is congruent with the personality traits of the brand. That is, even in congruent situations, their brand evaluations were determined by their trendy self-concepts. Thus, H7 was partially supported for the Trendiness dimension.

Table 19

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Sophisticated Brands Attitudes
by Self-Monitoring and Sophisticated Self-Concept (EX1), N = 405

	Low Self-Monitoring			High Self-Monitoring		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Incongruent Situation	4.18 (.10) <i>N = 81</i>	4.48 (.10) <i>N = 83</i>	4.36 (.11) <i>N = 66</i>	4.48 (.12) <i>N = 64</i>	4.42 (.13) <i>N = 49</i>	4.60 (.12) <i>N = 62</i>
	Total Mean = 4.34			Total Mean = 4.55		
Congruent Situation	5.39 (.12) <i>N = 81</i>	5.73 (.11) <i>N = 83</i>	5.53 (.13) <i>N = 66</i>	5.92 (.13) <i>N = 64</i>	5.75 (.15) <i>N = 49</i>	5.62 (.13) <i>N = 62</i>
	Total Mean = 5.55			Total Mean = 5.77		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-sophisticated brand attitude index = 4.72.

Table 20

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Rugged Brands Attitudes
by Self-Monitoring and Rugged Self-Concept (EX1), N = 392

	Low Self-Monitoring			High Self-Monitoring		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Incongruent Situation	3.23 (.10) <i>N = 90</i>	3.62 (.13) <i>N = 60</i>	3.72 (.12) <i>N = 70</i>	3.28 (.13) <i>N = 58</i>	3.58 (.14) <i>N = 49</i>	3.56 (.12) <i>N = 65</i>
	Total Mean = 3.52			Total Mean = 3.48		
Congruent Situation	5.54 (.12) <i>N = 90</i>	5.37 (.14) <i>N = 60</i>	5.21 (.13) <i>N = 70</i>	5.43 (.14) <i>N = 58</i>	5.05 (.16) <i>N = 49</i>	5.17 (.14) <i>N = 65</i>
	Total Mean = 5.37			Total Mean = 5.22		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-rugged brand attitude index = 4.19.

Table 21

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Trendy Brands Attitudes

by Self-Monitoring and Trendy Self-Concept (EX1), N = 400

	Low Self-Monitoring			High Self-Monitoring		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Incongruent Situation	3.98 (.09) <i>N</i> = 89	4.01 (.11) <i>N</i> = 62	4.09 (.10) <i>N</i> = 73	3.85 (.12) <i>N</i> = 49	4.12 (.11) <i>N</i> = 63	4.04 (.12) <i>N</i> = 64
	Total Mean = 4.02			Total Mean = 4.01		
Congruent Situation	4.57 (.12) <i>N</i> = 89	4.47 (.14) <i>N</i> = 62	4.78 (.14) <i>N</i> = 73	4.18 (.16) <i>N</i> = 49	4.55 (.15) <i>N</i> = 63	4.66 (.14) <i>N</i> = 64
	Total Mean = 4.60			Total Mean = 4.46		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-trendy brand attitude index = 4.01.

Summary of Results (H6 and H7)

In sum, the results of the $2 \times 3 \times 2$ mixed design ANCOVA provide mixed findings for H6 and H7. That is, depending on the personality dimension tested, hypotheses were supported or not. Overall, the effect of self-monitoring was found to be non-significant except for the Sophistication dimension. Thus, H6 was only supported for the Sophistication dimension and the moderating role of self-monitoring appeared non-significant across the two other dimensions: Ruggedness and Trendiness. One reason for the non-significant role of self-monitoring may have been driven by the methodology used in the experiment. That is, the situations that both Ruggedness and Trendiness behavioral cues evoked, may have been stronger than that for the sophisticated situation (Schutte, Kenrick, and Sadalla 1985). Thus, even low self-monitoring individuals may display situation congruity effects in situations that make these dimensions salient. Further, self congruity effects for low self-monitors were found for the Ruggedness and

Trendiness dimensions when social situations were not congruent with the personality traits of the brands tested. However, it was also observed for high self-monitors on the Trendiness dimension only when social situation was congruent with the brands. Therefore, as predicted in H7, self congruity effects were more evident among low self-monitoring individuals, thereby partially supporting H7. Despite some mixed findings in Experiment 1, overall, the results support both the self and situation congruity hypotheses, as tested through the interaction effects that involve the self-monitoring variable. That is, the results of Experiment 1 provide support for the premise that the self-expressive use of brands is driven by both the stable and dynamic self-concepts.

CHAPTER VI

RESULTS – EXPERIMENT 2

Overview

To replicate and further support the results of Experiment 1, the same procedures and design used in Experiment 1 were used in Experiment 2, but with three changes. First, fictitious brands were used to reduce the noise that can be created by the use of real brands (e.g., familiarity, preference, prior experience, marketing communications). Unlike Experiment 1 where six real brands (3 apparel and 3 watches) were tested, ten fictitious brands (5 apparel and 5 watches) were tested in Experiment 2. Thus, the cover story was changed to focus on new brands. For example, all participants were told that the primary purpose of the study was to get consumers' reactions to a set of new brands being considered for introduction. Second, two additional dimensions (Competence and Likeableness) were added in Experiment 2 to increase the generalizeability of the self and situation congruity effects findings. Thus five personality dimensions (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness) were employed. Accordingly, each subject evaluated each fictitious brand for five different social situations corresponding to five personality dimensions. Third, half the subjects evaluated five fictitious apparel brands and the other half of the subjects rated five fictitious wrist watch brands. As discussed, all participants in Study 1 rated six real brands across three personality dimensions. In Experiment 2, participants were to repeat brand evaluations across five different situations. To

reduce the chance of participant fatigue, each subject was randomly assigned to one of the two product category groups: apparel and watch.

Reliability of Measures

Self-Concept. As in Experiment 1, reliability estimates (Cronbach alpha) were computed for the set of measures designed to estimate each of the five personality dimensions of Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness (Sung and Tinkham 2005). The results of the reliability analyses suggest that 10 items (e.g., different, new, trendy, up-to-date) were reliable (coefficient $\alpha = .83$) to measure respondents' self-concepts of Trendiness. Further, 5 items for the Sophistication dimension (e.g., elegant, glamorous, upper class; coefficient $\alpha = .76$), 3 items for the Ruggedness dimension (e.g., tough, rugged; coefficient $\alpha = .76$), 15 items for the Competence dimension (e.g., reliable, confident, leading, efficient; coefficient $\alpha = .88$), and 8 items² for the Likeableness dimension (e.g., warm, cheerful, honest; coefficient $\alpha = .70$) were reliable and sufficient (Nunnally 1978; Peterson 1994). As in Experiment 1, a self-concept index was formed by averaging items for each dimension. Based on the self-concept index for each dimension, three groups (low-moderate-high) were created for each of the five dimensions. Thus, each participant was assigned to one of three groups for each of the five dimensions (e.g., a person with high sophisticated, high trendy, low rugged, moderate competent, and low likeable self-concept).

Self-Monitoring. As in Experiment 1, using the 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder and Gangestad 1986), respondents' self-monitoring scores were calculated. On the basis of a median split (Snyder and DeBono 1985) of Self-Monitoring Scale scores ($M = 10.26$),

² In Sung and Tinkham (2005)'s study, there were 11 items for the Likeable dimension. Of them, three items (i.e., easy, smooth, and simple) were eliminated due to low reliability and item-to-total correlation.

respondents were categorized as either high self-monitoring individuals or low self-monitoring individuals. Table 22 shows the distribution of high vs. low self-monitoring individuals across cultures. Over 51 percent of Korean subjects were high self-monitors whereas 43.1% of the U.S. subjects were high self-monitors. Unlike in Experiment 1, the proportional difference was not statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 3.03$, $df = 1$, $p = .08$). However, the results still suggest that Korean individuals tend to be more self-monitoring than individuals in the U.S. (see Table 22).

Table 22

Culture \times Self-Monitoring Crosstabulation (EX2)

	High Self-Monitors		Low Self-Monitors		Total
	Percent (%)	Freq. (N)	Percent (%)	Freq. (N)	N
U.S.	43.1	88	56.9	116	204
Korea	51.6	111	48.4	104	215

Pre-Brand Attitude Index (Dependent variables in H1 and H2). For each fictitious brand, a pre-brand attitude index was created by combining five items: 1) *like vs. dislike the brand*; 2) *likely vs. unlikely to buy the brand in the future*; 3) *prefer vs. don't prefer the brand over alternative brands*; 4) *definitely vs. definitely not consider buying the brand*; and 5) *can vs. can't imagine buying the brand*. Reliability estimates were computed and Cronbach's alphas of all fictitious brands were high: Summit and Miner (rugged watch and apparel, $\alpha = .87$ and $.87$); Tocks and Chaos (trendy watch and apparel, $\alpha = .90$ and $.92$); True and Kicks (likeable watch and apparel, $\alpha = .89$ and $.90$); Kensington and Venice (sophisticated watch and apparel, $\alpha = .89$ and $.92$); Technologie and Colors International (competent watch and apparel, $\alpha = .87$ and $.88$). Thus, these pre-brand indices were used as dependent variables for the self congruity effect hypotheses testing (H1 and H2).

Post-Brand Attitude Index (Dependent variables in H3, H4, H5, H6, and H7). Five post-brand attitude indices were created for each fictitious brand (e.g., five attitudes scores for Tocks under the sophisticated, rugged, trendy, competent, and likeable situations). Similar to those of the pre-brand attitudes, the results of the reliability estimates indicates that the five items were reliable for all fictitious brands across the five different social situations, ranging from .88 to .95. Accordingly, for each brand, five post-brand attitude indices were created and used as dependent measures in a series of repeated measure ANCOVAs to test H3, H4, H5, H6, and H7.

The Similarity/Difference of Self-Concept across Cultures (RQ1) and Gender (RQ2)

To examine the extent to which one's perception of the self (in terms of the five dimensions: Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness) differs across culture and gender, mean scores for each of the five dimensions were compared. A 2 (culture: U.S. vs. Korea) \times 2 (gender: male vs. female) between-subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. Since three dimensions (Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness) were already examined in Experiment 1, the findings of Experiment 2 replicate the results of the Experiment 1 and provide new insight into the two additional dimensions (Competence and Likeableness).

Sophisticated Self-Concept. As shown in Table 24, the results of a 2 \times 2 ANOVA on the sophisticated self-concept yielded a significant main effect for culture, $F(1, 414) = 18.12, p < .001$, and gender $F(1, 414) = 9.75, p < .01$. Further, the culture \times gender interaction was significant as well, $F(1, 414) = 15.02, p < .001$. Findings of the ANOVA were partially consistent with those of Experiment 1. In Experiment 2, the U.S. participants were more likely to have sophisticated self concepts ($M = 4.48$) than Korean participants ($M = 3.35$) ($p < .001$).

Although the effect of culture was not statistically significant in Experiment 1, the results of Experiment 1 show that individuals in the U.S. had higher sophisticated self-concept mean scores ($M = 4.16$) than subjects in Korea ($M = 4.12$). Further, the ANOVA results indicate that females ($M = 4.29$) showed higher sophisticated self-concept mean scores than male counterparts ($M = 3.92$), replicating the results of Experiment 1 (see Table 23). The culture and gender differences in sophisticated self-concept can be further explained by a significant interaction effect of culture \times gender. That is, both U.S. and Korean male participants had very similar sophisticated self-concept levels (i.e., U.S. male $M = 3.94$ vs. Korea male $M = 3.90$). In contrast, as shown in Table 23, U.S. female participants' ratings on sophisticated self-concept were much higher ($M = 4.73$) than those of Korean female participants ($M = 3.82$). Interestingly, unlike in the U.S., male subjects had slightly higher mean scores for the sophisticated self-concept than female counterparts in the Korean data set (Figure 11). Taken together, the results from Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 suggest that female subjects were more likely to see themselves as having sophisticated self-concepts than male subjects. In general, the U.S. individuals had higher levels of sophisticated self-concept than Korean individuals.

Table 23

Self-Concept Means and Standard Deviations – Sophistication Dimension (EX2)

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Female	4.73	.99	140
	Male	3.94	1.23	63
	Total	4.48	1.13	203
Korea	Female	3.82	1.13	131
	Male	3.90	1.05	84
	Total	3.85	1.10	215
Total	Female	4.29	1.15	271
	Male	3.92	1.13	147
	Total	4.16	1.16	418

Table 24

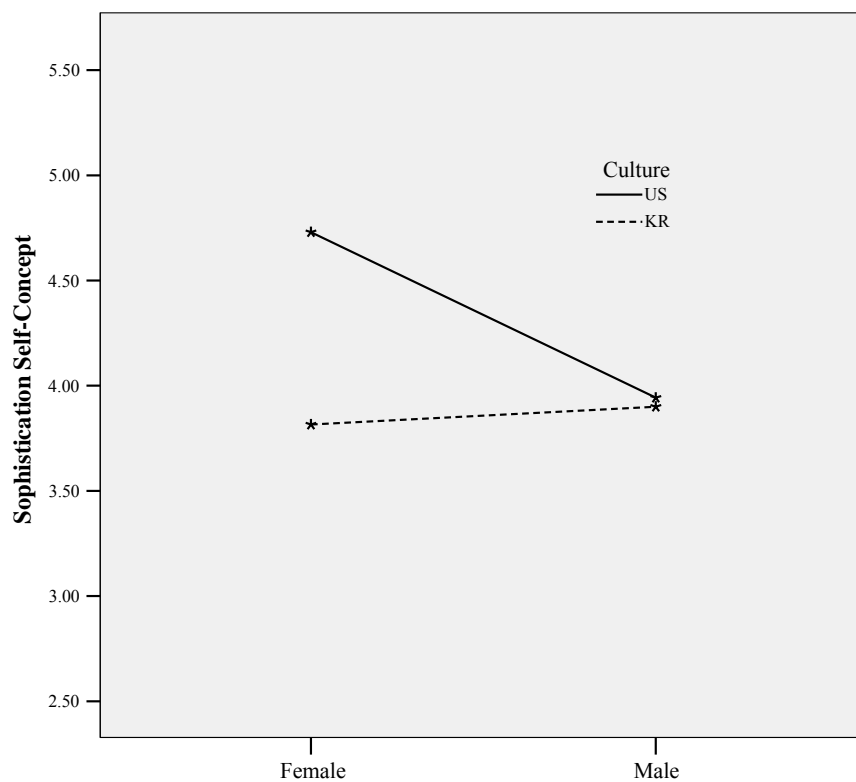
Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Sophistication Dimension (EX2)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	69.701 ^a	3	23.234	19.533	.000
Intercept	6311.257	1	6311.257	5305.971	.000
Culture	21.548	1	21.548	18.116	.000
Gender	11.594	1	11.594	9.747	.002
Culture × Gender	17.863	1	17.863	15.018	.000
Error	492.438	414	1.189		
Total	7788.560	418			
Corrected Model	562.139	417			

a. R Squared = .124 (Adjusted R Squared = .118)

Figure 11

Self-Concept Means – Sophistication Dimension (EX2)



Rugged Self-Concept. As displayed in Table 26, the results of an ANOVA on the self-concept for the Ruggedness dimension yielded significant main effects for culture, $F(1, 414) = 14.61, p < .001$, and for gender, $F(1, 414) = 36.43, p < .001$, replicating the results of Experiment 1. Consistent with the findings of Experiment 1, Korean participants were more likely to see themselves to be rugged individuals ($M = 3.44$) than American participants were ($M = 2.84$). In addition, regardless of culture, male participants ($M = 3.72$) had higher mean scores on rugged personality traits than female counterparts ($M = 2.84$). However, unlike Experiment 1, an insignificant culture \times gender interaction was found in Experiment 2, $F(1, 414) = .003, p = .957$. Although the culture \times gender interaction was not significant, as shown in Table 25, the results of Experiment 2 still suggest that Korean female participants had higher scores for the rugged self-concept ($M = 3.11$) than U.S. female participants had ($M = 2.58$), replicating the results of Experiment 1. In sum, Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 provide consistent evidence that Koreans had higher mean scores on rugged personality traits than Americans. Also, regardless of cultural background, male subjects were more likely to perceive themselves to be rugged people than female subjects were (see Figure 12).

Table 25

Self-Concept Means and Standard Deviations – Ruggedness Dimension (EX2)

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Female	2.58	1.05	140
	Male	3.42	1.48	63
	Total	2.84	1.26	203
Korea	Female	3.11	1.35	131
	Male	3.94	1.60	84
	Total	3.44	1.51	215
Total	Female	2.84	1.23	271
	Male	3.72	1.57	147
	Total	3.15	1.42	418

Table 26

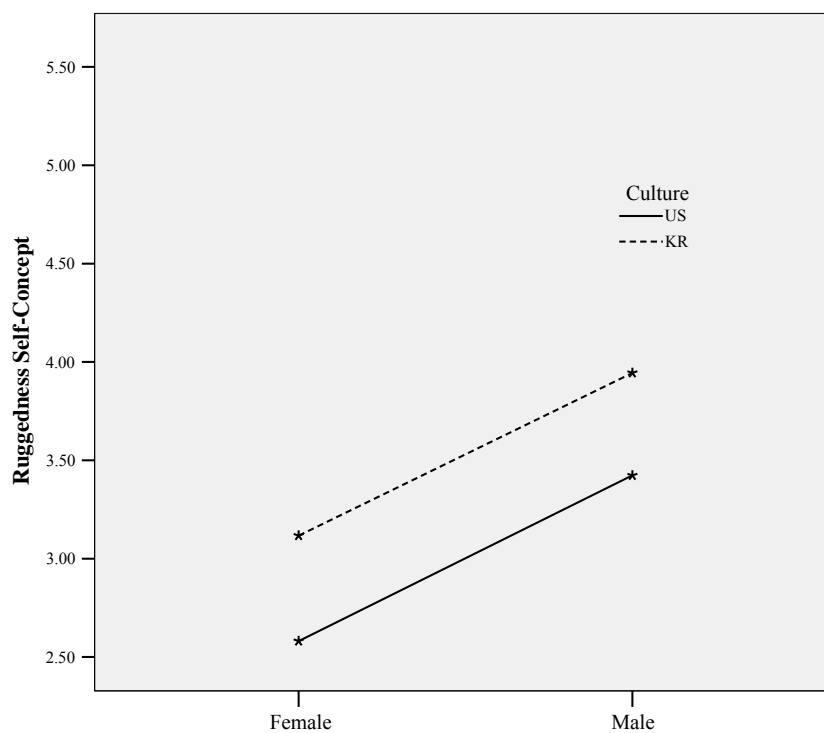
Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Ruggedness Dimension (EX2)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	103.197 ^a	3	34.399	19.128	.000
Intercept	4011.663	1	4011.663	2230.741	.000
Culture	26.268	1	26.268	14.606	.000
Gender	65.516	1	65.516	36.431	.000
Culture × Gender	.005	1	.005	.003	.957
Error	744.519	414	1.798		
Total	4995.111	418			
Corrected Model	847.716	417			

a. R Squared = .122 (Adjusted R Squared = .115)

Figure 12

Self-Concept Means – Ruggedness Dimension (EX2)



Trendy Self-Concept. The ANOVA results indicate that neither culture, $F(1, 414) = 1.64, p = .20$, nor gender, $F(1, 414) = .36, p = .55$, were significant. However, the culture and gender interaction was significant, $F(1, 414) = 7.59, p < .01$ (Table 28). The findings of Experiment 2 were consistent with those of Experiment 1. That is, the results from both Experiments 1 and 2 provide evidence that insignificant cultural (U.S. $M = 4.77$; Korea $M = 4.58$) and gender differences (Female $M = 4.68$; Male $M = 4.63$) were observed. Further, as in Experiment 1, the results of Experiment 2 suggest that the U.S. female participants were more likely to consider themselves to be trendy people ($M = 4.87$) than were Korean female participants ($M = 4.50$) (see Table 27 and Figure 13). Finally, as qualified by the culture \times gender interaction, the U.S. female subjects had higher mean scores on the trendy personality traits than the U.S. male subjects, whereas Korean male subjects showed higher scores for the trendy self-concept than Korean female subjects, replicating the results of Experiment 1. Overall, although neither culture nor gender was found to be a significant main effect factor, a consistent culture \times gender interaction effect across both experiments suggests that females were more likely than males to have high trendy self-concepts, whereas males had higher trendy self-concepts than females in Korea.

Table 27

Self-Concept Means and Standard Deviations – Trendiness Dimension (EX2)

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Female	4.86	.79	140
	Male	4.56	.81	63
	Total	4.77	.81	203
Korea	Female	4.50	.94	131
	Male	4.69	.92	84
	Total	4.58	.94	215
Total	Female	4.68	.89	271
	Male	4.63	.88	147
	Total	4.67	.88	418

Table 28

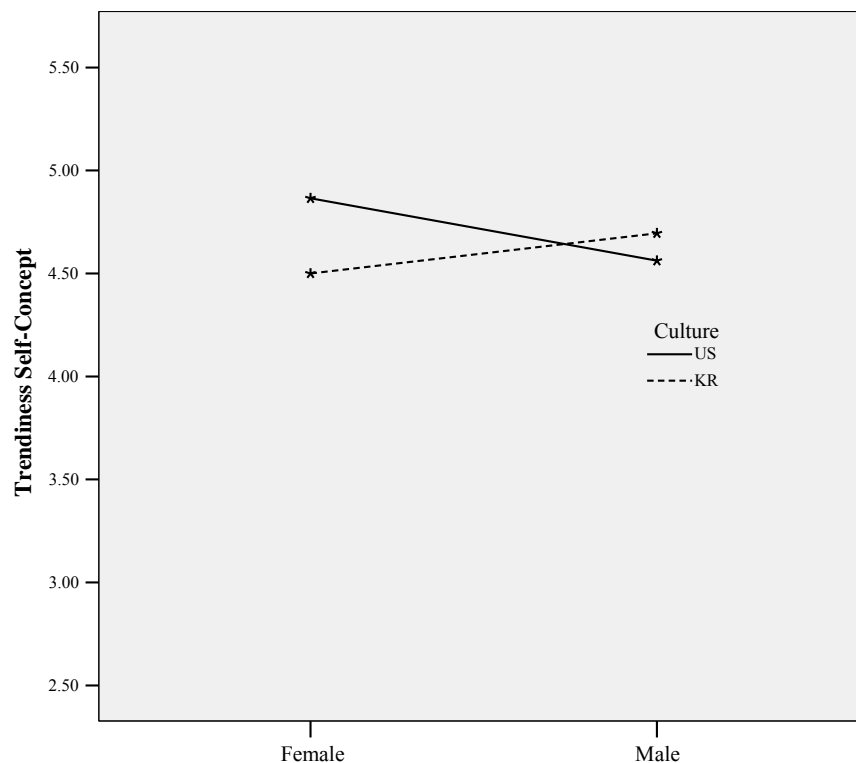
Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Trendiness Dimension (EX2)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Corrected Model	9.899 ^a	3	3.300	4.290	.005
Intercept	8149.231	1	8149.231	10594.545	.000
Culture	1.261	1	1.261	1.640	.201
Gender	.273	1	.273	.355	.551
Culture × Gender	5.836	1	5.836	7.587	.006
Error	318.445	414	.769		
Total	9447.640	418			
Corrected Model	328.344	417			

a. R Squared = .030 (Adjusted R Squared = .023)

Figure 13

Self-Concept Means – Trendiness Dimension (EX2)



Competent Self-Concept. The results of a 2×2 between-subjects ANOVA on the competent self-concept yielded a significant main effect for culture, $F(1, 414) = 33.40, p < .001$. However, an insignificant main effect for gender $F(1, 414) = .69, p = .26$, was found. Further, the culture \times gender interaction was significant, $F(1, 414) = 12.74, p < .001$ (see Table 30). Overall, the results indicate that the U.S. individuals showed higher mean scores on competent personality traits such as reliable, confident, and efficient ($M = 5.32$) than individuals in Korea ($M = 4.81$). Also, as shown in Table 29, female subjects had higher mean scores for the competent self-concept ($M = 5.38$) than male counterparts ($M = 5.19$) in the U.S. In contrast, male subjects were more likely to have higher mean scores for competent personality traits ($M = 5.03$) than female subjects ($M = 4.67$) in Korea. This finding was qualified by a significant

culture \times gender interaction and was similar to those of the Trendiness dimension where inconsistent gender effects were evident across cultures. Although gender appeared to be an insignificant factor in how consumers perceived themselves, it meaningfully influences consumers' perceptions when it interacts with culture (Figure 14).

Table 29

Self-Concept Means and Standard Deviations – Competence Dimension (EX2)

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Female	5.38	.66	140
	Male	5.19	.67	63
	Total	5.32	.67	203
Korea	Female	4.67	.73	131
	Male	5.03	.85	84
	Total	4.81	.79	215
Total	Female	5.04	.78	271
	Male	5.10	.78	147
	Total	5.06	.78	418

Table 30

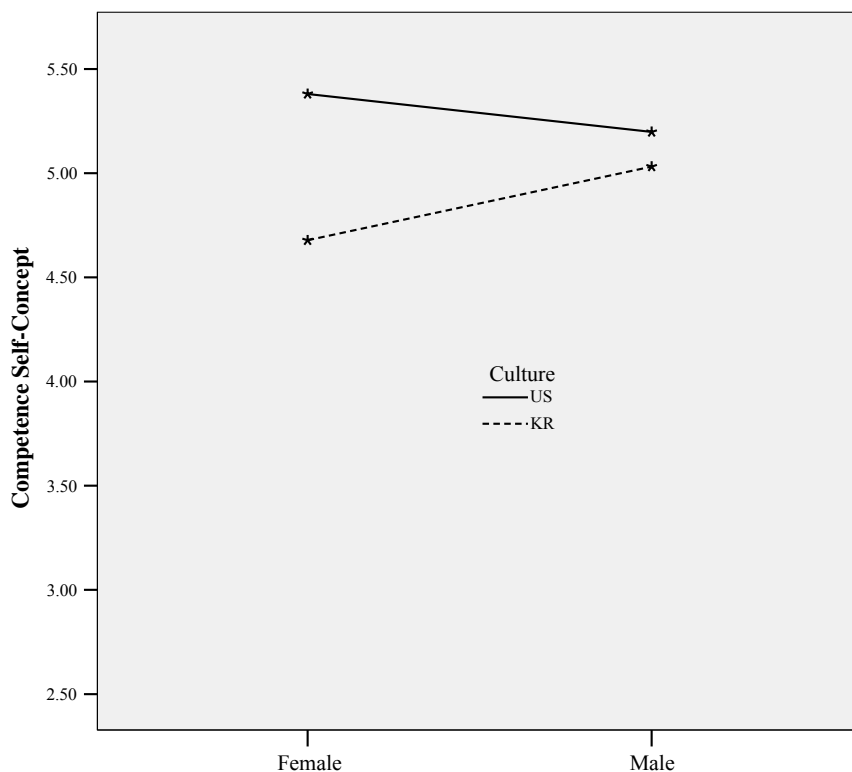
Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Competence Dimension (EX2)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Corrected Model	34.781 ^a	3	11.594	21.826	.000
Intercept	9672.301	1	9672.301	18208.493	.000
Culture	17.740	1	17.740	33.397	.000
Gender	.690	1	.690	1.300	.255
Culture \times Gender	6.766	1	6.766	12.737	.000
Error	219.916	414	.531		
Total	10968.194	418			
Corrected Model	254.697	417			

a. R Squared = .137 (Adjusted R Squared = .130)

Figure 14

Self-Concept Means – Competence Dimension (EX2)



Likeable Self-Concept. To examine cultural and gender differences on the likeable self-concept, a 2 (culture) \times 2 (gender) between subjects ANOVA was conducted. As displayed in Table 32, the results of the ANOVA on the self-concept for the Likeableness dimension yielded a statistically significant main effect for gender, $F(1, 414) = 13.48, p < .001$. However, an insignificant main effect for culture was found, $F(1, 414) = .13, p = .72$. Further, the culture \times gender interaction was statistically significant, $F(1, 414) = 7.95, p < .01$. As shown in Table 31, the results of the ANOVA suggest that regardless of subjects' cultural backgrounds, female participants were more likely to have higher mean scores on likeable personality traits ($M = 5.39$) than male participants ($M = 5.11$). That is, female subjects perceived themselves to be more warm, sentimental, cheerful, and honest than did male counterpart. This gender difference

was more evident in the U.S. (male $M = 5.05$ vs. female $M = 5.51$) than in Korea (male $M = 5.19$ vs. female $M = 5.26$).

Table 31

Self-Concept Means and Standard Deviations – Likeableness Dimension (EX2)

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Female	5.51	.62	140
	Male	5.00	.79	63
	Total	5.35	.71	203
Korea	Female	5.26	.73	131
	Male	5.19	.89	84
	Total	5.23	.80	215
Total	Female	5.39	.69	271
	Male	5.11	.85	147
	Total	5.29	.76	418

Table 32

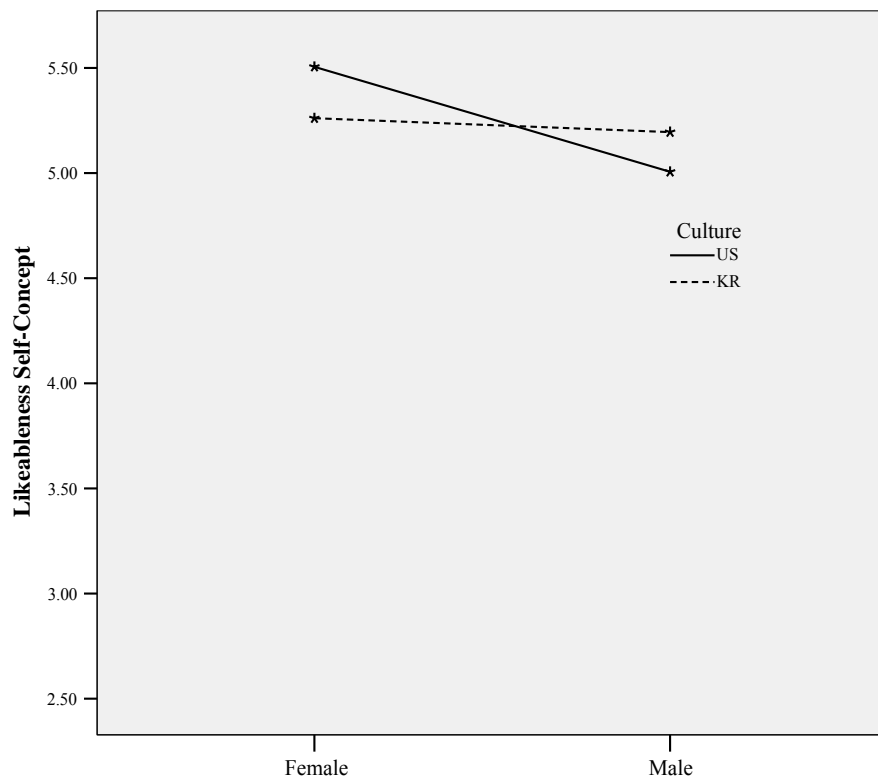
Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Likeableness Dimension (EX2)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Corrected Model	12.449 ^a	3	4.150	7.458	.000
Intercept	10330.454	1	10330.454	18567.850	.000
Culture	.073	1	.073	.132	.717
Gender	7.501	1	7.501	13.481	.000
Culture × Gender	4.423	1	4.423	7.950	.005
Error	230.334	414	.556		
Total	11944.422	418			
Corrected Model	242.783	417			

a. R Squared = .051 (Adjusted R Squared = .044)

Figure 15

Self-Concept Means – Likeableness Dimension (EX2)

**Summary of Results (RQ1 and RQ2)**

Taken in combination, the results of Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 provide empirical evidence for cultural and gender differences in how consumers perceive themselves in terms of the five dimensions of Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness (Sung and Tinkham 2005). First, the findings suggest that female individuals had more sophisticated self-concepts than male individuals. Further, the U.S. individuals were more likely than individuals in Korea to conceive of themselves as having sophisticated self-concepts. In contrast, male participants were more likely to have rugged self-concepts than female

participants. Further, regardless of gender, Korean individuals had higher mean scores on rugged self-concept traits than American individuals.

As for the Trendiness dimension, neither culture nor gender differences were found across the two experimental studies, suggesting that individuals in the U.S. and Korea tended to have similar self-concept mean ratings for the Trendiness dimension. However, female individuals were more likely to have higher trendy self-concepts than male counterparts in the U.S., whereas male subjects had higher trendy self-concepts than female subjects in Korea.

Regarding the Competence dimension, the U.S. female individuals tended to have higher ratings on competent self-concept than Korean female individuals. And finally, for the Likeable dimension, the results of Experiment 2 suggest that female participants were more likely to perceive themselves to be warm, cheerful, and honest than male participants and this pattern was more evident in the U.S. than in Korea. Overall, the findings provide some empirical evidence that consumers with different cultural background and different genders tend to perceive themselves to be different in terms of the five personality dimensions (Sung and Tinkham 2005).

Self Congruity Hypothesis in the U.S. and Korea (H1 and H2)

To test and replicate the findings of self congruity effects in Experiment 1, the same set of analyses conducted in Experiment 1 was run for Experiment 2. A 2 (culture) × 3 (self-concept index) between-subjects ANCOVA was conducted for each of the five dimensions. Note that two additional dimensions (Competence and Likeableness) were added and examined in Experiment 2 to increase the generalizability of the self congruity effect. Consistent with Experiment 1, gender was included as a covariate for all analyses and the two product categories were averaged in the subsequent data analyses.

Self Congruity: Sophistication dimension. As shown in Tables 33 and 34, the results of Experiment 2 for the Sophistication dimension were consistent with those of Experiment 1. A 2×3 ANCOVA on the pre-attitude for the sophisticated fictitious brands such as Venice (apparel) and Kensington (watch) yielded a significant main effect for self-concept, $F(2, 411) = 41.34, p < .001$, but a non-significant main effect for culture, $F(1, 411) = .38, p = .54$, replicating the results of the Sophistication dimension in Experiment 1. That is, regardless of culture, individuals with high sophisticated self-concepts versus low or moderate sophisticated self-concepts preferred the sophisticated brands (see Figure 16). The results indicate that both U.S. and Korean individuals who conceived of themselves as being highly sophisticated were more likely to show positive attitudes toward the sophisticated brands ($M = 5.59$) than those either in the low ($M = 4.01$) or moderate sophisticated self-concept groups ($M = 4.69$). Thus, the findings provide support of self congruity effect for the Sophistication dimension across culture (H1 and H2). Further, as in Experiment 1, gender was not significant as a covariate, $F(1, 411) = .49, p = .48$. However, the culture \times self-concept interaction was significant, $F(2, 411) = 6.28, p < .01$. That is, as displayed in Figure 16, the self congruity effect was more evident in the U.S. than in Korea. In sum, across cultures, a strong positive relationship between self congruity (between consumer self-concept and brand personality) and attitude toward the brand was observed for the Sophistication dimension. Thus, H1 and H2 were supported across both experimental studies.

Table 33

Attitude Means and Standard Deviations – Sophistication Dimension (EX2)

Self-Concept – Sophistication		<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Low	3.64	1.57	50
	Moderate	4.78	1.43	56
	High	5.81	1.22	97
Korea	Low	4.20	1.31	100
	Moderate	4.62	1.29	69
	High	5.13	1.29	46
Total	Low	4.01	1.42	150
	Moderate	4.69	1.35	125
	High	5.60	1.27	143

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

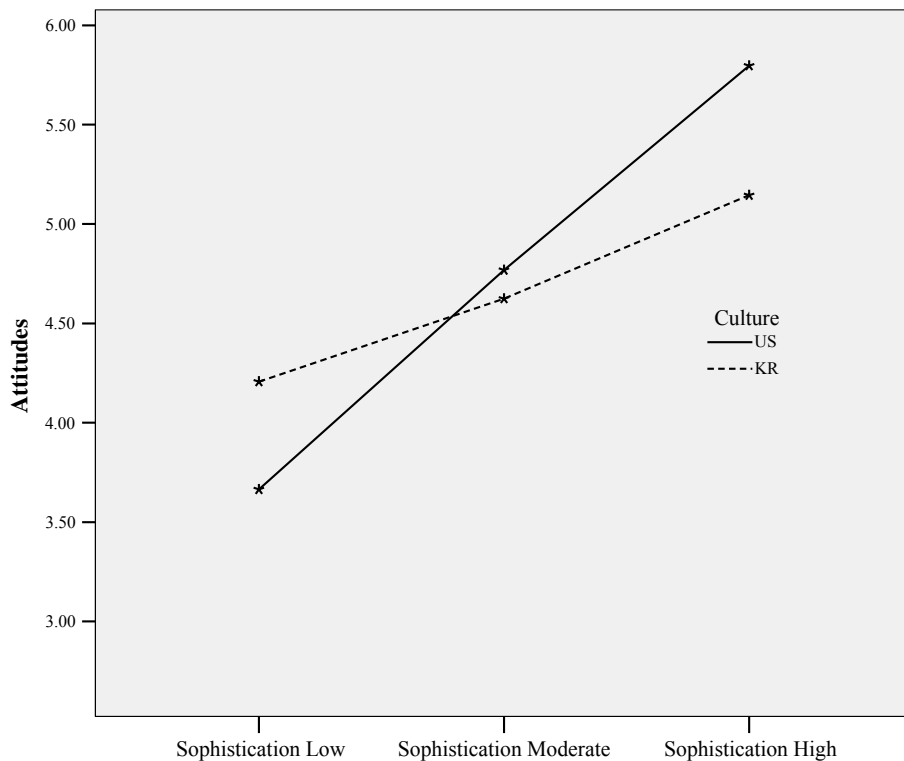
Table 34

Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Sophistication Dimension (EX2)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Corrected Model	210.083 ^a	6	35.014	19.579	.000
Intercept	5386.244	1	5386.244	3011.930	.000
Gender	.879	1	.879	.491	.484
Culture	.681	1	.681	.381	.538
Self-Concept	147.856	2	73.928	41.340	.000
Culture × Self-Concept	22.470	2	11.235	6.283	.002
Error	734.993	411	1.788		
Total	10409.480	418			
Corrected Total	945.076	417			

a. R Squared = .222 (Adjusted R Squared = .211)

Figure 16

Self Congruity – Sophistication Dimension (EX2)

Self Congruity: Ruggedness dimension. Table 36 and Figure 17 present a summary of the ANCOVA results for the Ruggedness dimension. The results of Experiment 2 for the Ruggedness dimension were consistent with those of Experiment 1. As shown in Table 36, an ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the rugged brands yielded a significant main effect for self-concept, $F(2, 411) = 21.99, p < .001$. Further, as found in Experiment 1, a non-significant main effect for culture, $F(1, 411) = 2.36, p = .13$, was found. Neither culture \times self-concept ($F = .60, p = .55$) or a covariate of gender ($F = .003, p = .96$) was significant, replicating the results of Experiment 1. In support of H1 and H2, the findings from Experiments 1 and 2 suggest that

individuals with high rugged self-concepts were more likely to have positive attitudes toward the fictitious brands having rugged personality traits (i.e., Miner - apparel and Summit - watch) ($M = 4.19$) than individuals with either low ($M = 2.91$) or moderate rugged self-concept traits ($M = 3.40$) (see Table 35). That is, regardless of cultural background, the greater the congruity of self-concept with the personality traits of the brands, the greater the likelihood that consumers prefer and show positive attitude toward those brands. Taken together, the findings of Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 strongly support the self congruity hypothesis for the Ruggedness dimension across cultures. Consumers tend to prefer brands (whether real or fictitious) having the personality traits congruent versus incongruent with their self-concepts.

Table 35

Attitude Means and Standard Deviations – Ruggedness Dimension (EX2)

	Self-Concept – Ruggedness	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	<i>N</i>
U.S.	Low	2.73	1.52	72
	Moderate	3.32	1.52	88
	High	4.16	1.34	43
Korea	Low	3.16	1.42	50
	Moderate	3.49	1.13	86
	High	4.21	1.30	79
Total	Low	2.91	1.49	122
	Moderate	3.40	1.34	174
	High	4.19	1.31	122

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

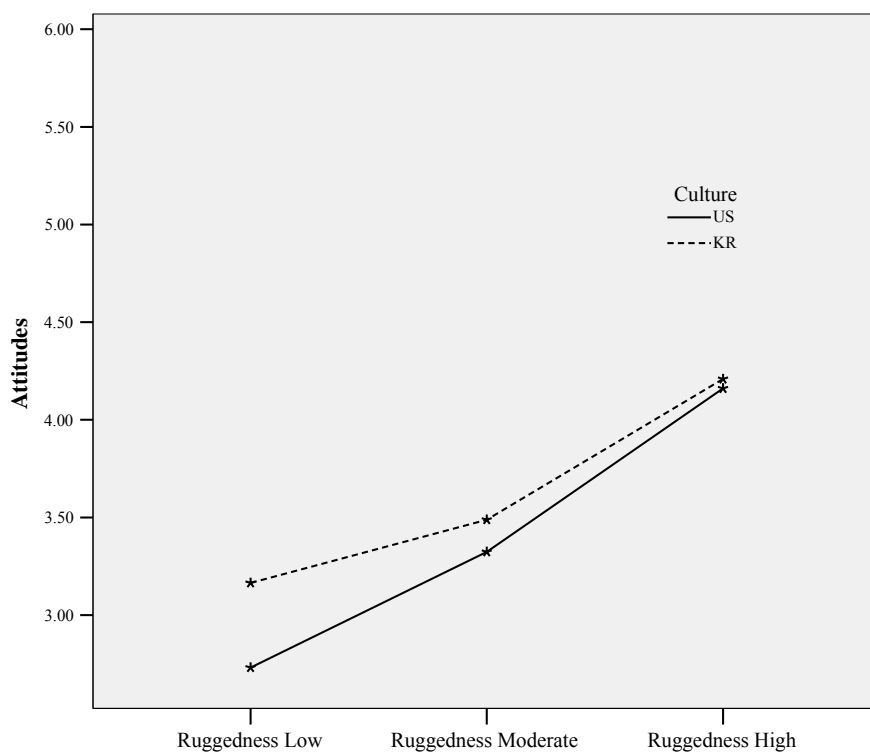
Table 36

Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Ruggedness Dimension (EX2)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	109.740 ^a	6	18.290	9.619	.000
Intercept	3000.346	1	3000.346	1577.881	.000
Gender	.006	1	.006	.003	.957
Culture	4.495	1	4.495	2.364	.125
Self-Concept	83.645	2	41.822	21.994	.000
Culture × Self-Concept	2.290	2	1.145	.602	.548
Error	781.518	411	1.902		
Total	5982.400	418			
Corrected Total	891.258	417			

a. R Squared = .123 (Adjusted R Squared = .110)

Figure 17

Self Congruity – Ruggedness Dimension (EX2)

Self Congruity: Trendiness dimension. The results of a 2×3 between-subjects ANCOVA on attitudes toward the trendy brands yielded a significant main effect for self-concept, $F(2, 411) = 9.05, p < .001$, replicating the results for the Trendiness dimension in Experiment 1. However, unlike Experiment 1, the effect of culture was not significant in Experiment 2, $F(1, 411) = .69, p = .41$. Further, consistent with those of Experiment 1, the results indicate that the culture \times self-concept interaction was not significant ($F < 1$), but gender was significant as a covariate, $F(1, 411) = 13.49, p < .001$ (see Table 38). As displayed in Figure 18, in support of the self congruity hypothesis for the Trendiness dimension across cultures (H1 and H2), regardless of culture, individuals with high trendy self-concepts showed more favorable attitudes toward the fictitious trendy brands such as Chaos (apparel) and Tocks (watch) ($M = 5.27$) than the other groups of individuals with either low trendy self-concepts ($M = 4.44$) or moderate trendy self-concepts ($M = 4.85$), thereby demonstrating a self congruity effect. Taken together, the results of Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 for the Trendiness dimension strongly support the self-congruity hypothesis across cultures.

Table 37

Attitude Means and Standard Deviations – Trendiness Dimension (EX2)

Self-Concept - Trendiness		Mean	S.D.	N
U.S.	Low	4.65	1.59	50
	Moderate	4.75	1.55	79
	High	5.44	1.32	74
Korea	Low	4.32	1.42	81
	Moderate	4.97	1.30	66
	High	5.09	1.52	68
Total	Low	4.44	1.49	131
	Moderate	4.85	1.44	145
	High	5.27	1.43	142

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

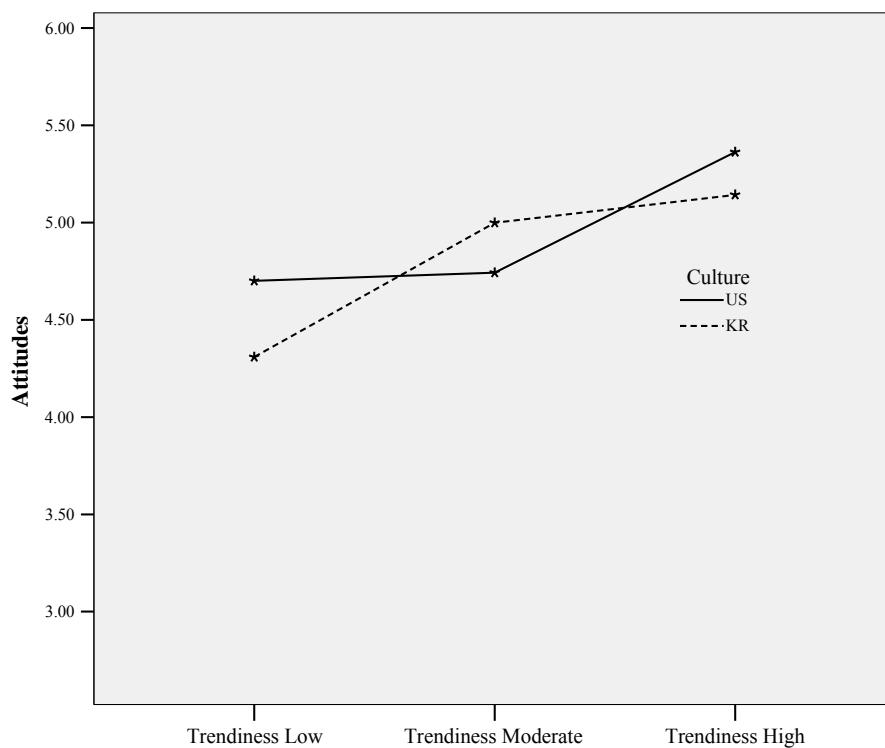
Table 38

Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Trendiness Dimension (EX2)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	83.802 ^a	6	13.967	6.842	.000
Intercept	6667.408	1	6667.408	3266.152	.000
Gender	27.530	1	27.530	13.486	.000
Culture	1.416	1	1.416	.694	.405
Self-Concept	36.936	2	18.468	9.047	.000
Culture × Self-Concept	7.707	2	3.853	1.888	.153
Error	839.001	411	2.041		
Total	10830.040	418			
Corrected Total	922.803	417			

a. R Squared = .091(Adjusted R Squared = .078)

Figure 18

Self Congruity – Trendiness Dimension (EX2)

Self Congruity: Competence dimension. As shown in Table 40, the results of a 2 x 3 ANCOVA on the attitudes toward competent brands yielded significant main effects for self-concept, $F(2, 410) = 3.07, p < .05$. However, non-significant main effects for culture were observed, $F(1, 410) = 1.14, p = .29$. Further, the culture \times self-concept interaction, $F(1, 410) = 1.65, p = .19$, and gender (covariate), $F(1, 41) = 2.21, p = .14$, were not significant. Overall, the pattern of results for the attitudes towards the competent brands suggest that regardless of their cultures, individuals who had high competent self-concepts showed more favorable attitudes toward the fictitious competent brands such as Colors International (apparel) and Technologe (watch), thereby supporting the self congruity hypothesis for the Competence dimension across the two cultures.

Note that in the U.S., individuals with moderate competent self-concepts had higher scores on brand attitudes ($M = 5.02$) than high competent self-concept individuals ($M = 5.00$) though the difference was not significant. Similarly, in Korea, both low and moderate competent self-concept groups had similar attitudes toward the competent brands (see Table 39). The results of the ANCOVA suggest that, as displayed in Figure 19, the self congruity effect was less salient for the Competence dimension than the three dimensions tested earlier (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness). Further, a less powerful self congruity effect was observed not only in the U.S. but also in Korea. Nevertheless, the results still suggest that the greater the congruity of self-concept with the personality traits of brands, the greater the likelihood that consumers will prefer the brands.

Table 39

Attitude Means and Standard Deviations – Competence Dimension (EX2)

Self-Concept - Competence		Mean	S.D.	N
U.S.	Low	4.67	1.07	35
	Moderate	5.02	1.18	79
	High	5.00	1.36	89
Korea	Low	4.59	1.15	99
	Moderate	4.59	1.28	67
	High	5.05	1.18	48
Total	Low	4.61	1.13	134
	Moderate	4.87	1.24	146
	High	5.01	1.29	137

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

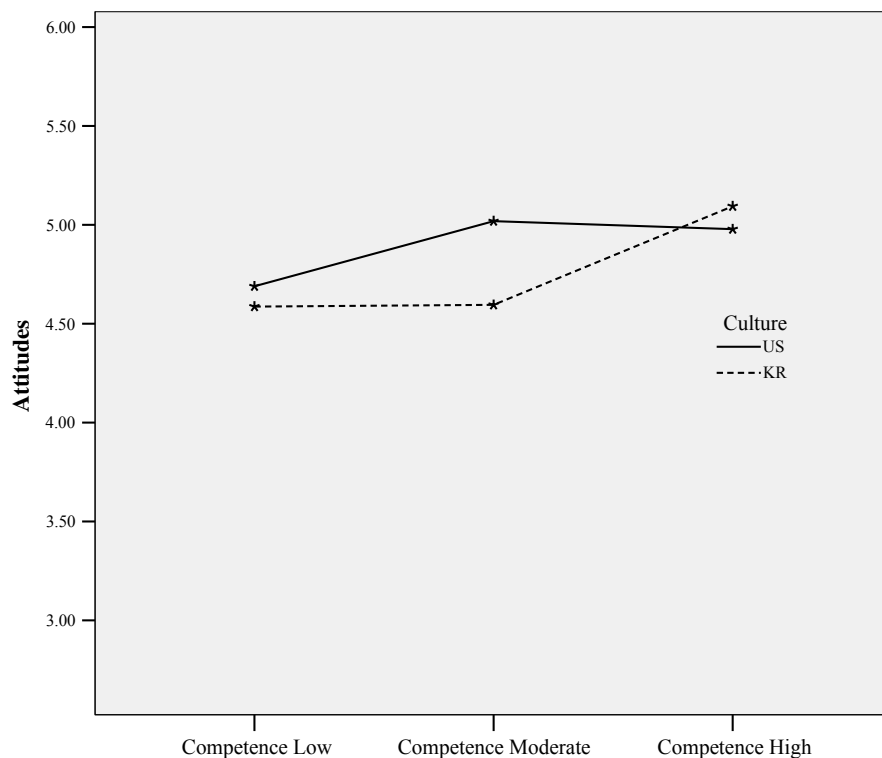
Table 40

Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Competence Dimension (EX2)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	21.125 ^a	6	3.521	2.365	.029
Intercept	5587.050	1	5587.050	3752.662	.000
Gender	3.291	1	3.291	2.210	.138
Culture	1.693	1	1.693	1.137	.287
Self-Concept	9.151	2	4.575	3.073	.047
Culture × Self-Concept	4.926	2	2.463	1.654	.192
Error	610.418	410	1.489		
Total	10321.960	417			
Corrected Model	631.543	416			

a. R Squared = .033 (Adjusted R Squared = .019)

Figure 19

Self Congruity – Competence Dimension (EX2)

Self Congruity: Likeableness dimension. Table 42 and Figure 20 present a summary of the 2×3 ANCOVA results for the Likeableness dimension. As shown in Table 42, an ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the fictitious likeable brands yielded marginal main effects for self-concept, $F(1, 411) = 2.99, p = .05$. Further, non-significant main effects for culture, $F(1, 411) = .71, p = .40$, were found. Note that both the culture \times self-concept interaction, $F(2, 411) = 4.25, p < .05$, and gender (covariate), $F(1, 411) = 12.73, p < .001$, were significant. That is, the results indicate that, in general, individuals with high likeable self-concepts were more likely to show more positive attitudes toward the likeable fictitious brands such as Kicks (apparel) and True

(watch) than individuals with low or moderate likeable self-concepts. However, as qualified by the culture \times self-concept interaction effect, the self congruity effect was only observed in the U.S. whereas the same finding was not observed in Korea (see Figure 20). As shown in Table 41, in Korea individuals with moderate likeable self-concepts had higher mean scores on attitudes toward the fictitious likeable brands ($M = 5.06$) than individuals with high likeable self concepts ($M = 4.71$). Thus, as for the Likeable dimension, while the self congruity hypothesis was strongly supported in the U.S. (H1) by the results of Experiment 2, it was not supported in Korea (H2). In sum, although general findings support the self congruity hypothesis in the U.S., less salient evidence for consumer-brand congruity effects was observed in Korea. However, the results still suggest that there is a positive relationship between self congruity and brand evaluation.

Table 41

Attitude Means and Standard Deviations – Likeableness Dimension (EX2)

	Self-Concept - Likeableness	Mean	S.D.	N
U.S.	Low	4.28	1.43	58
	Moderate	4.74	1.36	75
	High	5.21	1.37	70
Korea	Low	4.68	1.28	68
	Moderate	5.06	1.13	84
	High	4.71	1.36	63
Total	Low	4.49	1.35	126
	Moderate	4.92	1.25	159
	High	4.97	1.38	133

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

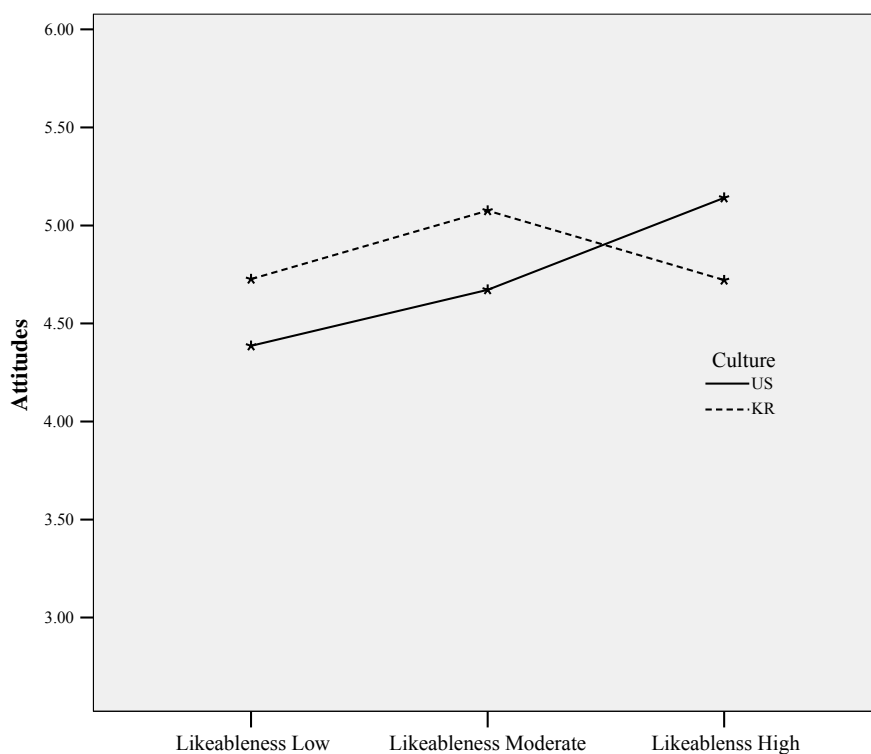
Table 42

Test of Between-Subjects Effects – Likeableness Dimension (EX2)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	56.457 ^a	6	9.409	5.576	.000
Intercept	6337.668	1	6337.668	3755.693	.000
Gender	21.484	1	21.484	12.731	.000
Culture	1.190	1	1.190	.705	.402
Self-Concept	10.110	2	5.055	2.996	.051
Culture × Self-Concept	14.336	2	7.168	4.248	.015
Error	693.556	411	1.687		
Total	10413.400	418			
Corrected Model	750.012	417			

a. R Squared = .075 (Adjusted R Squared = .062)

Figure 20

Self Congruity – Likeableness Dimension (EX2)

Summary of Results (H1 and H2)

The goal of H1 and H2 was to examine the self congruity effect in the U.S. and Korea. Using fictitious brands, Experiment 2 examines the extent to which consumers prefer brands with personality traits congruent versus incongruent with their self-concepts. The results of Experiment 2 provide further support for the results found in Experiment 1, suggesting that the self congruity effect was observed in the U.S. and Korea. That is, consumers' attitudes toward brands will be more positive if the personality traits of the brands are congruent versus incongruent with their self-concepts. It appears that the only dimension for which the self congruity effect was not found was Likeableness in Korea, for which moderate likeable self-concept individuals were more likely to have positive attitudes toward the compatible brands.

Further, as discussed, while strong self congruity effects were observed for three dimensions (Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness) across cultures and two experimental studies, two new dimensions (Competence and Likeableness) tested only in Experiment 2 tended to exhibit less salient self congruity effects than the three dimensions. One reason may have been driven by the fact that consumers tend to have some difficulties in perceiving both competent and likeable brands in terms of personality traits. For example, in Experiment 1, a set of real apparel and fictitious brands corresponding to the three dimensions (Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness) were identified from a series of pilot studies and tested in Experiment 1. However, as noted, real brands with only strong competent or likeable personality traits (excluding unintended dimensions) were not found in pilot studies, resulting in the testing of these two dimensions only in Experiment 2 with a set of fictitious brands. These less salient brand personalities under the Competence and Likeableness dimensions may lead to potentially less strong self congruity effects than the Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness situations.

Nevertheless, the overall findings of Experiment 2 strongly support the self congruity hypothesis across cultures (H1 and H2). Whether real or fictitious brands were tested, consumers are more likely to prefer brands with personality traits that are congruent with their self-concept traits, providing theoretical support for the premise that brand personality influences consumer preference.

In addition, the findings of Experiment 2 provide empirical evidence that consumers can infer the personalities of brands even though having very limited information. For example, subjects in Experiment 2 were given limited information: 1) the fictitious brand name and 2) personality traits associated with the brand. The results suggest that even with such limited and less salient information about the brand, a personality can be created in consumers' minds. More important, Experiment 2 provides empirical evidence that consumers can use even fictitious brands for self-expressive purposes. Thus, the results of Experiment 2 have implications that personality traits associated with a brand can influence consumer attitudes through marketing communications.

Situation Congruity Hypothesis in the U.S. and Korea (H3, H4, and H5)

To test the situation congruity effect in the U.S. and Korea, the same procedures and design employed in Experiment 1 were used, but with fictitious brands across five different social situations. Accordingly, a 2 (culture: U.S. vs. Korea) \times 3 (self-concept: low-moderate-high) \times 5 (five social situation types) mixed design ANCOVA was conducted for each of the five personality dimensions. As in Experiment 1, both culture and self-concept were entered as between-subjects factors and the social situation types (sophisticated, rugged, trendy, competent, and likeable) were entered as within-subjects factors. Consistent with Experiment 1, two

potential covariates were included: (1) the order of the social situations manipulation and (2) gender. Neither was significant. In addition, pre-brand attitude scores were included as covariates to control for the effect of consumers' pre-attitudes toward the brand without social situations.

Situation Congruity: Sophistication Dimension. First, the results of a three-way mixed design ANCOVA on attitudes toward the sophisticated brands suggest that the within-subjects main effect of situation types was significant, $F(4, 1624) = 20.97, p < .001$. The nature of this effect was determined using a Bonferroni pairwise comparisons test. Results showed that attitudes toward the fictitious sophisticated brands (i.e., Venice and Kensington) under the five situations all differed significantly from one another ($p < .001$), with the exception of the pair of likeable and trendy situations ($p = .19$). As displayed in Figure 21, individuals had the greatest preference for the sophisticated brands when the sophisticated situation (e.g., the ritzy New Year's Eve ball) was presented ($M = 6.11$), followed by the competent situation (e.g., dinner with a potential business partner, $M = 5.54$), the likeable situation (e.g., holiday dinner with family and friends, $M = 5.03$), the trendy situation (e.g., night out and try a new dance club, $M = 4.84$), and the rugged situation (e.g., mountain biking, $M = 3.11$) (see Table 43). That is, as predicted by H3, the sophisticated brands were evaluated most positively when the nature of the social situation was compatible with the personality traits of the brands (e.g., sophisticated brands in the ritzy New Year's Eve ball), replicating the results of Experiment 1. Thus, the results of Experiment 2 provide further support for the situation congruity effect not only in the U.S. but also in Korea (H3). Further, as found in Experiment 1, individuals in Experiment 2 had the lowest sophisticated brand attitude means when the sophisticated brands were presented in the rugged situation, suggesting that the sophisticated brands appeared to be least acceptable in

rugged situations. In contrast, as displayed in Figure 21, individuals showed relatively moderate attitudes toward the sophisticated brands in competent, likeable, and trendy situations.

Second, the between-subjects main effect of culture, $F(1, 406) = 2.83, p = .69$, and self-concept, $F(2, 406) = 1.71, p = .18$, were found not to be statistically significant, thereby replicating the results of Experiment 1. Further, as in Experiment 1, the effect of pre-brand attitude (covariate) was significant, $F(1, 406) = 97.34, p < .001$. Also, the interaction effect of situation types \times culture, $F(4, 1624) = 23.04, p < .001$, and situation types \times pre-attitude, $F(4, 1624) = 6.89, p < .001$, were found to be statistically significant, confirming the findings of Experiment 1. That is, although the results indicate that the main effect of culture was non-significant, the findings still suggests that there are some cultural differences in how individuals from the two cultures perceive fictitious sophisticated brands in different social situations. For example, as displayed in Figure 21, regardless of their level of sophisticated self-concept, individuals in the U.S. showed greater attitude change than Korean subjects in the sophisticated and rugged situations. In contrast, for the likeable and trendy situations, both cultures showed relatively similar attitude mean scores toward the sophisticated brands. In addition, when the situation was least compatible with the personality traits of the brand (i.e., sophisticated brands in the rugged situation), U.S. individuals had lower mean scores ($M = 2.65$) than Koreans ($M = 3.57$), whereas when brand personality traits were congruent with social situation presented (i.e., sophisticated brands in sophisticated situation), U.S. participants showed more positive attitudes toward the brands ($M = 6.36$) than Koreans did ($M = 5.86$) (see Table 43). Thus, the situation congruity effect was more evident in the U.S. than in Korea, leading to the conclusion that H4 for the Sophistication dimension is not supported by the results of Experiment 2.

Finally, although self-concept did not appear to be a significant factor when consumers evaluated the brands under different social situations, the results of Experiment 2 suggest that a self congruity effect for the sophisticated brands was observed for the rugged situation (U.S. and Korea) and for the trendy situation (Korea). That is, when the situation was not congruent with the personality traits of the brands, the evaluations of the brands were determined by the level of the self-concept. However, contrary to H5, self congruity effects were observed in two situations among the Korean sample, but in only one situation in the U.S. Thus, H5 was not supported for the Sophistication dimension. This conclusion suggests that self-concept effects may be partially mediated by the prior attitude covariate.

Situation Congruity: Ruggedness dimension. An ANCOVA on the attitudes toward fictitious rugged brands yielded a significant within-subjects main effect of the situation types, $F(4, 1628) = 93.05, p < .001$. The nature of this effect was determined using a Bonferroni pairwise comparisons test. Overall, similar to those of the Sophistication dimension, the results suggest that the attitudes toward the fictitious rugged brands (such as Summit and Miner) across the five social situations differed significantly from one another ($p < .001$). However, individuals had similar mean scores for the rugged brand attitudes under the trendy and likeable situations ($p = 1.00$). The results of a mean comparisons test indicate that individuals showed the most positive attitudes toward the rugged brands under the rugged situation ($M = 5.62$), followed by the likeable situation ($M = 2.93$), the trendy situation ($M = 2.89$), the competence situation ($M = 2.55$), and the sophisticated situation ($M = 2.19$), replicating the result of the situation congruity effect in Experiment 1. Consistent with the findings of the Ruggedness dimension in Experiment 1, the sophisticated situation appeared the least compatible situation with the personality traits of the rugged brands, resulting in the lowest brand attitudes among the five social situations. The

findings are also consistent with those of the Sophistication dimension where the rugged situation was the least compatible situation for the rugged brands not only in the U.S., but also in Korea. Thus, H3 is supported by the Experiment 2 results.

Table 43

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Sophisticated Brands Attitudes
by Culture and Sophisticated Self-Concept (EX2)

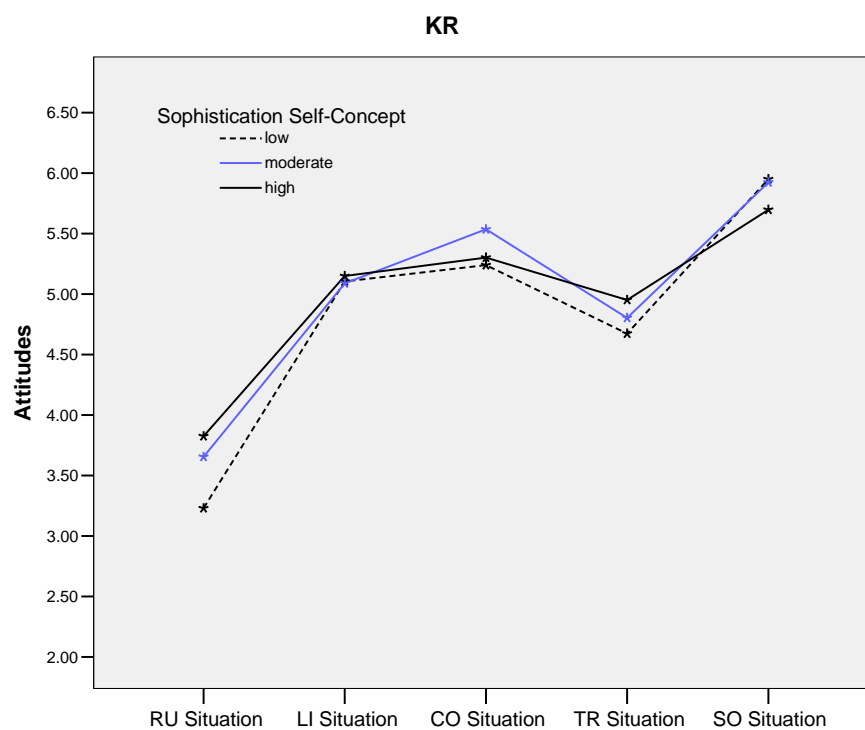
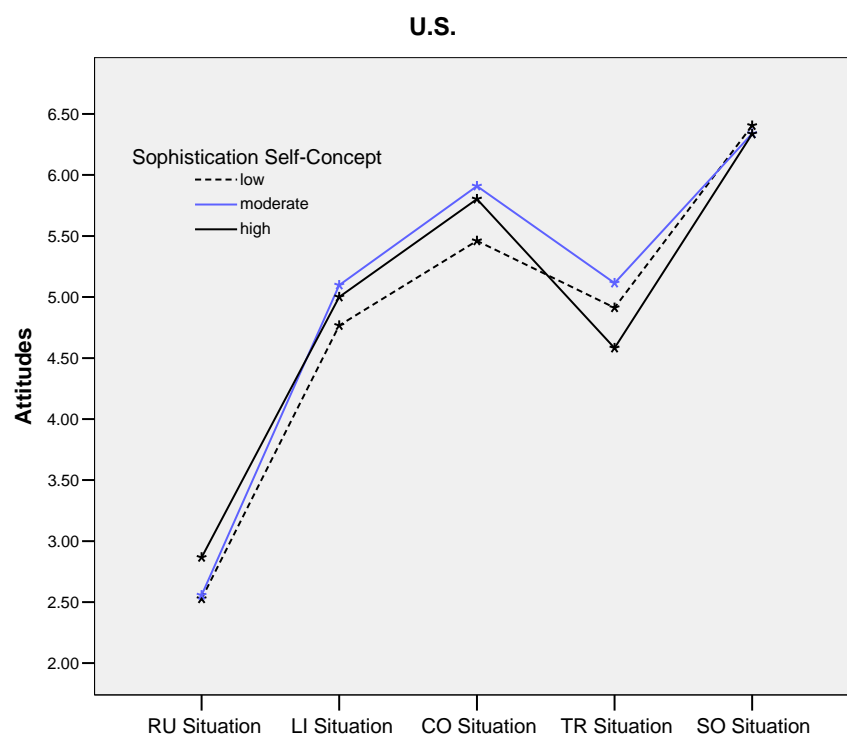
	U.S.			Korea		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Rugged Situation	2.52 (.21) <i>N</i> = 49	2.55 (.19) <i>N</i> = 56	2.86 (.15) <i>N</i> = 96	3.23 (.14) <i>N</i> = 99	3.65 (.17) <i>N</i> = 68	3.82 (.21) <i>N</i> = 45
	Total Mean = 2.65			Total Mean = 3.57		
Likeable Situation	4.76 (.18) <i>N</i> = 49	5.09 (.16) <i>N</i> = 56	5.00 (.13) <i>N</i> = 96	5.10 (.13) <i>N</i> = 99	5.08 (.15) <i>N</i> = 68	5.15 (.18) <i>N</i> = 45
	Total Mean = 4.95			Total Mean = 5.11		
Competent Situation	5.46 (.17) <i>N</i> = 49	5.91 (.15) <i>N</i> = 56	5.80 (.12) <i>N</i> = 96	5.24 (.12) <i>N</i> = 99	5.53 (.14) <i>N</i> = 68	5.30 (.17) <i>N</i> = 45
	Total Mean = 5.72			Total Mean = 5.36		
Trendy Situation	4.91 (.20) <i>N</i> = 49	5.11 (.18) <i>N</i> = 56	4.58 (.15) <i>N</i> = 96	4.67 (.14) <i>N</i> = 99	4.80 (.16) <i>N</i> = 68	4.95 (.20) <i>N</i> = 45
	Total Mean = 4.87			Total Mean = 4.81		
Sophisticated Situation	6.40 (.16) <i>N</i> = 49	6.34 (.14) <i>N</i> = 56	6.33 (.12) <i>N</i> = 96	5.95 (.11) <i>N</i> = 99	5.92 (.13) <i>N</i> = 68	5.70 (.16) <i>N</i> = 45
	Total Mean = 6.36			Total Mean = 5.86		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-sophisticated brand attitude index = 4.76.

Figure 21

Situation Congruity – Sophistication Dimension (EX2)



Further, as with Sophistication dimension, the between-subjects main effect for culture was not significant ($F < 1$). However, rugged self-concept, $F(2, 407) = 17.92, p < .001$, and pre-attitude (covariate), $F(1, 407) = 68.97, p < .001$, were found to be statistically significant. That is, regardless of social situation types, the more rugged their self-concept, the more subjects showed positive attitudes toward the rugged brands. As displayed in Figure 22, other than rugged situation which is congruent with personality traits of the rugged brands, the self congruity effect was found across social situations in the U.S. and Korea. When situations were incongruent with the brand personality, the attitudes toward the rugged brands were determined by the level of the rugged self-concept, thereby suggesting both situation congruity and self congruity coexist for the Ruggedness dimension.

In addition, as in Experiment 1, the two-way interaction effects of situation types \times culture, $F(4, 1628) = 26.32, p < .001$, situation types \times self-concept, $F(8, 1628) = 6.86, p < .001$, and situation types \times pre-attitude, $F(4, 1628) = 3.69, p < .01$, were found to be significant. However, a three-way interaction (situation types \times culture \times self-concept) was not statistically significant, $F(8, 1628) = 1.80, p = .07$. Although the main effect of culture was not significant, a significant situation types \times culture interaction effects suggest meaningful cultural differences on rugged brand attitudes across social situations. For instance, when the situation was compatible with the personality traits of the brand (e.g., rugged brand in the rugged situation), the U.S. individuals showed more positive attitudes ($M = 6.89$) than Korean individuals ($M = 5.16$). Thus, H4 was not supported for the Ruggedness dimension. Finally, the U.S. individuals had more positive attitude towards the rugged brands under the likeable situation ($M = 3.00$) than the trendy situation ($M = 2.59$), whereas Korean individuals showed the opposite pattern (likeable $M = 2.84$ vs. trendy $M = 3.21$), suggesting cultural variation across social situation types (Table 44).

Table 44

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Rugged Brands Attitudes
by Culture and Rugged Self-Concept (EX2)

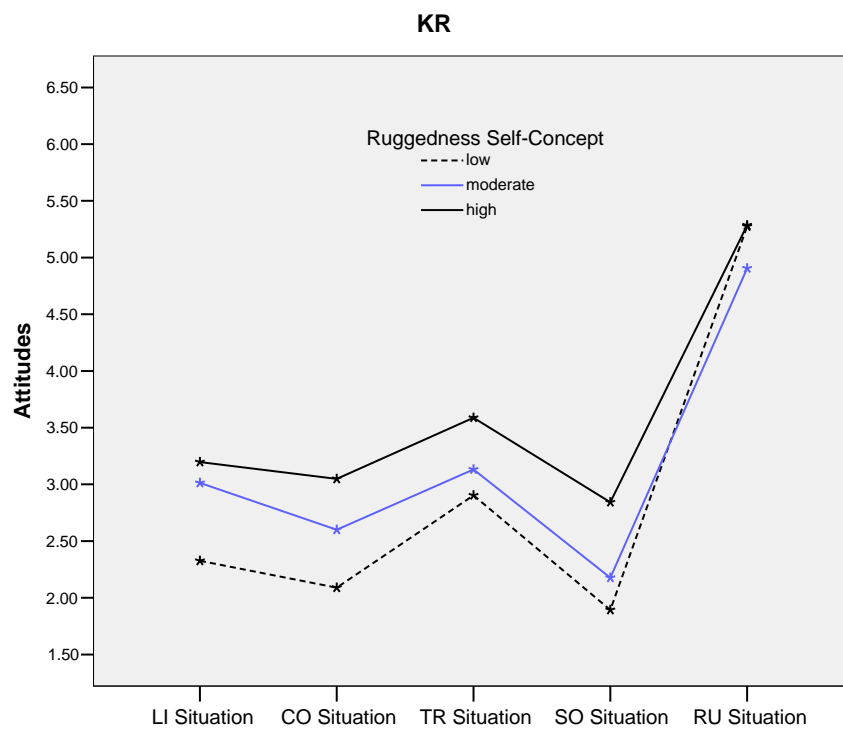
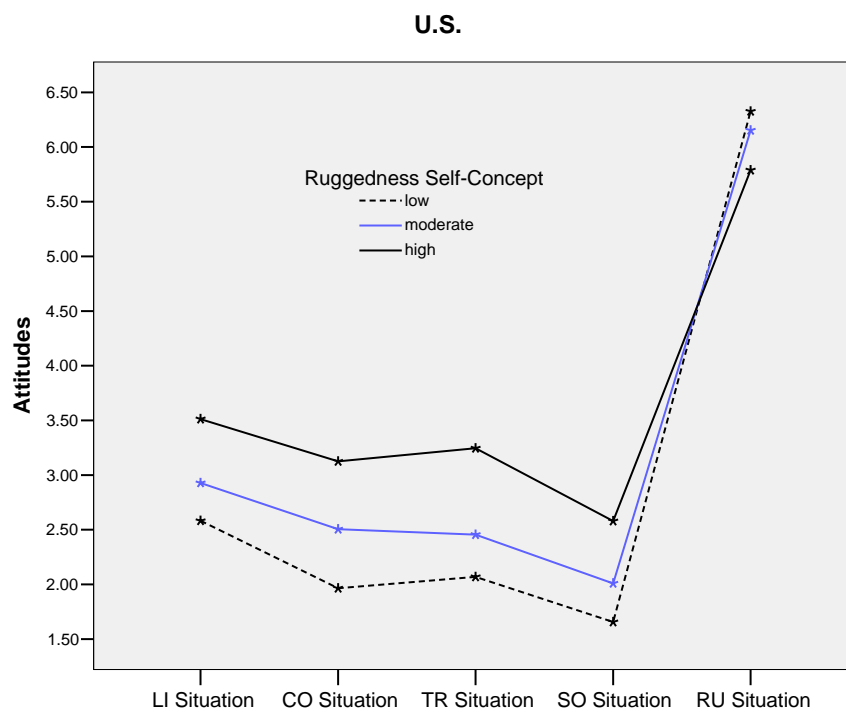
	U.S.			Korea		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Likeable Situation	2.58 (.16) <i>N</i> = 70	2.93 (.14) <i>N</i> = 87	3.51 (.20) <i>N</i> = 43	2.33 (.19) <i>N</i> = 50	3.01 (.14) <i>N</i> = 86	3.20 (.15) <i>N</i> = 78
	Total Mean = 3.01			Total Mean = 2.85		
Competent Situation	1.96 (.16) <i>N</i> = 70	2.51 (.14) <i>N</i> = 87	3.13 (.20) <i>N</i> = 43	2.09 (.18) <i>N</i> = 50	2.60 (.14) <i>N</i> = 86	3.05 (.15) <i>N</i> = 78
	Total Mean = 2.53			Total Mean = 2.58		
Trendy Situation	2.07 (.17) <i>N</i> = 70	2.46 (.15) <i>N</i> = 87	3.25 (.21) <i>N</i> = 43	2.90 (.20) <i>N</i> = 50	3.13 (.15) <i>N</i> = 86	3.59 (.16) <i>N</i> = 78
	Total Mean = 2.59			Total Mean = 3.21		
Sophisticated Situation	1.66 (.15) <i>N</i> = 70	2.01 (.13) <i>N</i> = 87	2.58 (.19) <i>N</i> = 43	1.89 (.17) <i>N</i> = 50	2.18 (.13) <i>N</i> = 86	2.84 (.14) <i>N</i> = 78
	Total Mean = 2.08			Total Mean = 2.30		
Rugged Situation	6.32 (.16) <i>N</i> = 70	6.15 (.14) <i>N</i> = 87	5.79 (.20) <i>N</i> = 43	5.27 (.19) <i>N</i> = 50	4.91 (.14) <i>N</i> = 86	5.28 (.15) <i>N</i> = 78
	Total Mean = 6.09			Total Mean = 5.16		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-rugged brand attitude index = 3.50.

Figure 22

Situation-Congruity – Ruggedness Dimensions (EX2)



Overall, the findings of Experiment 2 suggest that the situation congruity effect (H3) was supported for the Ruggedness dimension across cultures. That is, regardless of culture, individuals tended to evaluate the fictitious rugged brands most positively when the situation was congruent with the brand personality. However, contrary to the prediction (H4), situation congruity was not more evident in Korea. Rather, the results suggest that individuals in the U.S. were more sensitive to both congruent (sophisticated) and incongruent (rugged) situations when they evaluated the rugged brands. Further, the results also provide evidence of the self congruity effect when the situation was not congruent with the personality traits of the brands, thereby replicating the results of Experiment 1. However, as displayed in Figure 22, self congruity effects were found not only in the U.S. but also in Korea. Taken together, the findings suggest that both situation congruity and self congruity coexist across cultures for the Ruggedness dimension, dependent upon social situation types.

Situation Congruity: Trendiness Dimension. The results of an ANCOVA indicate that the within-subjects main effect of situation types was significant, $F(4, 1632) = 9.55, p < .001$, replicating the results of Experiment 1. Both U.S. and Korean individuals had the most positive attitudes toward the fictitious trendy brands (i.e., Tocks and Chaos) under the trendy social situation ($M = 5.91$), followed by competent situation ($M = 4.88$), sophisticated situation ($M = 4.65$), likeable situation ($M = 4.55$), and rugged situation ($M = 4.47$). A Bonferroni pairwise comparisons test suggests that very similar brand attitudes were observed for three situations (i.e., rugged, likeable, sophisticated situations), whereas two situations (i.e., trendy, competent) differed significantly from those three and one another ($p < .001$). Thus, the results support the situation congruity hypothesis (H3).

When the situation was congruent with the personality traits of the brand (e.g., trendy brands in a trendy situation), the U.S. individuals showed more positive attitudes ($M = 6.10$) than Korea individuals ($M = 5.72$), suggesting that the results of Experiment 2 fail to support H4 which predict that situation congruity will be more evident in Korea. Further, the results suggest that U.S. individuals were more likely to have positive attitudes toward the trendy brands under the competent situation ($M = 5.26$) than their Korean counterparts. Also, as shown in Table 45, both the low ($M = 3.73$) and moderate trendy self-concept groups ($M = 3.89$) in the U.S. rated the trendy brands much lower than the group of high trendy individuals ($M = 4.58$) when the brands were presented in the rugged situation, suggesting that both low and moderate groups were more sensitive to incongruent situations between the brand and social situation type. Although the same pattern for the rugged situation was not found in Korea, a somewhat similar pattern was found for the sophisticated situation which appeared to be the least compatible situation with the trendy brand in Korea.

Further, the results of Experiment 2 for the Trendiness dimension suggest that the main effect of culture was significant, $F(1, 408) = 5.76, p < .05$, replicating the results of Experiment 1. Unlike Experiment 1, however, the main effect of self-concept was also significant, $F(2, 408) = 4.99, p < .01$, suggesting that the self congruity effect was observed. As displayed in Figure 23, the self congruity effect was found across social situations and cultures. The only situation that did not show a self congruity effect in the U.S. was the competent situation. Also, both rugged and trendy situations did not show self congruity effects in Korea. That is, both situation congruity and self congruity effects were observed for the Trendiness dimension, replicating the results of the Ruggedness dimension. As predicted in H5, the results indicate that self congruity

effects were slightly more evident in the U.S. (e.g., four of five situations) than in Korea (e.g., three of five situations). Thus, H5 was supported for the Trendiness dimension in Experiment 2.

In addition, consistent with Experiment 1, the findings indicate that the situation types \times culture interaction was significant, $F(4, 1632) = 33.63, p < .001$. For example, as displayed in Table 45, regardless of the level of trendy self-concept, individuals in the U.S. tended to have the highest attitude mean scores under the trendy situation ($M = 6.10$) followed by competent ($M = 5.26$), sophisticated ($M = 4.99$), likeable ($M = 4.56$), and rugged situations ($M = 4.07$). In contrast, Korean individuals rated the trendy brands most positively under the trendy situation ($M = 5.72$), followed by rugged ($M = 4.87$), likeable ($M = 4.54$), competent ($M = 4.49$), and sophisticated situations ($M = 4.32$). It is interesting to observe that both the rugged situation (in the U.S.) and the sophisticated situation (in Korea) were the least acceptable situations for the trendy brands in Experiment 2. As discussed, the same results were found in Experiment 1 though the opposite patterns were observed. That is, the results of Experiment 1 indicate that U.S. individuals had the lowest attitude ratings under the sophisticated situation whereas Korean individuals showed the least acceptance of the trendy brands under the rugged situation. Although inconsistent findings were observed, overall results still suggest that both sophisticated and rugged situations were the least compatible with the personalities of the trendy brands in both cultures.

Finally, a covariate of pre-attitude on the trendy brands was significant, $F(1, 408) = 122.04, p < .001$, replicating the results for the Trendiness dimension in Experiment 1 as well as those of the Sophisticated and Ruggedness dimensions in Experiment 2. That is, pre-attitudes towards brands had significant effects on the follow up brand evaluations in different social situation types. On the basis of the findings of Experiment 1 and 2, the results support the existence of the situation congruity effect not only in the U.S. but also in Korea. Further, the

effect of culture was found to be significant, suggesting that cultural differences existed in how consumers in the U.S. and Korea perceived and evaluated the fictitious trendy brands in different social situations. More important, the self-concept plays an important role in how they evaluate the brands, thereby suggesting that self congruity was observed not only in the U.S. but also in Korea.

Table 45

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Trendy Brands Attitudes
by Culture and Trendy Self-Concept (EX2)

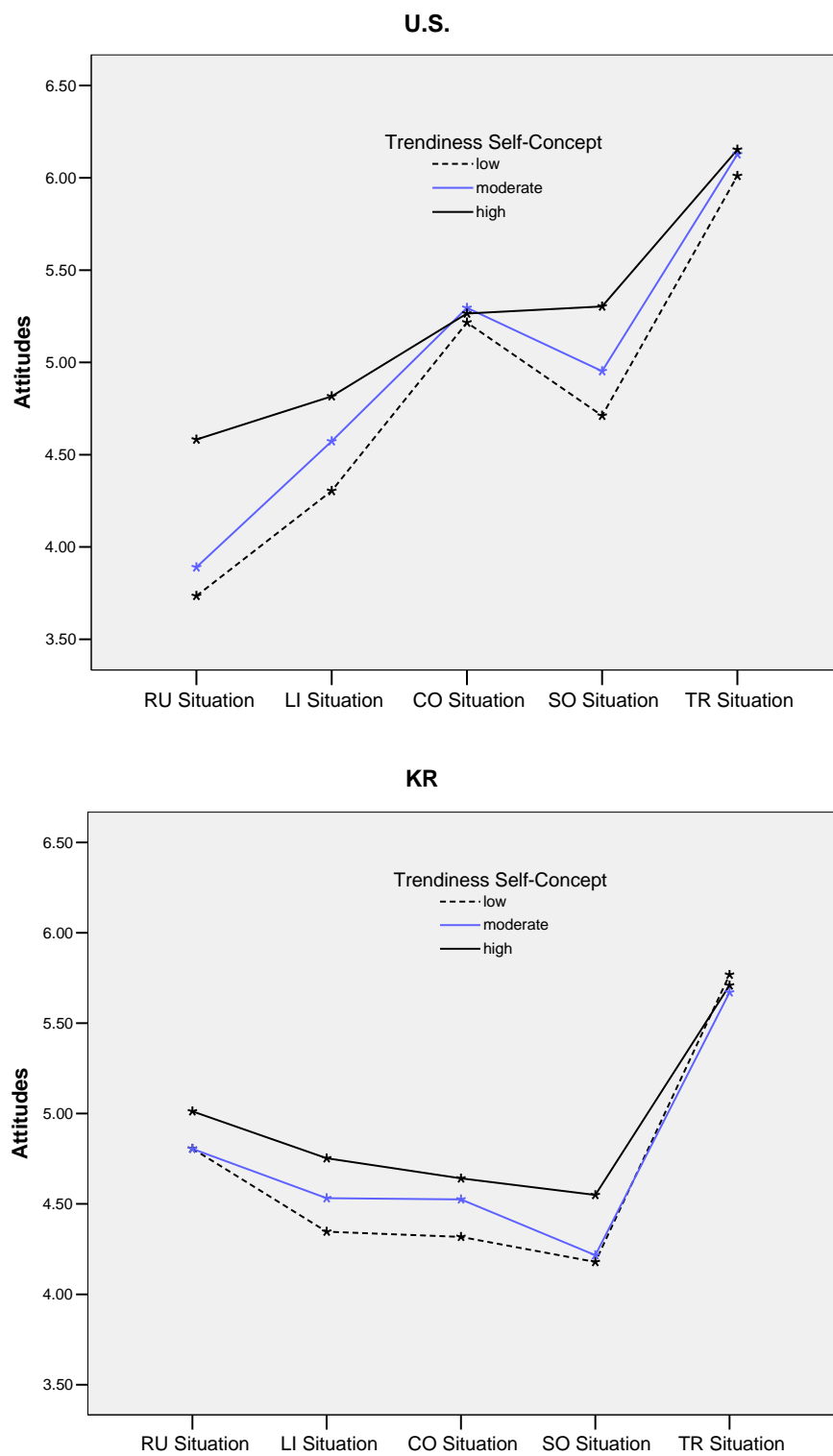
	U.S.			Korea		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Rugged Situation	3.73 (.19) <i>N</i> = 50	3.89 (.15) <i>N</i> = 79	4.58 (.16) <i>N</i> = 72	4.80 (.15) <i>N</i> = 81	4.80 (.17) <i>N</i> = 66	5.01 (.17) <i>N</i> = 72
	Total Mean = 4.07			Total Mean = 4.87		
Likeable Situation	4.30 (.20) <i>N</i> = 50	4.57 (.16) <i>N</i> = 79	4.58 (.17) <i>N</i> = 72	4.35 (.16) <i>N</i> = 81	4.53 (.18) <i>N</i> = 66	4.75 (.18) <i>N</i> = 72
	Total Mean = 4.56			Total Mean = 4.54		
Competent Situation	5.21 (.18) <i>N</i> = 50	5.29 (.15) <i>N</i> = 79	5.27 (.15) <i>N</i> = 72	4.32 (.15) <i>N</i> = 81	4.52 (.16) <i>N</i> = 66	4.64 (.16) <i>N</i> = 72
	Total Mean = 5.26			Total Mean = 4.49		
Sophisticated Situation	4.71 (.18) <i>N</i> = 50	4.95 (.15) <i>N</i> = 79	5.30 (.15) <i>N</i> = 72	4.18 (.14) <i>N</i> = 81	4.22 (.16) <i>N</i> = 66	4.55 (.16) <i>N</i> = 72
	Total Mean = 4.99			Total Mean = 4.32		
Trendy Situation	6.01 (.16) <i>N</i> = 50	6.12 (.13) <i>N</i> = 79	6.15 (.14) <i>N</i> = 72	5.77 (.13) <i>N</i> = 81	5.67 (.14) <i>N</i> = 66	5.71 (.14) <i>N</i> = 72
	Total Mean = 6.09			Total Mean = 5.72		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-trendy brand attitude index = 4.87.

Figure 23

Situation Congruity – Trendiness Dimension (EX2)



Situation Congruity: Competence dimension. An ANCOVA on the fictitious competent brand attitudes yielded a significant within-subjects main effect for situation types, $F(4, 1628) = 4.38, p < .01$. The nature of this effect was determined using a Bonferroni pairwise comparisons test. Overall, the results of the Bonferroni pairwise test indicate that the evaluation of the competent brands under the competent situation differed ($M = 5.43$) significantly from those of the other four situations ($p < .001$). In contrast, the attitudes toward the competent brands were relatively similar across the four situations (e.g., $M = 4.75$ for the sophisticated situation; $M = 4.70$ for the likeable situation; $M = 4.63$ for the trendy situation; $M = 4.58$ for the rugged situation). That is, consistent with the findings for the Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Trendiness dimensions from Experiment 1 and 2, the results support the situation congruity hypothesis in both cultures (H3).

Further, in support of H4 which predict that situation congruity will be more evident in Korea, when the compatible situation was presented (e.g., competent situation), Korean individuals scored higher on brand evaluation than U.S. individuals did, regardless of their levels of self-concepts. For example, as displayed in Figure 24, all three self-concept groups in Korea showed greater attitudes changes in the competent situations (e.g., low $M = 5.73$; moderate $M = 5.66$; high $M = 5.54$) than U.S. individuals (e.g., low $M = 4.91$; moderate $M = 5.21$; high $M = 5.51$), suggesting that a situation congruity effect was more evident in Korea than in the U.S. In addition, pre-attitude (covariate) was found to be statistically significant, $F(1, 407) = 53.55, p < .001$. The interaction effects of situation types \times self-concept ($F < 1$) and three-way interaction (situation types \times culture \times self-concept) ($F < 1$) were not statistically significant.

Further, the between-subjects main effect for self-concept was significant, $F(2, 407) = 5.32, p < .05$, but not for culture, $F(1, 407) = 2.86, p = .09$. In addition, the culture \times self-concept interaction was found to be significant, $F(2, 407) = 5.32, p < .01$. As indicated by the significant culture \times self-concept interaction effect, in the U.S., regardless of social situation types, the more they have competent self-concepts, the more they have positive attitudes toward the competent brands, suggesting a strong self congruity effect, regardless of social situations. However, the same pattern was not observed in the Korean data set (see Figure 24). Thus, in support of H5, for the Competence dimension, the self congruity effect was more evident in the U.S. than in Korea. That is, both situation and self congruity effects coexist in the U.S., but only the situation congruity effect was found in Korea.

As discussed, although the main effect for culture was not significant, culture \times situation types was found to be significant, $F(4, 1628) = 9.83, p < .001$, suggesting cultural differences across social situations. Overall, individuals in the U.S. had the highest mean ratings for the competent brands in the competent situation ($M = 5.21$), followed by the rugged situation ($M = 4.78$), the likeable situation ($M = 4.65$), the trendy situation ($M = 4.57$), and the sophisticated situation ($M = 4.51$). In contrast, Korean participants showed a different situation order for competent brand preference: $M = 5.64$ for the competent situation, $M = 4.99$ for the sophisticated situation, $M = 4.77$ for the likeable situation, $M = 4.69$ for the trendy situation, and $M = 4.37$ for the rugged situation (Table 46). That is, the rugged situation appeared the least compatible situation with the competent brands in Korea whereas sophisticated situation was the most incompatible.

In sum, the findings of Experiment 2 for the Competence dimension suggest that the situation congruity effect exists across the two cultures (H3). That is, regardless of culture,

individuals tended to evaluate the fictitious competent brands most positively when the situation was compatible with the brand personality. This situation congruity was more evident in Korea, supporting H4. Further, the results indicate that the self congruity effect was observed across social situations in the U.S. but not in Korea, supporting H5.

Table 46

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Competent Brands Attitudes
by Culture and Competent Self-Concept (EX2)

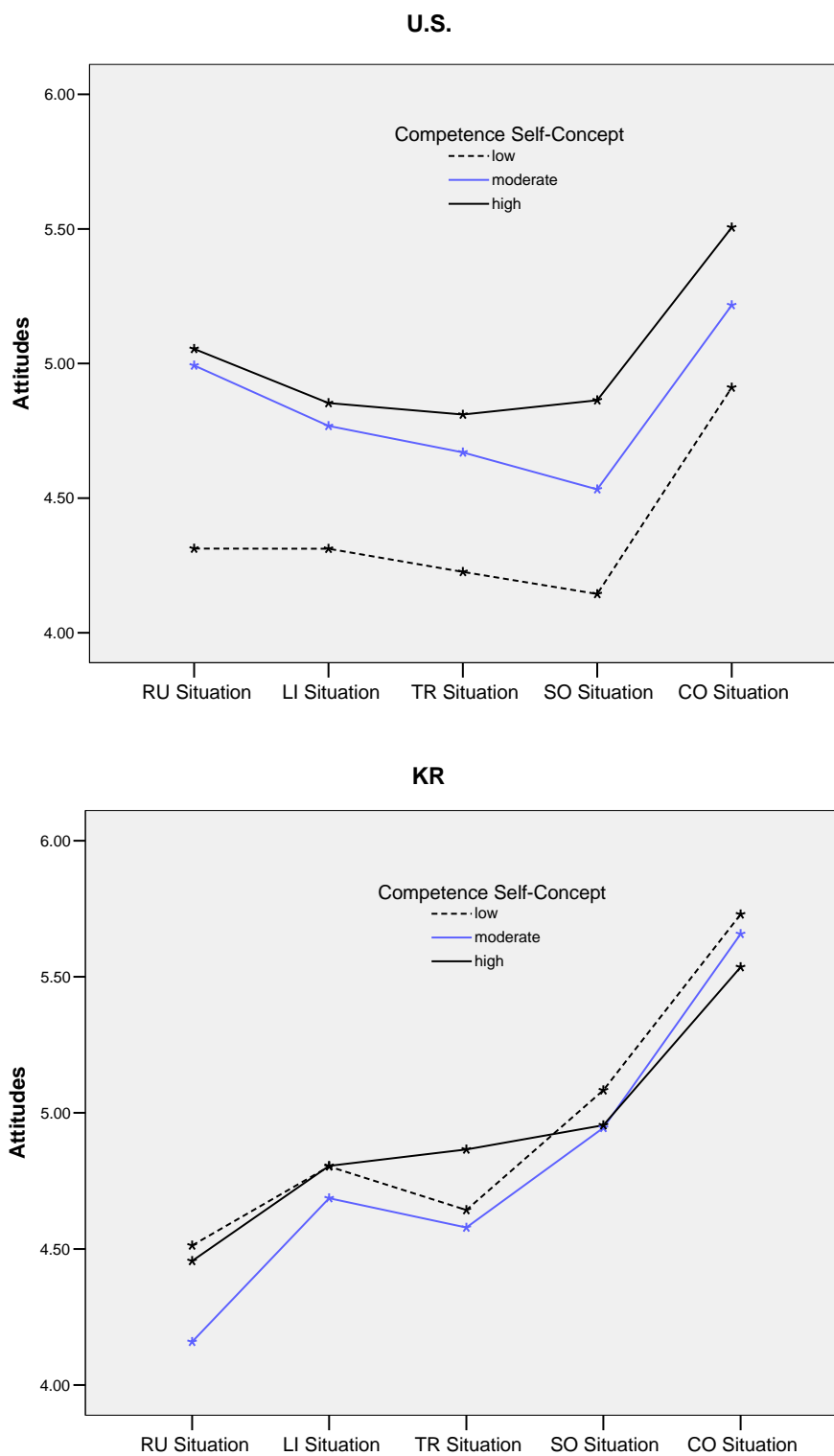
	U.S.			Korea		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Rugged Situation	4.31 (.19) <i>N</i> = 35	4.99 (.13) <i>N</i> = 79	5.05 (.13) <i>N</i> = 87	4.51 (.12) <i>N</i> = 99	4.16 (.14) <i>N</i> = 67	4.45 (.17) <i>N</i> = 47
	Total Mean = 4.79			Total Mean = 4.38		
Likeable Situation	4.31 (.22) <i>N</i> = 35	4.77 (.15) <i>N</i> = 79	4.85 (.14) <i>N</i> = 87	4.80 (.13) <i>N</i> = 99	4.69 (.16) <i>N</i> = 67	4.80 (.19) <i>N</i> = 47
	Total Mean = 4.64			Total Mean = 4.76		
Trendy Situation	4.23 (.23) <i>N</i> = 35	4.67 (.15) <i>N</i> = 79	4.81 (.14) <i>N</i> = 87	4.64 (.14) <i>N</i> = 99	4.58 (.16) <i>N</i> = 67	4.86 (.20) <i>N</i> = 47
	Total Mean = 4.57			Total Mean = 4.70		
Sophisticated Situation	4.14 (.22) <i>N</i> = 35	4.53 (.14) <i>N</i> = 79	4.86 (.13) <i>N</i> = 87	5.08 (.13) <i>N</i> = 99	4.95 (.16) <i>N</i> = 67	4.95 (.19) <i>N</i> = 47
	Total Mean = 4.51			Total Mean = 4.99		
Competent Situation	4.91 (.22) <i>N</i> = 35	5.22 (.14) <i>N</i> = 79	5.51 (.14) <i>N</i> = 87	5.73 (.13) <i>N</i> = 99	5.66 (.16) <i>N</i> = 67	5.54 (.19) <i>N</i> = 47
	Total Mean = 5.21			Total Mean = 5.64		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-competent brand attitude index = 4.81.

Figure 24

Situation Congruity – Competence Dimension (EX2)



Situation Congruity: Likeableness Dimension. First, the results of the ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the fictitious likeable brands suggest that the within-subjects main effect of situation types was significant, $F(4, 1632) = 5.76, p < .001$, replicating the findings of the four dimensions tested previously in Experiment 2. A Bonferroni pairwise comparisons test indicated that all pairwise comparisons except one (rugged vs. sophisticated situation) differed significantly from one another ($p < .05$). Overall, individuals showed the most positive attitudes toward the fictitious likeable brands in the likeable situation ($M = 5.71$), followed by the competent situation ($M = 5.11$), the rugged situation ($M = 4.67$), the sophisticated situation ($M = 4.53$), and the trendy situation ($M = 4.31$). That is, the results support situation congruity (H3) and confirm that the greater the congruity between situation and brand personality, the more positive attitudes consumers have toward that brand. Also, the results indicate that the trendy situation was the least congruent situation with the likeable brand not only in the U.S., but also in Korea. Further, when the social situation was congruent with the personality traits of the brand (e.g., likeable brands in a likeable situation), the U.S. individuals showed more positive attitudes ($M = 5.89$) than Korean individuals did ($M = 5.53$). However, when the least congruent situation was presented (i.e., trendy situation), the U.S. subjects had lower mean scores ($M = 4.16$) than Korean individuals ($M = 4.47$), suggesting that individuals in the U.S. were more sensitive to both congruent and incongruent situations when they evaluated the fictitious likeable brand. Thus, H4 was not supported for the Likeableness dimension in Experiment 2.

Second, the between-subjects main effect for culture, $F(1, 408) = 2.59, p = .11$, and self-concept, $F < 1$, were found not to be significant. Although the self-concept was not statistically significant, the self congruity effect was observed for two situations in the U.S.: trendy and sophisticated. However, the same results were not observed in Korea (see Figure 25).

Thus, the results support H5's prediction that self congruity will be more evident in the U.S. Further, the culture \times self-concept interaction was not significant ($F < 1$). However, the effect of pre-attitude (covariate) on the likeable brands was significant, $F(1, 408) = 83.21, p < .001$. The results of an ANCOVA on Likeableness dimension were largely consistent with those of the Sophistication dimension in Experiment 2.

Third, the interaction effect of situation types \times culture was significant, $F(4, 1632) = 9.77, p < .001$, but neither situation types \times self-concept ($F < 1$) nor a three-way interaction of situation types \times culture \times self-concept were significant ($F < 1$). That is, although the results indicate a non-significant main effect for culture, they still suggest that some cultural differences across different social situations exist. For example, as displayed in Figure 25, regardless of social situation types, Korean individuals with low likeable self-concepts had higher brand attitude mean scores than a group having moderate likeable self-concepts, confirming that the self congruity effect was not observed in the Korean data set. However, as discussed earlier, the self congruity effect was found for two social situations in the U.S. In addition, all of the U.S.'s three self-concept groups (low, moderate, and high) had similar mean scores for different social situation types, whereas Korean individuals showed different attitudes ratings across situations depending upon their level of self-concept. In sum, the results of Experiment 2 for the Likeable dimension suggest that the situation congruity effect was observed in both cultures. Regardless of culture, individuals evaluated the fictitious likeable brands most positively when the likeable situation was presented. Also, in the U.S. the self congruity effect was found though the effect was evident in only two situations out of five. However, no evidence was found to support the self congruity effect in Korea for the likeable brands. Perhaps, for Koreans, prior attitudes may fully mediate the self-concept effect.

Table 47

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Likeable Brands Attitudes

by Culture and Likeable Self-Concept (EX2)

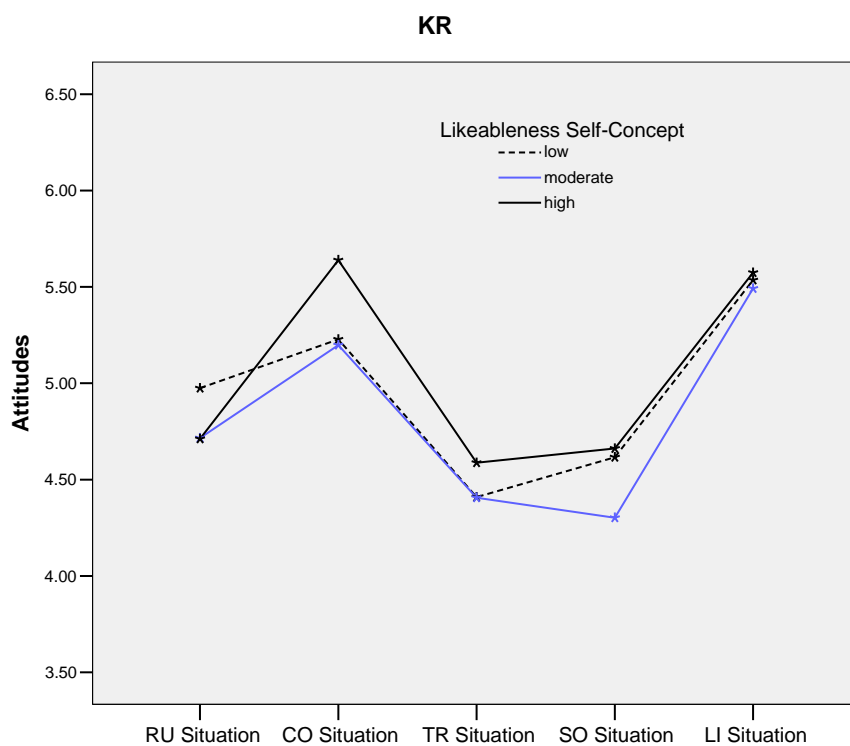
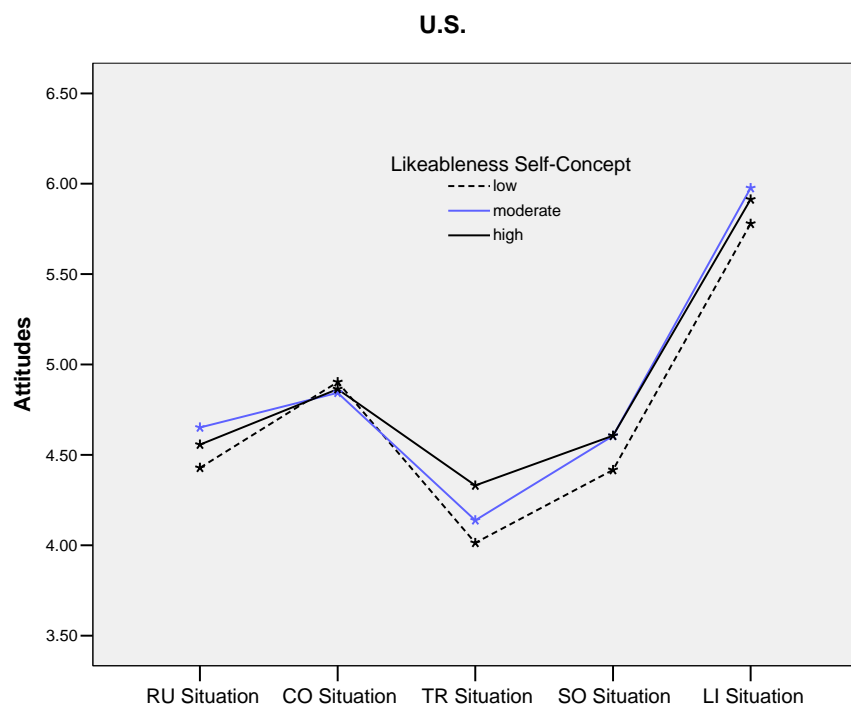
	U.S.			Korea		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Rugged Situation	4.43 (.17) <i>N</i> = 58	4.65 (.15) <i>N</i> = 74	4.56 (.16) <i>N</i> = 69	4.97 (.16) <i>N</i> = 68	4.71 (.14) <i>N</i> = 84	4.71 (.17) <i>N</i> = 62
	Total Mean = 4.54			Total Mean = 4.80		
Competent Situation	4.90 (.17) <i>N</i> = 58	4.84 (.15) <i>N</i> = 74	4.86 (.15) <i>N</i> = 69	5.23 (.15) <i>N</i> = 68	5.20 (.17) <i>N</i> = 84	5.64 (.16) <i>N</i> = 62
	Total Mean = 4.87			Total Mean = 5.35		
Trendy Situation	4.01 (.18) <i>N</i> = 58	4.14 (.16) <i>N</i> = 74	4.33 (.16) <i>N</i> = 69	4.41 (.16) <i>N</i> = 68	4.40 (.15) <i>N</i> = 84	4.59 (.17) <i>N</i> = 62
	Total Mean = 4.16			Total Mean = 4.47		
Sophisticated Situation	4.42 (.17) <i>N</i> = 58	4.60 (.16) <i>N</i> = 74	4.60 (.16) <i>N</i> = 69	4.61 (.16) <i>N</i> = 68	4.30 (.14) <i>N</i> = 84	4.66 (.17) <i>N</i> = 62
	Total Mean = 4.54			Total Mean = 4.53		
Likeable Situation	5.78 (.14) <i>N</i> = 58	5.98 (.13) <i>N</i> = 74	5.91 (.13) <i>N</i> = 69	5.53 (.13) <i>N</i> = 68	5.49 (.12) <i>N</i> = 84	5.57 (.14) <i>N</i> = 62
	Total Mean = 5.89			Total Mean = 5.53		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-likeable brand attitude index = 4.81.

Figure 25

Situation Congruity – Likeableness Dimension (EX2)



Summary of Results (H3, H4, and H5)

Taken in combination, the results of Experiment 2 replicate the findings of Experiment 1 and strongly support a situation congruity effect (H3), in which brand preference increases when the social situation is congruent with the brand personality, in the U.S. and Korea. In addition, the significant effects of self-concepts on brand evaluations were found for four dimensions: Ruggedness, Trendiness (U.S. only), Competence, and Likeableness (U.S. only), suggesting that both situation congruity and self congruity effects were observed across cultures. However, for the Sophistication dimension, self congruity effects were not found for any of the social situations. Thus, overall findings suggest that the self congruity effect was more evident in the U.S. than in Korea, supporting H5. Further, the effect of pre-brand attitude (covariate) was significant for all five situations, but a three-way interaction of situation types, culture, and self-concept was not found to be significant for any of the five dimensions.

Although the between-subjects main effect for culture was significant only for the Trendiness dimension, the situation types \times culture interaction effects were significant for all five dimensions, suggesting some meaningful cultural differences were observed. For instance, across the five dimensions, both U.S. and Korean individuals had the most positive attitude scores when the situations were congruent with the personality traits of the fictitious brands. However, when the least congruent situations were examined for each of the five dimensions, somewhat different results were observed for the Trendiness and Competence dimensions. For U.S. participants, the least compatible situation for the trendy and competent brands were rugged situation and sophisticated situation, respectively. However, for Korean participants, sophisticated and rugged situations appeared to be least acceptable for the trendy and competent brands, respectively.

The results of Experiment 2 suggest that H4 was only supported for the Competence dimension. The only dimension for which situation congruity was more evident in Korea than in the U.S. was Competence. In fact, for the other four dimensions (Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, and Likeableness), unpredicted patterns of situation congruity effect were observed. That is, across those the four dimensions, individuals in the U.S. were more likely to have higher brand attitude means when the situation was congruent with the personality traits of the brands than Korean individuals were. Despite these findings, the results of Experiment 1 and 2 strongly support situation congruity hypothesis across the five different dimensions in both cultures.

The Role of Self-Monitoring in Self and Situation Congruity (H6 and H7)

To test the moderating role of self-monitoring in situation congruity, a 2 (Self-Monitoring: low vs. high) \times 3 (Self-Concept: low vs. moderate vs. high) \times 2 (Situation Types: incongruent vs. congruent) mixed design ANCOVA was conducted for each dimension. The same set of analyses conducted in Experiment 1 was run for Experiment 2. That is, self-monitoring and self-concept were entered as between-subjects factors and two social situation types (incongruent vs. congruent) were entered as a within-subjects factor. Of the five situations tested for each dimension, four situations which are not congruent with the brand personality traits were combined. Further, two potential covariates were included: (1) the order of the social situations manipulation, and (2) gender. Neither was significant. Finally, the prior (pretest) brand attitude index for each dimension was included as a covariate. Note that H6 and H7 were tested using a pooled data set (both U.S. and Korea).

Self-Monitoring Interaction: Sophistication dimension. First, the results of the 2 \times 3 \times 2 mixed design ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the sophisticated brands suggest that the

within-subjects main effect of the social situation types was statistically significant, $F(1, 407) = 59.73, p < .001$. That is, the sophisticated brands were evaluated more positively in the congruent (sophisticated) situation ($M = 6.12$) than in the incongruent (rugged, trendy, competent, and likeable) situations ($M = 4.62$), thereby demonstrating the existence of the situation congruity effect. However, the between-subjects main effects for self-monitoring ($F < 1$) and for self-concept ($F < 1$) were not statistically significant. In addition, a non-significant self-concept \times self-monitoring interaction was found, $F(2, 407) = 2.05, p = .13$. That is, the situation congruity effect was strong for high self-monitors ($M = 6.13$) as well as for low self-monitors ($M = 6.12$) for the Sophistication dimension (see Table 48). Therefore, H6 was not supported for the Sophistication dimension. Further, as shown in Table 48, the self congruity effect was not observed at all. Thus, H7 was not supported.

Table 48

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Sophisticated Brands Attitudes
by Self-Monitoring and Sophisticated Self-Concept (EX2), $N = 414$

	Low Self-Monitoring			High Self-Monitoring		
	Low Self-concept	Moderate Self-concept	High Self-concept	Low Self-concept	Moderate Self-concept	High Self-concept
Incongruent Situation	4.49 (.09) $N = 86$	4.79 (.10) $N = 63$	4.50 (.10) $N = 68$	4.63 (.10) $N = 62$	4.56 (.13) $N = 61$	4.80 (.10) $N = 74$
	Total Mean = 4.59			Total Mean = 4.66		
Congruent Situation	6.00 (.12) $N = 86$	6.23 (.14) $N = 63$	6.12 (.13) $N = 68$	6.25 (.14) $N = 62$	6.00 (.14) $N = 61$	6.15 (.13) $N = 74$
	Total Mean = 6.12			Total Mean = 6.13		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-sophisticated brand attitude index = 4.77.

Self-Monitoring Interaction: Ruggedness dimension. The results of the ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the rugged brands indicate that the within-subjects main effect of the social situation types was statistically significant, $F(1, 408) = 168.44, p < .001$. That is, the rugged brands were evaluated more positively for the rugged (congruent) situation ($M = 5.61$) than for the four incongruent situations ($M = 2.63$), thereby replicating the results of previous findings (situation congruity effect). Further, the between-subjects main effects for self-concept was significant, $F(2, 408) = 4.72, p < .01$. However, the between-subjects main effect for self-monitoring was found to be insignificant, $F(1, 408) = 2.12, p = .15$. That is, as shown in Table 49, both low and high self-monitors had similar mean scores for rugged brand attitudes across situations. Consistent with Experiment 1, no support for H6 was found for the Ruggedness dimension, suggesting that self congruity effects were observed regardless of the level of self-monitoring. In addition, the self congruity effect was found in incongruent situations for both low and high self-monitors. Thus, the results fail to reject the null hypothesis for H7. No evidence for that self congruity effect is more evident for low self-monitors than for high self-monitors was provided in Ruggedness dimension.

Table 49

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Rugged Brands Attitudes

by Self-Monitoring and Rugged Self-Concept (EX2), N = 415

	Low Self-Monitoring			High Self-Monitoring		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Incongruent Situation	2.21 (.12) N = 78	2.70 (.11) N = 85	3.26 (.14) N = 55	2.10 (.16) N = 42	2.50 (.11) N = 89	3.04 (.13) N = 66
	Total Mean = 2.72			Total Mean = 2.55		
Congruent Situation	6.03 (.16) N = 78	5.51 (.15) N = 85	5.36 (.19) N = 55	5.58 (.22) N = 42	5.53 (.15) N = 89	5.57 (.18) N = 66
	Total Mean = 5.63			Total Mean = 5.57		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-rugged brand attitude index = 3.50.

Self-Monitoring Interaction: Trendiness dimension. The results of the ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the trendy brands were similar to those of the Ruggedness dimension. That is, the results suggest that the within-subjects main effect of the social situation types was significant, $F(1, 409) = 29.76, p < .001$. The trendy brands were evaluated more positively for the congruent (trendy) situation ($M = 5.91$) than for the four incongruent situations ($M = 4.65$), thereby demonstrating the situation congruity effect. Further, the between-subjects main effects for self-concept was significant, $F(2, 409) = 3.17, p < .05$. However, the between-subjects main effect for self-monitoring was found to be insignificant, $F < 1$. As shown in Table 50, both low and high self-monitors evaluated trendy brands similarly in congruent as well as incongruent situations. Thus, H6 was not supported for the Trendiness dimension. Further, as indicated by a significant self-concept effect, self congruity was observed when situations were not congruent with the personality traits of the brands. However, the results suggest that both low and high self-

monitors evaluated the trendy brands based on their level of self-concept (self congruity) in incongruent situations, replicating the results of Experiment 1. Therefore, H7 was not supported for the Trendiness dimension.

Table 50

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Trendy Brands Attitudes

by Self-Monitoring and Trendy Self-Concept (EX2), N = 416

	Low Self-Monitoring			High Self-Monitoring		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Incongruent Situation	4.44 (.10) <i>N = 90</i>	4.58 (.11) <i>N = 76</i>	4.87 (.12) <i>N = 53</i>	4.46 (.13) <i>N = 41</i>	4.64 (.12) <i>N = 69</i>	4.88 (.10) <i>N = 87</i>
	Total Mean = 4.63			Total Mean = 4.66		
Congruent Situation	5.91 (.12) <i>N = 90</i>	5.77 (.13) <i>N = 76</i>	6.07 (.16) <i>N = 53</i>	5.75 (.18) <i>N = 41</i>	6.08 (.14) <i>N = 69</i>	5.87 (.12) <i>N = 87</i>
	Total Mean = 5.91			Total Mean = 5.90		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-trendy brand attitude index = 4.87.

Self-Monitoring Interactionism: Competence dimension. The results of the ANCOVA on the attitudes toward the competent brands suggest that the within-subjects main effect of situation types was significant, $F(, 408) = 16.74, p < .001$. That is, subjects showed more preference for the competent brands when the competent situation ($M = 5.49$) versus incongruent situations ($M = 4.72$) was presented, thereby demonstrating the situation congruity effect. However, no between-subjects main effect was statistically significant. As shown in Table 51, regardless of the level of self-monitoring, situation congruity was observed. Thus, H6 was not supported for the Competence dimension. Further, self congruity was found for high self-

monitors when situations were incongruent with the personality traits of the brands. However, it was not observed for low self-monitors. Therefore, the opposite results were found for H7. Thus, both H6 and H7 were not supported for the Competence dimension.

Table 51

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Competent Brands Attitudes
by Self-Monitoring and Competent Self-Concept (EX2), N = 415

	Low Self-Monitoring			High Self-Monitoring		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Incongruent Situation	4.82 (.10) <i>N = 78</i>	4.64 (.10) <i>N = 74</i>	4.78 (.11) <i>N = 67</i>	4.36 (.12) <i>N = 56</i>	4.71 (.10) <i>N = 72</i>	4.93 (.11) <i>N = 68</i>
	Total Mean = 4.74			Total Mean = 4.67		
Congruent Situation	5.57 (.15) <i>N = 78</i>	5.43 (.15) <i>N = 74</i>	5.39 (.16) <i>N = 67</i>	5.43 (.18) <i>N = 56</i>	5.41 (.15) <i>N = 72</i>	5.67 (.16) <i>N = 68</i>
	Total Mean = 5.46			Total Mean = 5.50		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-competent brand attitude index = 4.82.

Situation Congruity: Likeableness dimension. Finally, the results of the ANCOVA on the attitudes toward likeable brands yielded a significant within-subjects main effect of the situation types, $F(1, 409) = 14.14, p < .001$. Similar to those of the four dimensions tested before, the results suggest that the attitudes toward the fictitious rugged brands was more positively evaluated under the likeable situation than for the incongruent situation, thereby further supporting the situation congruity effect. However, as with the Competence dimension, the between-subjects main effect for self-monitoring ($F < 1$) and for self-concept ($F < 1$) were not statistically significant. That is, as shown in Table 52, individuals showed similar attitude mean

scores across situations regardless of their level of self-monitoring. No moderating effect of self-monitoring was observed. Thus, H6 was not supported for the Likeableness dimension. Further, although self-concept was not statistically significant, the self congruity effect was observed among low self-monitoring individuals whereas the same pattern was not found for high self-monitors, thereby supporting H7. As in Table 52, the evaluations of the likeable brands among low self-monitors were determined by their level of likeable self-concept across social situations.

Table 52

Adjusted Means^a and Standard Errors for Likeable Brands Attitudes
by Self-Monitoring and Likeable Self-Concept (EX2), N = 416

	Low Self-Monitoring			High Self-Monitoring		
	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>	<i>Low Self-concept</i>	<i>Moderate Self-concept</i>	<i>High Self-concept</i>
Incongruent Situation	4.65 (.10) <i>N = 81</i>	4.73 (.10) <i>N = 87</i>	4.83 (.13) <i>N = 51</i>	4.60 (.14) <i>N = 46</i>	4.46 (.11) <i>N = 71</i>	4.68 (.10) <i>N = 80</i>
	Total Mean = 4.74			Total Mean = 4.67		
Congruent Situation	5.56 (.12) <i>N = 81</i>	5.72 (.12) <i>N = 87</i>	5.80 (.16) <i>N = 51</i>	5.81 (.16) <i>N = 46</i>	5.71 (.13) <i>N = 71</i>	5.73 (.12) <i>N = 80</i>
	Total Mean = 5.46			Total Mean = 5.50		

Note: Higher means indicate more favorable attitudes.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-likeable brand attitude index = 4.81.

Summary of Results (H6 and H7)

In sum, the results of the $2 \times 3 \times 2$ mixed design ANCOVA in Experiment 2 provide no evidence for the role of self-monitoring in situation congruity. For the five dimensions tested, no significant effects of the self-monitoring variable were observed. That is, regardless of the level of self-monitoring, individuals were more likely to show positive attitudes toward the

brands when the social situation was congruent versus incongruent with the personality traits of the brands. As noted, H6 was supported for the Sophistication dimension in Experiment 1. However, H6 was not supported for any of the five dimensions tested in Experiment 2. As discussed, one possible reason for the non-significant role of self-monitoring may have been driven by the stimulus used in both experiments. Subjects were given both visual illustrations and verbal descriptions before they evaluated the brands across social situations. Perhaps, the situations provided were so strong that even low self-monitoring individuals showed high situation congruity effects across five dimensions.

Regarding H7, it was only supported for the Likeableness dimension. That is, low self-monitors determine their attitudes toward the likeable brands on the basis of their level of likeable self concepts regardless of social situation types. However, for the four other dimensions tested in Experiment 2, the results fail to support the prediction (H7) that self congruity will be more evident among low self-monitors. Taken together, Experiments 1 and 2 provide very weak (perhaps no) evidence of the impact of self-monitoring on situation congruity across the five dimensions. Overall, H6 was not supported. Similarly, the results of both experimental studies provide weak support for H7. Nevertheless, overall findings provide further support for both the self and situation congruity hypotheses, providing theoretical support for the self-expressive promotion and use of commercial brands.

CHAPTER VII

GENERAL DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary of Research

Much prior research in consumer psychology has examined how the self-concept can influence and be influenced by consumer behavior variables. The primary goal of this research was to test two theoretical conceptualizations of the self (stable vs. malleable self-concept) to better predict consumer behavior and the effectiveness of persuasion processes. These studies empirically investigated the role of self-concept, brand personality, and social situational cues on consumers' brand evaluations and choice of commercial brands. By providing empirical support of self and situation congruity effects, the current research extends our understanding of the importance of self-concept, brand personality, and social situational cues in consumer behavior and persuasion processes. The results of Experiments 1 and 2 provide empirical evidence for the premise that the self expressive use of brands is driven by both the stable and dynamic self-concepts.

Across the two experiments, both self and situation congruity effects were supported across dimensions and cultures. This is consistent with the hypothesis that brands with distinct personality traits that are congruent with consumers' self-concepts are evaluated more positively than brands with incongruent personality traits. Also, as predicted, brands were evaluated more positively when situational cues were congruent with the personality traits of the brands than when incongruent situational cues were presented. These studies extend prior work on self

congruity and provide empirical evidence that when consumers perceive highly salient situational cues (e.g., mountain biking, New Year's party), they try to be consistent with those cues in choosing brands rather than with their self-concepts. That is, given highly salient social situations, situation congruity effects will be more evident than self congruity effects not only in the U.S. but also in Korea. Further, these self and situation congruity effects were tested with a moderating variable of self-monitoring. However, as discussed, the moderating role of this variable was found not to be significant across cultures. Nevertheless, by manipulating social situations in which brands are used, creating fictitious brands with personality trait associations, and measuring consumers' self-concepts using brand personality traits, overall findings of the current research provide empirical support for both self and situation congruity, thus making theoretical and practical contributions to the consumer psychology literature.

Self-Concept

In this research, as exploratory research questions, similarities and differences in self-concepts across cultures and gender were examined by measuring consumers' self-concepts with brand personality traits developed by Sung and Tinkham (2005). The results from two experiments suggest that females tend to have more sophisticated self-concepts than male counterparts, whereas male subjects tend to have more rugged self-concepts than female subjects. Further, individuals in the U.S. showed a higher level of sophisticated self-concepts than individuals in Korea, whereas Koreans are more likely to have rugged self-concepts than American people. As for the Trendiness dimension, both U.S. and Korean subjects showed similar self-concept mean scores. And finally, females tend to have higher competent and likeable self-concepts than male counterparts. As for self-monitoring, the analyses of sample

characteristics from the two experiments suggest that there are more high self-monitors in Korea than in the U.S.

Self Congruity Effect

Based on the theoretical framework of self congruity (e.g., stable self theory, self-verification theory, similarity effect), the current research hypothesized that consumers prefer brands that exhibit a subset of personality traits congruent with their self-concepts, suggesting that brands are used for self-expressive and symbolic benefits for the consumer (Aaker 1999; Belk 1988). In Experiments 1 (three personality dimensions) and 2 (five personality dimensions), the self congruity hypothesis was supported across dimensions and two cultures, demonstrating that consumers use brands that are congruent with their self-images to create and communicate their self-concepts (e.g., Birdwell 1968; Belk 1988; Dolchi 1969; Gardner and Levy 1955; Kleine, Kleine, and Allen 1995; Sirgy 1982; Solomon 1983). That is, the current research suggests that brands with distinct personality traits on a particular dimension are more favorably evaluated by consumers who perceive themselves to be schematic rather than aschematic on that personality dimension. Employing real (Experiment 1) and fictitious brands (Experiment 2) associated with a set of personality traits, the results provide empirical support for the premise that the personality traits of brands influence consumer behavior variables such as brand attitude, preference, and choice. As suggested by Aaker (1997), one of the reasons for the relatively weak empirical support among consumer psychologists for self congruity effects (both actual and ideal self) over the last five decades is that testing of the matching hypothesis between a consumer and a brand has occurred at the aggregate level rather than at the dimensional level. By testing self congruity effects at the dimensional level of personality, the current study provides strong

support for self congruity effects across five personality dimensions: Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness (Sung and Tinkham 2005), as well as extending prior research on self congruity.

This research also has important implications for consumer researchers examining perceptions of brand personality and the role of brand personality in consumer behavior cross-culturally. Although there have been some efforts to examine the extent to which the structure of brand personality dimensions are generalizable to different cultures (e.g., Aaker, Benet-Martinez, and Garolera 2001; Rojas-Mendez, Erenchun-Podlech, and Silva-Olave 2004; Sung and Tinkham 2005), no study to date has examined the self congruity effect cross culturally. In the past five decades there has been an ongoing discussion of self congruity among consumer psychologists. Although a number of studies were generally supportive of a positive relationship between self-brand congruity and brand preference, and self congruity effects are well documented in the consumer psychology literature (e.g., Birdwell 1964; Grubb 1965; Grubb and Stern 1971; Ross 1971), virtually all of the empirical studies have focused on consumers in the U.S. Very little is known about the role of brand personality in defining, expressing, and communicating self-concepts of consumers in Korea. The current research tested and extended the self congruity hypothesis in the U.S. as an example of an individualistic culture and in Korea as a collectivistic culture, providing further support for the applicability of the self congruity hypothesis across cultures. That is, the current research provides evidence that consistency and stability is an essential condition of psychological well-being (Suh 2002) not only in Western cultures, but also in East Asian cultures. Although prior cross cultural studies suggested that consistency is less emphasized and salient in East Asian cultures, the results of this research

suggest that self congruity is a powerful psychological factor in how consumers form preferences for commercial brands across cultures.

From the viewpoint of the manager, based on fictitious brands imbued with less salient personalities and images in consumers' minds, the results of Experiment 2 suggest that consumers prefer brands congruent with their self-concept traits. Although advertisers have claimed the importance of brand personality in the persuasion process (e.g., Biel 1993; Ogilvy 1983; Plummer 1985), academic research in advertising and consumer psychology has made little effort and progress in empirically assessing this intuitive view. The results of the current research provide evidence that brand personality traits, which can be created and marketed by advertisers and marketing communicators, can be used as a central driver in enhancing persuasion and increasing brand preference and choice (Biel 1993), and can be used to market a brand across cultures (Plummer 1985). A brand's personality can be created and maintained by a variety of marketing activities such as advertising, packaging, price, user imagery, symbols, public relations efforts, and celebrity endorsers (Aaker 1996). By creating advertising and marketing communication strategies consistent with the intended personality traits at a dimensional level (e.g., a sophisticated brand with a high price and consistent sophisticated message strategies throughout the campaign), advertisers and marketers may increase the initial preferences of the target market (e.g., consumers with sophisticated self-concepts, high income, and education levels) for newly developed brands, thereby enhancing persuasion. For instance, advertising messages congruent with the personality traits of a brand, directed to target consumers whose self-concepts are congruent with the personality of the brand, should be perceived as more persuasive than messages incongruent with their self-concept and the personalities of the brands (e.g., Moon 2002; Wheeler, Petty, and Bizer 2005).

Situation Congruity Effect

The current research also tests the impact of the interplay of social situation and brand personality as a form of self-expression on attitudes toward commercial brands. Although a number of empirical studies have supported the self congruity effect, there has been a lack of consensus among consumer psychologists. As discussed earlier, the primary reason for the relatively limited consensus on and support for self congruity in consumer research in the past five decades was that self-concept was conceptualized as an invariant construct across situations (Aaker 1999; Sirgy 1982). Consistent with Markus and Kunda (1986), though consumers' self-concepts tend to play an important role in consumer behaviors, exceptions can exist. That is, dependent upon the social situations and surroundings, consumers tend to express different selves, such as an actual self, ideal self, ought self, desired social self, ideal social self, and looking glass self (see Sirgy 1982). By conceptualizing the self as dynamic (or malleable), the current research integrates the multiple aspects of selves.

As predicted, the results of the two experiments provide evidence that congruency of brand personality traits to social situations increases brand preferences. Across five personality dimensions (i.e., Sophistication, Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeableness), brands were most positively evaluated by consumers in the U.S. and Korea when the social situation cue presented was congruent with the personality traits of the brands. Consistent with the findings of Aaker (1999), the results of the two experiments suggest that attitude toward both real and fictitious brands that are strongly associated with a particular personality dimension are more positive and favorable when the nature of the social situation is congruent versus incongruent with that particular personality dimension. Further, the results of the research suggest that the evaluation of the brands was determined by consumers' self-concepts when

brands were presented in incongruent situations, especially for the Ruggedness, Trendiness, Competence, and Likeable dimensions, suggesting that both situation congruity and self congruity effects coexist. That is, when social situational cues are congruent with the personality traits of brands, situation congruity (malleable self theory) has more predictive power than self congruity (stable self theory), whereas when situational cues are incongruent with the personality traits of the brands, self congruity is more effective in predicting consumer behavior.

From a theoretical perspective, the findings of the current research make several contributions to the consumer psychology literature. First, the results of this research provide support for the conceptualization of the self as malleable (dynamic) (Markus and Kunda 1986). In Experiments 1 and 2, regardless of their self-concept, subjects in both cultures showed the most positive attitude toward the brands if situational cues were congruent with those of the brands. That is, consumers act differently in different social situations. Thus, the results of this research provide an answer for why relatively limited empirical support for the self congruity effect has been found in the consumer behavior literature. As noted by Belk (1974), circumstances, contexts, or situations are primary reasons for unpredicted consumer behaviors. As Sirgy (1982) argued, the multi-dimensional aspects of self-concept constructs sacrifices theoretical parsimony. By incorporating a multi-dimensional view of the self (e.g., actual self, ideal self, desired self, ought self, social self) into a more parsimonious framework using malleable (dynamic) self theory (Aaker 1999), the current research provides a better understanding of the precise role of brand personalities, self-concepts, and social situations in the persuasion process. The results suggest that situation cues must be considered to better describe and explain the nature of the interrelationship between self-concepts and brand personalities.

As for cross-cultural aspects of the research, the results of the two experiments suggest that situation congruity is strongly supported across cultures. Contrary to the prediction of the current research, however, situation congruity appeared to be more evident in the U.S. than in Korea. As reviewed earlier, prior research suggests that situational cues have a greater influence on the behavior of members of collectivist cultures than individualist cultures. That is, individuals in collectivist cultures are more likely to be motivated to embed themselves in a social network by fitting in with others and becoming part of the network of relationships (e.g., Markus and Kitayama 1991; Singelis 1994). However, the results of this research suggest that situational cues also exert a considerable influence on behavior in individualist cultures (U.S.). In fact, overall findings show that members of the collectivist culture (Korea) did not demonstrate more substantial (bit less) shifts in brand preferences across situations. Finally, though similar patterns were observed across cultures, self congruity effects were somewhat more evident in the U.S. than in Korea when situational cues were incongruent with the personality traits of the brands. Thus, the findings suggest that the psychological mechanisms behind the formation of brand preferences by consumers across social situations are similar across cultures (Aaker 1999).

From a methodological perspective, the brand personality traits inventory (Sung and Tinkham 2005) used in this research was shown to be both a useful and a concise approach to investigating the impact of three interrelated factors - self-concept, brand personality, and situational cues on consumer behavior. One primary reason for the limited work on self and situation congruity effects is lack of a reliable, valid, and generalizable scale that measures these three constructs consistently and parsimoniously in a single framework. Since brand personality and human personality are not completely analogous in several ways, such as the dimensional structure and the way each is created and developed (Sung and Tinkham 2005), these differences

might explain the weak findings regarding self congruity over the past five decades in the consumer psychology literature. Given this theoretical and methodological problem, this research systematically and consistently manipulated and measured brand personality, self-concept, and situational cues by using a brand personality traits scales (Sung and Tinkham 2005) and provided empirical evidence for self and situation congruity effects across cultures. In fact, the brand personality traits scale (Sung and Tinkham 2005) was consistently employed throughout the entire process of the current research (e.g., real brand selection, fictitious brand personality manipulation, social situation development and manipulation, measurement of self-concepts and brand personality, and internal manipulation check). The analyses of reliabilities of this scale for each of the five dimensions suggest that the brand personality traits scale employed is validated as a measurement of brand personality, consumer self concept, and social situation cues across cultures. However, because the brand personality scale used in the current study was based on common dimensions identified from the U.S. and Korea (Sung and Tinkham 2005), a caution needs to be made for researchers who extend such research to other cultures. That is, a more reliable, valid, and generalizable scale that can be employed across other cultures may need to be developed.

The results of this research also have implications for practitioners. The findings of this research that consumers are sensitive to social situations when considering/using self-expressive products are very appealing. As Belk (1974) suggested, it would be of initial importance to find out which product categories and consumers are susceptible to situational effects. As found in the stimuli development stage of the current research, there are a number of products (e.g., apparel, shoes, perfume, jewelry, watches, wine) that consumers are likely to buy or use to express themselves in a variety of social situation types. Self-expressive products with highly

salient personality traits can be efficiently branded by utilizing situational effects through marketing communications.

Further, the results of the current research indicate that both situation congruity (in congruent situations) and the self congruity effects (in incongruent situations) are present across cultures. The findings suggest that advertising and marketing practitioners should utilize both situational and individual (e.g., self-concept) factors when developing and using a brand personality for their marketing strategies. When marketing strategy is developed for a product, it is a typical practice to begin by dividing consumers into groups who share common characteristics such as demographics, lifestyles, socioeconomic status, and personality (Shank and Langmeyer 1994). As Aaker (1999) noted, current thinking in advertising and marketing tends to emphasize and focus on only the personality profiles of the target consumers when developing brand personality traits. Such thinking is appropriate if their marketing communication strategies are focused only on primary consumers of the brand (e.g., Patagonia is for rugged mountain bikers) or the brand is not for a self-expressive product and can be used across situations.

However, if advertisers and marketers employ usage situation strategies in their marketing communications (e.g., wear Swiss Army when you go out fishing), situational factors should be considered to increase brand preferences and persuasion. By doing so, practitioners can effectively persuade not only their target consumers (e.g., consumers with rugged self-concepts) but also other people who do not necessarily have rugged self-concepts but tend to be sensitive to a particular situation (e.g., consumers planning for a weekend fishing trip). In addition, if the product is used and consumed mainly in a particular usage situation (e.g., Nike soccer shoes), the situational congruity effect should be strongly considered and situationally

appropriate advertising and marketing strategies should be developed (e.g., a print ad with both visual and verbal content depicting a particular usage situation). That is, advertising and marketing strategies can be keyed to a particular aspect of purchase and consumption situations by providing visual situational cues using relevant message strategies and appeals. As Moon (2002) noted, when marketers think about the customization of messages, it is typically discussed in terms of what is marketed to whom. The results of the current research offer another way to think about customization. That is, customization of message also can be executed in terms of differentiation in how a brand is used or consumed in a variety of social situations. Thus, as Belk (1974) suggested, advertising might provide usage or consumption suggestions for a particular situation by employing relevant message strategies (both visual and verbal) and even creative product packaging. Integrating other promotional tie-in activities such as sponsorship, public relations campaigns, and sales promotion in a particular situation also might allow practitioners to enhance persuasion and increase the effectiveness of marketing communication for the situation-sensitive market segment.

The Role of Self-Monitoring

According to self-monitoring theory (Snyder 1974, 1979), individuals differ on the extent to which they can and do engage in expressive control. Thus, high self monitors are highly responsive to social and interpersonal cues of situational appropriateness, whereas low self monitors will engage in less expressive control and are not as concerned with what is or is not appropriate. On the basis of this theoretical underpinning, the current research hypothesized that situation congruity should be stronger for high self-monitors and that self concept will play a greater role in determining brand preference for low self-monitors.

The findings of these experiments contradicted the underlying theoretical principles associated with the moderating role of self-monitoring in situation congruity effects. In fact, recent studies (e.g., Aaker 1999; Hogg, Cox, and Keeling 2000) provide empirical evidence for self-monitoring interaction, suggesting that situation congruity was stronger for high versus low self-monitors. However, the current research provides no evidence for the role of self-monitoring in situation congruity effects. Regardless of individuals' levels of self-monitoring, subjects' attitudes toward brands were determined by situational cues. As discussed, one possible reason for this finding may have been the demand effects associated with the experimental designs in this research. While Aaker (1999) manipulated social situational cues via a brief verbal description, the current research manipulated social situational cues through visual illustrations as well as verbal descriptions for each of the five dimensions (see Appendix). In addition, since self-concepts were measured 2-3 weeks prior to the second part of the experiment where situational cues were manipulated, it may have lead to relatively stronger situational cues than self congruity effects for all participants. Further, all participants in each experimental session were asked to imagine or pretend that they were really in a particular social situation. All these experimental manipulations and designs may have weakened the potential impact of self-monitoring on self and situation congruity, thereby leading even low self-monitors to show high situation congruity effects across personality dimensions. If so, the experimental design of the current research certainly diminishes the generalizability of the finding that there is no significant impact of the self-monitoring variable.

Nevertheless, the results of this research provide very important implications for managers to enhance the persuasion process. As found in these experiments, the impact of the situation on consumer attitudes appeared significant not only for high self-monitors but also for

low self-monitors. That is, high situationally oriented TV commercials and print ads, which can be created using both vivid visual images and story-like verbal descriptions, will enhance persuasion and increase brand preference among both low and high self-monitoring consumers

Limitations and Future Research

As with all research, limitations exist and must be considered. At the same time, the limitations and findings of the current research suggest areas for further research. Although hypotheses were tested for several personality dimensions, this study still relied on a limited number of real brands and product categories (i.e., apparel and watches). Further research with a larger set of self-expressive product categories is needed to identify the degree of generalizability of these results across contexts, persons, and brands. Further, as discussed, one possible reason for the insignificant moderating role of self-monitoring in this research is that the social situations presented across the five dimensions were so strong that they may have created demand effects. Thus, further research is needed to explore situations in which moderate situational cues are presented. From another methodological perspective, student subjects participated in the two experiments across cultures. The use of student samples clearly is not representative of the larger population of the two cultures in this study. Thus, the results may not be applicable to the general population in both cultures. As discussed earlier, however, this study consistently used student subjects from the beginning stage of the research to the main experiments. That is, product categories, real brands, fictitious brands, and even social situational cues were developed and manipulated in a series of pilot studies using student subjects, which are the target subjects of this research: young adult groups. Thus, though student samples were used, this methodological consistency throughout the entire research process can actually be

viewed as a strength. Certainly, more work to examine whether the results of this research translate to non-student samples is needed before any definitive conclusions are drawn.

This research suggests a number of directions for future investigations. One of the obvious directions is identifying other variables that might be associated with persuasion and might explain and change the results found in the two experiments presented herein. Some of the variables might reflect individual differences (e.g., self-esteem) other than the self-concept and self-monitoring variables examined in the current research. Also, such variables as product involvement, brand loyalty and commitment, and level of past experience with situations and brands have been associated with persuasion in previous research. Thus, more research is needed to further investigate any possible direct or interactive effect of these variables on self and situation congruity.

In the past five decades, self and situation congruity effects have been tested at the level of the consumer and brand. Thus, several productive areas of future research might examine the impact of presentation style (e.g., self-concept oriented vs. social situation oriented). In fact, the current research examines the impact of message content itself (e.g., print ads with both visual images and verbal attributes that express a rugged situation) on how consumers evaluate brands. Although the experimental stimulus used in this research can be viewed as a type of message style, more direct investigation of the extent to which message styles impact brand and advertising preferences is called for. Thus, more research is needed to further investigate the possibility of direct and interaction effects among the message content, the message styles, and the individual recipients' self concepts in persuasion. For example, personality researchers have found that individuals tend to react differently to messages and

other persuasive stimuli depending upon their personalities (e.g., Hazelton, Cupach, and Canary 1987; Lorr 1991), suggesting that the same message can have differential effects (Moon 2002). Further, Moon (2002) found that the matching of message style to an individual's personality style increases the effectiveness of messages. That is, the results of her study demonstrated that dominant individuals were more likely to be influenced by dominant (e.g., expressions with greater confidence in claims and are more commanding of others) versus submissive messages, whereas submissive individuals were more likely to be influenced by submissive versus dominant message styles (Moon 2002). Consistent with findings of interpersonal researchers (e.g., Byrne 1971), the results of her study provide empirical evidence that individuals tend to be more responsive to others who share their personality characteristics.

Thus, an interesting set of questions arises: Will individuals with high rugged self-concepts be more heavily influenced by a rugged message style? Will sophisticated people be more influenced by advertising with a sophisticated message style? Would the same pattern of results occur across personality dimensions? Will high self monitoring individuals be more influenced by a situation oriented message style? Will low self monitors be more influenced by a self oriented message style? Would the same pattern of findings be observed across cultures? As prior literature suggests, individuals with different self-concepts tend to respond differently to messages (e.g., Hazelton, Cupach, and Canary 1987; Lorr 1991; Moon 2002). Further research exploring these questions might provide insight into the effectiveness of marketing communication campaigns and into possible message customization criteria. Given the increased focus on relational phenomena among both marketing scholars and practitioners, these additional issues need addressing. More importantly, such future research might provide additional

theoretical support for self and situation congruity effects and might contribute to the body of consumer psychology literature.

Conclusion

Taken together, the two experiments presented here provide support for the premise that the self-expressive use of brands is driven by both a stable self-concept as well as a dynamic self-concept. The results suggest that consumers show more favorable attitudes toward brands highly descriptive on particular personality dimensions when their self-concepts are congruent versus incongruent with those of the brands and when social situational cues are congruent versus incongruent with those of the brands. More important, the results suggest that situational cues play an important role in how consumers evaluate self-expressive products in a variety of social situations, thereby strongly supporting a dynamic self-concept. Bertrand, Mullainathan, and Shafir 2006, p. 9) point out that “one of the major lessons of psychological research over the past half century is the great power that the situation exerts, along with a persistent tendency to underestimate that power relative to the presumed influence of personality traits.” Despite calls for research to investigate situation effects in consumer behavior (Aaker 1999; Belk 1974, Shavitt 1990), a limited amount of research has made such progress. To more fully understand consumer behavior and improve persuasion processes, the current research strongly suggests more explicit consideration of the social situations in which consumers’ decisions, consumption, and behaviors take place.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SOPHISTICATED SITUATION

Kelly and John enjoyed attending the ritzy New Year's Eve ball their friends hosted each year. They drove with confidence to the glamorous ballroom where a valet would park their car for them. They walked arm-in-arm up the stairs, taking in their lovely surroundings. They were shown to their seats and introduced to their dinner companions for the night. Then the waiters and waitresses brought out course after course until everyone was all but overwhelmed by the sophisticated dishes. A small jazz band played throughout the dinner and couples slowly made their way to the dance floor.

APPENDIX B

RUGGED SITUATION

Jennifer and Mike arrived at the campground, set up their campsite and then went for a nice long mountain bike with a group of friends. They chose a likely looking trail and hiked for a couple of hours before deciding to take a break and get a bite to eat. They chose a spot slightly off to one side of the trail and rested their backpacks on the ground. They pulled out bottles of juice and water while Mary dug out energy bars and some granola. They made sure to put their wrappers back in their backpacks before getting back on the trail.

APPENDIX C

TRENDY SITUATION

Elizabeth and Matt decided to have a night out and try a new dinner and dance club their friends had told them about. They were excited about it because they were told that the new club is the place for young, trendy, and cool people. Elizabeth took extra care getting ready and Matt stopped by the bank to make sure he'd have enough cash on hand for their dinner and drinks. The music from the club could be heard from the parking lot and the smells from the kitchen tempted their tastebuds. After being shown to their table, Elizabeth and Matt read over the menu and made their selections. It was difficult for them to sit still as the band began to play. They were able to dance to a couple of songs before their food arrived.

APPENDIX D

COMPETENT SITUATION

Lisa and Jeff had been considering expanding their business and had invited Brian, a potential business partner, to a popular steakhouse in downtown Atlanta. Before Brian arrived they made sure every detail was in order, so as to make a good impression. Lisa and Jeff greeted Brian at the door and welcomed him into the steakhouse. As they took their seats, Brian orders a drink, but Lisa and Jeff drink coffee. They try to place Brian in a relaxed mood and talk about politics, the economy, and sports. As they arranged earlier, the waiter offered them a small sampling of deserts before they ordered main dishes. Jeff tries to make Brian feel as comfortable as possible, and then gradually introduces their new marketing plan for Brian's company.

APPENDIX E

LIKEABLE SITUATION

Mary and Bob were glad to be hosting their family and friends' annual holiday dinner. Several days before the dinner they went grocery shopping for fresh produce and wholesome ingredients. They made a few of the dishes ahead of time and stored them in the refrigerator to be heated up in the microwave oven the day of their get-together. As their family members and friends arrived for the festivities they were greeted with delicious smells that made their mouths water. Mary and Bob had brought in an extra table and chairs so they could accommodate everyone in their dining room and make them feel part of the family. Their guests munched on finger-foods while Mary and Bob finished preparing the meal. Finally, all the guests took their seats and filled their plates.

APPENDIX F

EXPERIMENT 1 (REAL BRANDS) - Part I

Thank you for participating in this study of your attitudes/preferences toward consumer brands. The primary purpose of this study is to get your reactions to a set of brands currently on the market as well as some evaluations of yourself. Thus, the following questions are designed to measure yourself and your brand evaluations. All of your responses throughout the study will be completely confidential. This survey will take approximately 45 minutes.

In return for your participation, some extra credit will be provided as described by your instructor. Remember, in order to receive class credit for this study, you must participate in two different parts of the study. After completing the survey today (Part I), you will be given a separate sign-up sheet for the second part (Part II) of the study. The second part will take approximately 30 minutes. The key to the success of this research depends on your completing both parts of the study.

Thank you for your cooperation. We hope you will enjoy participating!

First, we would now like to ask you a few basic demographic questions.

ID Number (your birthday + your mother's birthday). This information alone will be used to match this questionnaire to the follow-up questionnaire. No information identifying you personally will be used.

**(Example) If your birthday is December 21 and your mother's birthday is March 21,
→ your identification number should be "12210321"**

ID number: _____

Male _____ Female _____

Age _____

_____ Black or African American

_____ Asian

_____ White

_____ Hispanic or Latino

_____ Other (_____)

Section I. Below is a list of words that can be used to describe a person such as you. On the following list of personality characteristics, **please rate how important you believe each of the personality traits is to you as a characteristic that may or may not describe yourself**. For each trait, please choose a number from the scale at the top of the page. The number you pick can range from (1) “Not at all important” to (7) “Very important.” Be sure to place a number in each space provided.

Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very important
___ Reliable		___ Upper class		___ Leading		___ Comfortable		
___ Different		___ Popular		___ Contemporary		___ Informative		
___ Funny		___ Trendy		___ Sentimental		___ Simple		
___ Western		___ Bubbly		___ Down-to-earth		___ Honest		
___ Elegant		___ Outdoorsy		___ Efficient		___ Cool		
___ Tough		___ Charming		___ Satisfying		___ Wholesome		
___ Old		___ Well-made		___ Secure		___ Fun		
___ Strict		___ Up-to-date		___ Playful		___ Handy		
___ Successful		___ Smooth		___ Healthy		___ Versatile		
___ New		___ Delicate		___ Real		___ Fast		
___ Warm		___ Feminine		___ Clean		___ Sincere		
___ Free		___ Stable		___ Unique		___ Spirited		
___ Glamorous		___ Imaginative		___ Cheerful		___ Original		
___ Rugged		___ Family-oriented		___ Active		___ Young		
___ Traditional		___ Professional		___ Neat		___ Exciting		
___ Intelligent		___ Formal		___ Hard-working		___ Big		
___ Confident		___ Masculine		___ Small-town		___ Independent		
___ Innovative		___ Typical		___ Daring		___ Corporate		
___ Easy		___ Busy		___ Expensive		___ Friendly		
___ Technical		___ Good-looking		___ Stylish		___ Heavy		

Section II. Now, we would like to ask you questions about yourself. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by placing a check mark (✓) in the appropriate space. The number you pick can range from (1) “Strongly disagree” to (7) “Strongly agree.”

I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I act the same way no matter who I am with.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I'd rather say “No” directly, than risk being misunderstood.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I respect people who are modest about themselves.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Speaking up during a class is not a problem for me.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I value being in good health above everything.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I'm not happy with the group.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making education/career plans.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I feel comfortable using someone's first name soon after I meet them, even when they are much older than I am.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Having a lively imagination is important to me.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I would offer my seat in a bus to my professor.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I am the same person at home that I am at school.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

At times I think I am no good at all.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I am able to do things as well as most other people.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I certainly feel useless at times.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I wish I could have more respect for myself.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I take a positive attitude toward myself.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section III. The following questions are about your general brand consumption behavior. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

I will buy another brand if the brands I prefer are not available at the store.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I consider myself to be loyal to particular brands.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If a brand is on sale, I will buy it instead of the one I like best or regularly buy.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section IV. On the following items, please provide your answer with either YES or NO. Please place a check mark (✓) in the appropriate space.

	YES	NO
I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.		
At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.		
I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.		
I would probably make a good actor.		
I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.		
I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.		
In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.		
In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.		
I am not particularly good at making other people like me.		
I am not always the person I appear to be.		
I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.		
I have considered being an entertainer.		
I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.		
I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.		
At parties I let others keep the jokes and stories going.		
I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.		
I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).		
I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.		

Section V. Now, we would like you to describe **your actual self** with the following personality characteristics. Below is a list of words that may or may not describe yourself. Please choose a number from the scale at the top of the page that best describes **your actual self**. The number you pick can range from (1) “Not at all describes” to (7) “Perfectly describes.” Be sure to place a number in each space provided.

Not at all describes **1** **2** **3** **4** **5** **6** **7** **Perfectly describes**

My Actual Self:

_____ Comfortable	_____ Reliable	_____ Upper class	_____ Leading
_____ Informative	_____ Different	_____ Popular	_____ Contemporary
_____ Simple	_____ Funny	_____ Trendy	_____ Sentimental
_____ Honest	_____ Western	_____ Bubbly	_____ Down-to-earth
_____ Cool	_____ Elegant	_____ Outdoorsy	_____ Efficient
_____ Wholesome	_____ Tough	_____ Charming	_____ Satisfying
_____ Fun	_____ Old	_____ Well-made	_____ Secure
_____ Handy	_____ Strict	_____ Up-to-date	_____ Playful
_____ Versatile	_____ Successful	_____ Smooth	_____ Healthy
_____ Fast	_____ New	_____ Delicate	_____ Real
_____ Sincere	_____ Warm	_____ Feminine	_____ Clean
_____ Spirited	_____ Free	_____ Stable	_____ Unique
_____ Original	_____ Glamorous	_____ Imaginative	_____ Cheerful
_____ Young	_____ Rugged	_____ Family-oriented	_____ Active
_____ Exciting	_____ Traditional	_____ Professional	_____ Neat
_____ Big	_____ Intelligent	_____ Formal	_____ Hard-working
_____ Independent	_____ Confident	_____ Masculine	_____ Small-town
_____ Corporate	_____ Innovative	_____ Typical	_____ Daring
_____ Friendly	_____ Easy	_____ Busy	_____ Expensive
_____ Heavy	_____ Technical	_____ Good-looking	_____ Stylish

Section VI. In the previous section, you described your actual self with different personality traits. Now, we would like you to describe **your ideal self** (the kind of person you would ideally like to be) with the following personality characteristics. Below is a list of words that may or may not describe **your ideal self**. Please choose a number from the scale at the top of the page that best describes **your ideal self**. The number you pick can range from (1) “Not at all describes” to (7) “Perfectly describes.” Be sure to place a number in each space provided.

Not at all describes **1** **2** **3** **4** **5** **6** **7** **Perfectly describes**

My Ideal Self:

_____ Leading	_____ Comfortable	_____ Reliable	_____ Upper class
_____ Contemporary	_____ Informative	_____ Different	_____ Popular
_____ Sentimental	_____ Simple	_____ Funny	_____ Trendy
_____ Down-to-earth	_____ Honest	_____ Western	_____ Bubbly
_____ Efficient	_____ Cool	_____ Elegant	_____ Outdoorsy
_____ Satisfying	_____ Wholesome	_____ Tough	_____ Charming
_____ Secure	_____ Fun	_____ Old	_____ Well-made
_____ Playful	_____ Handy	_____ Strict	_____ Up-to-date
_____ Healthy	_____ Versatile	_____ Successful	_____ Smooth
_____ Real	_____ Fast	_____ New	_____ Delicate
_____ Clean	_____ Sincere	_____ Warm	_____ Feminine
_____ Unique	_____ Spirited	_____ Free	_____ Stable
_____ Cheerful	_____ Original	_____ Glamorous	_____ Imaginative
_____ Active	_____ Young	_____ Rugged	_____ Family-oriented
_____ Neat	_____ Exciting	_____ Traditional	_____ Professional
_____ Hard-working	_____ Big	_____ Intelligent	_____ Formal
_____ Small-town	_____ Independent	_____ Confident	_____ Masculine
_____ Daring	_____ Corporate	_____ Innovative	_____ Typical
_____ Expensive	_____ Friendly	_____ Easy	_____ Busy
_____ Stylish	_____ Heavy	_____ Technical	_____ Good-looking

Section VII. The main objective of this section is to get your reactions to a set of brands currently on the market. You will be asked to evaluate a set of brands in terms of 1) your personal preference and 2) the likelihood of your usage. We would like to know what you think of each of the brands.

Please turn to the next page

Timberland (apparel product)

Not familiar with this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Very familiar with this brand

Personally, I dislike this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Personally, I like this brand

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years)

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to try this brand in the store

Can imagine buying this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Can't imagine buying this brand

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ I like the advertising of this brand

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics

Swatch (watch product)

Not familiar with this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Very familiar with this brand

Personally, I dislike this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Personally, I like this brand

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years)

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to try this brand in the store

Can imagine buying this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Can't imagine buying this brand

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ I like the advertising of this brand

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics

Ralph Lauren (apparel product)

Not familiar with this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Very familiar with this brand

Personally, I dislike this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Personally, I like this brand

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years)

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to try this brand in the store

Can imagine buying this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Can't imagine buying this brand

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ I like the advertising of this brand

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics

Rolex (watch product)

Not familiar with this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Very familiar with this brand

Personally, I dislike this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Personally, I like this brand

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years)

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to try this brand in the store

Can imagine buying this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Can't imagine buying this brand

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ I like the advertising of this brand

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics

Diesel (apparel product)

Not familiar with this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Very familiar with this brand

Personally, I dislike this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Personally, I like this brand

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years)

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to try this brand in the store

Can imagine buying this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Can't imagine buying this brand

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ I like the advertising of this brand

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics

Swiss Army (watch product)

Not familiar with this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Very familiar with this brand

Personally, I dislike this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Personally, I like this brand

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years)

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to try this brand in the store

Can imagine buying this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Can't imagine buying this brand

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ I like the advertising of this brand

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics

APPENDIX G

EXPERIMENT 1 (REAL BRANDS) - Part II

Thank you for participating in the second part of the brand study. The primary purpose of this part is to re-evaluate a set of brands you evaluated a couple weeks ago. Therefore, you will be given the same set of brands that you rated before. However, unlike before, you will be asked to evaluate these brands in certain situations. By re-evaluating the brands in these situations, we can better predict how the brands are actually used in real life.

The key to the success of this research depends on your trying to really imagine yourself in these situations. Based on previous research, we have identified many types of situations in which products are often used – all involve dinner situations.

Please evaluate the set of brands if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner situations. To give you an overall feel of what these dinner situations are like, each dinner will be visualized by illustration and will be briefly described. Then, you will be asked to really imagine yourself going to the dinner. What does it feel like for you? What are you thinking about? Next, you will consider a set of brands. Of that set of six brands, we would like to know what you think of each of the brands.

Thank you for your cooperation. We hope you will enjoy participating!

ID Number (your birthday + your mother's birthday). This information alone will be used to match this questionnaire to the previous questionnaire. No information identifying you personally will be used.

**(Example) If your birthday is December 21 and your mother's birthday is March 21,
→ your identification number should be "12210321"**

ID number:
(month) (day) (month) (day)

You will be given three different dinner situations.
For each situation, you will be asked to rate six brands in terms of:

- 1) your personal preference
- 2) the likelihood of your usage (or purchase)

Now, we will start with “Dinner Situation 1”

Please take a moment and **really imagine yourself going to this dinner**

Please read the **verbal description**
very carefully

Turn to the next page



Kelly and John enjoyed attending the ritzy New Year's Eve ball their friends hosted each year. They drove with confidence to the glamorous ballroom where a valet would park their car for them. They walked arm-in-arm up the stairs, taking in their lovely surroundings. They were shown to their seats and introduced to their dinner companions for the night. Then the waiters and waitresses brought out course after course until everyone was all but overwhelmed by the sophisticated dishes. A small jazz band played throughout the dinner and couples slowly made their way to the dance floor.

Please rate the following questions about “Timberland” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., the ritzy New Year’s Eve ball).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Timberland” brand?

Timberland (apparel product)

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can’t imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____ I like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

Please rate the following questions about “Swatch” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., the ritzy New Year’s Eve ball).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Swatch” brand?

Swatch (watch product)

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can’t imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____ I like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

Please rate the following questions about “Ralph Lauren” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., the ritzy New Year’s Eve ball).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Ralph Lauren” brand?

Ralph Lauren (apparel product)

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can’t imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____ I like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

Please rate the following questions about “Rolex” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., the ritzy New Year’s Eve ball).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Rolex” brand?

Rolex (watch product)

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can’t imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____ I like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

Please rate the following questions about “Diesel” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., the ritzy New Year’s Eve ball).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Diesel” brand?

Diesel (apparel product)

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can’t imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____ I like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

Please rate the following questions about “Swiss Army” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., the ritzy New Year’s Eve ball).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Swiss Army” brand?

Swiss Army (watch product)

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can’t imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I dislike the advertising of this brand _____ I like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

You have finished the first dinner situation.

Now, you will go to “Dinner Situation 2”

Please take a moment and **really imagine yourself going to this dinner**

Please read the **verbal description**
very carefully

Turn to the next page

APPENDIX H

Experiment 2 (Fictitious Apparel Brands) - Part I

Thank you for participating in this study of your attitudes/preferences toward consumer brands. The primary purpose of this study is to get your reactions to a set of new brands being considered for introduction as well as some evaluations of yourself. Thus, the following questions are designed to measure yourself and your brand evaluations. All of your responses throughout the study will be completely confidential. This survey will take approximately 45 minutes.

In return for your participation, some extra credit will be provided as described by your instructor. Remember, in order to receive class credit for this study, you must participate in two different parts of the study. After completing the survey today (Part I), you will be given a separate sign-up sheet for the second part (Part II) of the study. The second part will take approximately 45 minutes as well. The key to the success of this research depends on your completing both parts of the study.

Thank you for your cooperation. We hope you will enjoy participating!

First, we would now like to ask you a few basic demographic questions.

ID Number (your birthday + your mother's birthday). This information alone will be used to match this questionnaire to the follow-up questionnaire. No information identifying you personally will be used.

**(Example) If your birthday is December 21 and your mother's birthday is March 21,
→ your identification number should be "12210321"**

ID number: _____

Male _____ Female _____

Age _____

_____ Black or African American

_____ Asian

_____ White

_____ Hispanic or Latino

_____ Other (_____)

Section I. Below is a list of words that can be used to describe a person such as you. On the following list of personality characteristics, **please rate how important you believe each of the personality traits is to you as a characteristic that may or may not describe yourself**. For each trait, please choose a number from the scale at the top of the page. The number you pick can range from (1) “Not at all important” to (7) “Very important.” Be sure to place a number in each space provided.

Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very important
_____ Reliable		_____ Upper class		_____ Leading		_____ Comfortable		
_____ Different		_____ Popular		_____ Contemporary		_____ Informative		
_____ Funny		_____ Trendy		_____ Sentimental		_____ Simple		
_____ Western		_____ Bubbly		_____ Down-to-earth		_____ Honest		
_____ Elegant		_____ Outdoorsy		_____ Efficient		_____ Cool		
_____ Tough		_____ Charming		_____ Satisfying		_____ Wholesome		
_____ Old		_____ Well-made		_____ Secure		_____ Fun		
_____ Strict		_____ Up-to-date		_____ Playful		_____ Handy		
_____ Successful		_____ Smooth		_____ Healthy		_____ Versatile		
_____ New		_____ Delicate		_____ Real		_____ Fast		
_____ Warm		_____ Feminine		_____ Clean		_____ Sincere		
_____ Free		_____ Stable		_____ Unique		_____ Spirited		
_____ Glamorous		_____ Imaginative		_____ Cheerful		_____ Original		
_____ Rugged		_____ Family-oriented		_____ Active		_____ Young		
_____ Traditional		_____ Professional		_____ Neat		_____ Exciting		
_____ Intelligent		_____ Formal		_____ Hard-working		_____ Big		
_____ Confident		_____ Masculine		_____ Small-town		_____ Independent		
_____ Innovative		_____ Typical		_____ Daring		_____ Corporate		
_____ Easy		_____ Busy		_____ Expensive		_____ Friendly		
_____ Technical		_____ Good-looking		_____ Stylish		_____ Heavy		

Section II. Now, we would like to ask you questions about yourself. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by placing a check mark (✓) in the appropriate space. The number you pick can range from (1) “Strongly disagree” to (7) “Strongly agree.”

I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

I act the same way no matter who I am with.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

I'd rather say “No” directly, than risk being misunderstood.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

I respect people who are modest about themselves.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

Speaking up during a class is not a problem for me.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

I value being in good health above everything.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I'm not happy with the group.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making education/career plans.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

I feel comfortable using someone's first name soon after I meet them, even when they are much older than I am.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

Having a lively imagination is important to me.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I would offer my seat in a bus to my professor.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I am the same person at home that I am at school.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

At times I think I am no good at all.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I am able to do things as well as most other people.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I certainly feel useless at times.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I wish I could have more respect for myself.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I take a positive attitude toward myself.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section III. The following questions are about your general brand consumption behavior. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

I will buy another brand if the brands I prefer are not available at the store.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I consider myself to be loyal to particular brands.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If a brand is on sale, I will buy it instead of the one I like best or regularly buy.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section IV. On the following items, please provide your answer with either YES or NO. Please place a check mark (✓) in the appropriate space.

	YES	NO
I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.		
At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.		
I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.		
I would probably make a good actor.		
I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.		
I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.		
In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.		
In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.		
I am not particularly good at making other people like me.		
I am not always the person I appear to be.		
I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.		
I have considered being an entertainer.		
I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.		
I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.		
At parties I let others keep the jokes and stories going.		
I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.		
I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).		
I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.		

Section V. Now, we would like you to describe **your actual self** with the following personality characteristics. Below is a list of words that may or may not describe yourself. Please choose a number from the scale at the top of the page that best describes **your actual self**. The number you pick can range from (1) “Not at all describes” to (7) “Perfectly describes.” Be sure to place a number in each space provided.

Not at all describes **1** **2** **3** **4** **5** **6** **7** **Perfectly describes**

My Actual Self:

_____ Comfortable	_____ Reliable	_____ Upper class	_____ Leading
_____ Informative	_____ Different	_____ Popular	_____ Contemporary
_____ Simple	_____ Funny	_____ Trendy	_____ Sentimental
_____ Honest	_____ Western	_____ Bubbly	_____ Down-to-earth
_____ Cool	_____ Elegant	_____ Outdoorsy	_____ Efficient
_____ Wholesome	_____ Tough	_____ Charming	_____ Satisfying
_____ Fun	_____ Old	_____ Well-made	_____ Secure
_____ Handy	_____ Strict	_____ Up-to-date	_____ Playful
_____ Versatile	_____ Successful	_____ Smooth	_____ Healthy
_____ Fast	_____ New	_____ Delicate	_____ Real
_____ Sincere	_____ Warm	_____ Feminine	_____ Clean
_____ Spirited	_____ Free	_____ Stable	_____ Unique
_____ Original	_____ Glamorous	_____ Imaginative	_____ Cheerful
_____ Young	_____ Rugged	_____ Family-oriented	_____ Active
_____ Exciting	_____ Traditional	_____ Professional	_____ Neat
_____ Big	_____ Intelligent	_____ Formal	_____ Hard-working
_____ Independent	_____ Confident	_____ Masculine	_____ Small-town
_____ Corporate	_____ Innovative	_____ Typical	_____ Daring
_____ Friendly	_____ Easy	_____ Busy	_____ Expensive
_____ Heavy	_____ Technical	_____ Good-looking	_____ Stylish

Section VI. In the previous section, you described your actual self with different personality traits. Now, we would like you to describe **your ideal self** (the kind of person you would ideally like to be) with the following personality characteristics. Below is a list of words that may or may not describe **your ideal self**. Please choose a number from the scale at the top of the page that best describes **your ideal self**. The number you pick can range from (1) “Not at all describes” to (7) “Perfectly describes.” Be sure to place a number in each space provided.

Not at all describes **1** **2** **3** **4** **5** **6** **7** **Perfectly describes**

My Ideal Self:

_____ Leading	_____ Comfortable	_____ Reliable	_____ Upper class
_____ Contemporary	_____ Informative	_____ Different	_____ Popular
_____ Sentimental	_____ Simple	_____ Funny	_____ Trendy
_____ Down-to-earth	_____ Honest	_____ Western	_____ Bubbly
_____ Efficient	_____ Cool	_____ Elegant	_____ Outdoorsy
_____ Satisfying	_____ Wholesome	_____ Tough	_____ Charming
_____ Secure	_____ Fun	_____ Old	_____ Well-made
_____ Playful	_____ Handy	_____ Strict	_____ Up-to-date
_____ Healthy	_____ Versatile	_____ Successful	_____ Smooth
_____ Real	_____ Fast	_____ New	_____ Delicate
_____ Clean	_____ Sincere	_____ Warm	_____ Feminine
_____ Unique	_____ Spirited	_____ Free	_____ Stable
_____ Cheerful	_____ Original	_____ Glamorous	_____ Imaginative
_____ Active	_____ Young	_____ Rugged	_____ Family-oriented
_____ Neat	_____ Exciting	_____ Traditional	_____ Professional
_____ Hard-working	_____ Big	_____ Intelligent	_____ Formal
_____ Small-town	_____ Independent	_____ Confident	_____ Masculine
_____ Daring	_____ Corporate	_____ Innovative	_____ Typical
_____ Expensive	_____ Friendly	_____ Easy	_____ Busy
_____ Stylish	_____ Heavy	_____ Technical	_____ Good-looking

Section VII. The main objective of this section is to get your reactions to a set of apparel brands being considered for introduction. You will be given some information about these new brands. Based on the information (the brand name and a short description of each brand), please answer the following questions. You will be asked to evaluate a set of new brands in terms of 1) your personal preference and 2) the likelihood of your usage.

We would like to know what you think of each of the brands, based on how they are described.

Please turn to the next page

Miner (Apparel brand)

The brand image and personality of the new Miner apparel can be described by such terms as “rugged” “outdoorsy” and “tough.”

We would like to know and get your reactions to the new Miner apparel based only on the information you are given above.

Personally, I dislike this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Personally, I like this brand

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years)

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to try this brand in the store

Can imagine buying this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Can't imagine buying this brand

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand

I think I would dislike the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ I think I would like the advertising of this brand

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics

Chaos (Apparel brand)

The brand image and personality of the new Chaos apparel can be described by such terms as “trendy” “up-to-date” “unique” “new” and “imaginative”

We would like to know and get your reactions to the new Chaos apparel based only on the information you are given above.

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can't imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I think I would dislike the advertising of this brand _____ I think I would like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

Kicks (Apparel brand)

The brand image and personality of the new Kicks apparel watch can be described by such terms as “cheerful” “honest” “warm” and “sentimental”

We would like to know and get your reactions to the new Kicks apparel based only on the information you are given above.

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can't imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I think I would dislike the advertising of this brand _____ I think I would like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

Venice (Apparel brand)

The brand image and personality of the new Venice apparel can be described by such terms as “upper class” “elegant” “glamorous” and “charming”

We would like to know and get your reactions to the new Venice apparel based only on the information you are given above.

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can't imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I think I would dislike the advertising of this brand _____ I think I would like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

Colors International (Apparel brand)

The brand image and personality of the new Colors International apparel can be described by such terms as “reliable” “popular” “leading” “efficient” and “satisfying”

We would like to know and get your reactions to the new Colors International apparel based only on the information you are given above.

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don't prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can't imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I think I would dislike the advertising of this brand _____ I think I would like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don't believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

APPENDIX I

Experiment 2 (Fictitious Apparel Brands) - Part II

Thank you for participating in the second part of the brand study. The primary purpose of this part is to re-evaluate a set of brands you evaluated a couple weeks ago. Therefore, you will be given the same set of brands being considered for introduction. However, unlike before, you will be asked to evaluate these brands in certain situations. By re-evaluating the brands in these situations, we can better predict how the brands are actually used in real life.

The key to the success of this research depends on your trying to really imagine yourself in these situations. Based on previous research, we have identified many types of situations in which products are often used – all involve dinner situations.

Please evaluate the set of brands if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner situations. To give you an overall feel of what these dinner situations are like, each dinner will be visualized by illustration and will be briefly described. Then, you will be asked to really imagine yourself going to the dinner. What does it feel like for you? What are you thinking about? Next, you will consider a set of brands being considered for introduction. Of that set of brands, we would like to know what you think of each of the brands. Thank you for your cooperation. We hope you will enjoy participating!

First, we would now like to ask you a few basic demographic questions.

ID Number (your birthday + your mother's birthday). This information alone will be used to match this questionnaire to the follow-up questionnaire. No information identifying you personally will be used.

**(Example) If your birthday is December 21 and your mother's birthday is March 21,
→ your identification number should be "12210321"**

ID number: _____

You will be given five different dinner situations.
For each situation, you will be asked to rate five apparel brands in terms
of:

- 1) your personal preference
- 2) the likelihood of your usage (or purchase)

Now, we will start with “Dinner Situation 1”

Please take a moment and **really imagine yourself going to this dinner**

Please read the **verbal description**
very carefully

Turn to the next page



Jennifer and Mike arrived at the campground, set up their campsite and then went for a nice long mountain bike with a group of friends. They chose a likely looking trail and hiked for a couple of hours before deciding to take a break and get a bite to eat. They chose a spot slightly off to one side of the trail and rested their backpacks on the ground. They pulled out bottles of juice and water while Mary dug out energy bars and some granola. They made sure to put their wrappers back in their backpacks before getting back on the trail.

Miner (Apparel brand)

The brand image and personality of the new Miner apparel can be described by such terms as “rugged” “outdoorsy” and “tough”.

Please rate the following questions about “Miner” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., Mountain bike).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Miner” brand?

Personally, I dislike this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Personally, I like this brand

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years)

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to try this brand in the store

Can imagine buying this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Can’t imagine buying this brand

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand

I think I would dislike the this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ I like the advertising of this brand

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics

Chaos (Apparel brand)

The brand image and personality of the new Chaos apparel can be described by such terms as “trendy” “up-to-date” “unique” “new” and “imaginative”

Please rate the following questions about “Chaos” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., Mountain bike).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Chaos” brand?

Personally, I dislike this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Personally, I like this brand

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years)

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to try this brand in the store

Can imagine buying this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Can’t imagine buying this brand

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand

I think I would dislike the this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ I like the advertising of this brand

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics

Kicks (Apparel brand)

The brand image and personality of the new Kicks apparel can be described by such terms as “cheerful” “honest” “warm” and “sentimental”

Please rate the following questions about “Kicks” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., Mountain bike).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Kicks” brand?

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can’t imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I think I would dislike the this brand _____ I like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

Venice (Apparel brand)

The brand image and personality of the new Venice apparel can be described by such terms as “upper class” “elegant” “sophisticated” and “charming”

Please rate the following questions about “Venice” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., Mountain bike).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Venice” brand?

Personally, I dislike this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Personally, I like this brand

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years)

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to try this brand in the store

Can imagine buying this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Can’t imagine buying this brand

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand

I think I would dislike the this brand _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ I like the advertising of this brand

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics

Colors International (Apparel brand)

The brand image and personality of the new Colors International apparel can be described by such terms as “reliable” “popular” “leading” “efficient” and “satisfying”

Please rate the following questions about “Colors International” brand if you were at the dinner or were planning to go to the dinner you’ve seen (i.e., Mountain bike).

Considering this dinner situation, what do you think of the “Colors International” brand?

Personally, I dislike this brand _____ Personally, I like this brand _____

Unlikely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____ Likely to buy this brand in the future (next ten years) _____

Prefer this brand over alternative brands _____ Don’t prefer this brand over alternative brands _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for myself _____ Would definitely consider buying it for myself _____

Unlikely to try this brand in the store _____ Likely to try this brand in the store _____

Can imagine buying this brand _____ Can’t imagine buying this brand _____

Would definitely not consider buying it for a gift _____ Would definitely consider buying it for a gift _____

Unlikely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____ Likely to be interested in the advertising of this brand _____

I think I would dislike the this brand _____ I like the advertising of this brand _____

Believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____ Don’t believe the image of this brand is similar to my own characteristics _____

You have finished the first dinner situation.

Now, you will go to “Dinner Situation 2”

Please take a moment and **really imagine yourself going to this dinner**

Please read the **verbal description**
very carefully

Turn to the next page

APPENDIX J

EXPERIMENT 1 (REAL BRANDS) - Part I (Korean Version)**브랜드 연구 - Part 1 (A)**

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성별: 남 _____ 여 _____

전공: _____

본 연구는 두가지 설문조사로 이루어져 있습니다. 먼저 여러분들이 지금 하고 계신 설문지가 첫번째 파트이고, 일주일이나 이주일 후에 다시 한번 두번째 설문지를 완성해 주셔야 합니다. 본연구는 여러분들이 두개의 설문에 모두 응해주셔야 완성될 수 있습니다. 추후에 연구자가 두가지 설문을 비교/분석하기 위해서는 여러분의 아이디가 필요합니다. 따라서, 아래 8 개의 빈칸에 여러분의 생년월일을 적어주십시오.

예를 들어, 여러분의 생일이 1983년 12월 12일이면, “19831212”이라고 적어주십시오. 아래와 같이 8 개의 빈칸에 순서대로 적어주시면 됩니다.

예) ID number: 1 9 8 3 1 2 1 2

ID number: _____

그럼 다음 페이지로 넘어가셔서 설문을 시작해 주십시오.

감사합니다!

만약 사람들이 여러분에게 자신에 대하여 말해보라고 물어본다면, 여러분들은 아마 여러가지 단어들로 여러분들을 표현할 것 입니다. 예를 들어 나는 “진실하다”, “젊다”, “세련되었다” 등등으로 여러분의 성격이나 가치를 나타내실 수 있습니다. 다음의 여러가지의 단어들을 보시고 각각의 단어가 여러분의 개인적인 가치에 얼마나 중요한 요소인지를 말해주십시오. 각각의 단어를 보시고, **(1) “전혀 중요하지 않다”** 부터 **(7) “매우 중요하다”** 까지의 7개의 번호중에 한개를 선택한 후 각각의 단어 옆의 빈칸에 적어주십시오. 꼭 모든 단어에 번호를 적어주셔야 됩니다.

전혀 중요하지 않음	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 중요함
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_____ 믿을 수 있는	_____ 상류층의	_____ 이끄는, 지도하는	_____ 편안한
_____ 색다른, 같지않은	_____ 유명한, 인기있는	_____ 현대적인	_____ 정보를 주는
_____ 우스운, 웃기는	_____ 트렌디한, 유행의	_____ 감상(감정)적인	_____ 간단한, 단순한
_____ 서양의, 서구의	_____ 명량한, 말이 많은	_____ 현실적인	_____ 정직한, 진실한
_____ 우아한, 품위있는	_____ 야외의, 아웃도어의	_____ 능률적인	_____ 아주 좋은, 멋진
_____ 터프한, 강인한	_____ 매력있는	_____ 만족을 주는	_____ 건전한, 유익한
_____ 나이먹은, 오래된	_____ 잘 만들어진	_____ 안전한, 안정된	_____ 즐거운
_____ 엄격한, 꼼꼼한	_____ 최신의	_____ 쾌활한, 잘노는	_____ 편리한
_____ 성공한, 잘된	_____ 조용한, 침착한	_____ 건강한	_____ 다방문의
_____ 새로운, 최신의	_____ 섬세한	_____ 진짜의, 실재하는	_____ 빠른
_____ 따뜻한, 온정있는	_____ 여성스러운	_____ 깨끗한	_____ 성실한, 진실한
_____ 자유스러운	_____ 안정된	_____ 독특한	_____ 힘찬, 생기있는
_____ 매혹적인	_____ 상상력이 있는	_____ 유쾌한, 명량한	_____ 최초의
_____ 거친, 강건한	_____ 가족적인	_____ 활동적인	_____ 젊은
_____ 전통적인	_____ 프로 정신의	_____ 깔끔한, 산뜻한	_____ 신나는
_____ 지적인, 총명한	_____ 예절의, 격식적인	_____ 열심히 일하는	_____ 큰, 대단한
_____ 자신감 있는	_____ 남성스러운	_____ 시골의, 소박한	_____ 독립적인
_____ 혁신적인	_____ 전형적인	_____ 대담한, 용감한	_____ 법인의, 조직의
_____ 쉬운	_____ 바쁜	_____ 비싼, 고가의	_____ 친근한, 정다운
_____ 기술적인	_____ 잘생긴, 예쁜	_____ 멋진, 유행의	_____ 무거운, 묵직한

다음의 문항들은 여러분들의 성격과 가치관에 관련된 질문들입니다. 각각의 문항을 읽으신 후 (1) “전혀 동의하지 않음” 부터 (7) “전적으로 동의함”까지의 번호중에 가장 적합한 번호에 체크(✓)를 해주십시오.

나는 내가 접촉하는 상관이나 권력을 가진 사람에 대해 존경심을 가진다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

내가 속한 그룹내에서의 조화가 나에게서 중요하다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

다른 사람으로부터 독립된 주체성을 가지는 것이 나에게서 매우 중요하다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 비록 그룹의 구성원들과 의견 충돌이 있더라도, 그들과의 논쟁은 피한다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 누구와 같이 있는 상관없이 똑같이 행동한다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 오해를 받느니 차라리 “아니오”라고 당당하게 말할 것이다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 겸손한 사람들을 존경한다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

그룹내에서 내려진 결정은 나에게서 중요하다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 칭찬이나 상을 받음으로써 부각되거나 주목을 끄는게 편안하다 (부담스럽지 않다).

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 수업시간에 발표하는 것이 부담스럽거나 어렵지 않다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 비록 금방 알게된 사람이라도, 그들을 단도직입적으로 대하는것을 더 좋아한다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 내 자신의 성취감보다는 다른 사람들과의 인간관계가 더 중요하다고 자주 느낀다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나의 행복은 나의 주변 사람들의 행복에 따라 결정된다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

다른 그 어떤것보다 건강이 나에게서 가장 중요하다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

비록 내가 속한 그룹의 구성원들과 잘 지내지 못하더라도, 그들이나를 필요로 한다면 나는 그룹에 남을 것이다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나의 교육이나 진로에 대한 결정을 내릴때는, 부모님의 조언이나 의견을 참고해야만 한다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나보다 나이가 훨씬 많은 연장자를 만나도, 얼마 지나지 않아
그사람의 이름을 부르는게 어렵지 않다 (편하다).

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

내 자신을 돌보는 것이 무엇보다도 중요하다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

풍부한 상상력을 갖는것이 나에게서 중요하다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 내가 속한 그룹의 이익을 위해서라면, 나의 사적인
이익이나 관심을 포기할 수 있다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 다른 사람들과 여러가지 면에서 다르고 독특한 사람이
되는것을 즐긴다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

만약 나의 형제가 실패하면, 나는 그 결과에 대해서 책임감을
느낀다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

교수님과 함께 버스를 탔다면, 나는 교수님께 자리를 양보할
것이다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 집에서나 학교에서나 똑같은 사람이다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

대체로 나는 내 자신에게 만족한다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

때때로 나는 내 자신이 잘하는게 없다고 생각한다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 내가 많은 장점을 가지고 있다고 느낀다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 대부분의 다른 사람들이 하는 만큼, 일을 잘 처리할 수
있다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 내세울 만한게 많이 없다고 느낀다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 때때로 내가 쓸모없는 존재라고 확실히 느낀다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 내가 최소한 다른 사람들 만큼, 가치가 있는 사람이라고
느낀다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 내가 좀 더 내 자신을 존중하기를 바란다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

전반적으로, 나는 내 자신이 실패자라고 느끼는 경향이 있다..

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

나는 내 자신에 대해서 긍정적인 태도를 가지고 있다.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7

다음 질문들은 여러가지 사회 상황에 대한 여러분들의 반응을 알아보기 위한 문항들입니다. 만일 각각의 진술문이 여러분의 반응양식과 같거나 비슷하다면 “예” 칸에 표시(√)를 해주시고, 다르거나 비슷하지 않다면 “아니오”칸에 표시(√)를 해주십시오. 모든 문항에 응답해 주십시오.

	예	아니오
나는 타인의 행동을 흉내내는 것이 어렵다.		
나는 다른 사람과 어울릴 때나 모임에서 상대방이 좋아하는 말이나 행동을 하려고 노력하지 않는다.		
나는 다른 사람들에게 좋은 인상을 주거나 그들을 즐겁게 하려고 행동을 꾸며서 나타내기도 한다.		
나는 아마도 훌륭한 연기자가 될 소질이 있을 거라고 생각한다.		
나는 내가 믿고 있는 생각에 대해서만 의견을 나타낸다.		
나는 내가 거의 알지 못하는 화제에 대해서도 그 자리에서 즉흥적으로 이야기 할 수 있다.		
여러 사람들과 같이 있을 때, 내가 주의를 끌거나 관심을 받는 경우가 거의 없다.		
나는 상황에 따라, 또는 만나는 사람에 따라 종종 아주 다른 사람인 것처럼 행동한다.		
나는 다른 사람들이 나를 좋아하게 만드는데 별로 재주가 없다.		
다른 사람에게 보이고 싶은 대로 항상 나를 잘 나타내 보이지는 않는다. (겉으로 드러난 내 모습과 실제의 내가 항상 같지는 않다.)		
어떤 사람의 호의를 얻거나 잘 보이기 위해 나의 생각이나 행동을 바꾸지는 않는다.		
나는 내가 여러 사람이나 모임에서 흥을 돋우는 사람이라고 생각한다.		
제스처 게임이나 즉석에서 연기하기 같은 놀이를 잘 못한다.		
나는 상황이나, 만나는 사람들에 맞게 내 행동을 잘 바꾸지 못한다.		
나는 모임이나 파티에서, 대개 나는 다른 사람들이 이야기나 농담을 하는것을 듣거나 구경하는 편이다.		
나는 여러 사람 앞에서 어색함을 잘 느끼며, 잘 나서지 않는 편이다.		
(나는 좋은 결과를 위해서나 내가 옳다고 생각하면) 상대방의 눈을 똑바로 쳐다보며 태연하게 거짓말을 할 수 있다.		
나는 내가 정말로 싫어하는 사람이라도 좋아하는 척 하거나 좋게 대할 수 있다.		

다음에 보실 세가지 문항들은 여러분의 브랜드 소비에 관련된 질문들입니다. 각각의 질문을 읽으신 후 (1) “전혀 동의하지 않음” 부터 (7) “전적으로 동의함”까지의 번호중에 가장 적합한 번호에 체크(✓)를 해주십시오.

만약 내가 좋아하는 브랜드가 다 팔렸거나 없다면, 나는 다른 브랜드를 살 것이다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

나는 내가 특정 브랜드를 좋아하거나 구입한다고 생각한다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

만약 다른 브랜드가 세일을 하고 있다면, 내가 좋아하거나 주로 사던 브랜드가 있더라도, 다른 브랜드를 살 것이다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

다음의 여러가지 단어들은 여러분들 자신을 잘 표현할 수도 있고, 또는 잘 표현하지 못할 수도 있습니다. 각각의 단어를 보시고, (1) “전혀 표현하지 않는다” 부터 (7) “매우 잘 표현함” 까지의 7개의 번호중에 한개를 선택한 후 얼마나 여러분들의 자신을 잘 표현하는지 단어 옆의 빈칸에 적어주십시오. 꼭 모든 단어에 번호를 적어주셔야 됩니다.

전혀 표현하지 않음	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 잘 표현함
_____ 편안한	_____ 믿을 수 있는	_____ 상류층의	_____ 이끄는, 지도하는					
_____ 정보를 주는	_____ 색다른, 같지않은	_____ 유명한, 인기있는	_____ 현대적인					
_____ 간단한, 단순한	_____ 우스운, 웃기는	_____ 트렌디한, 유행의	_____ 감상(감정)적인					
_____ 정직한, 진실한	_____ 서양의, 서구의	_____ 명랑한, 말이 많은	_____ 현실적인					
_____ 아주 좋은, 멋진	_____ 우아한, 품위있는	_____ 야외의, 아웃도어의	_____ 능률적인					
_____ 건전한, 유익한	_____ 터프한, 강인한	_____ 매력있는	_____ 만족을 주는					
_____ 즐거운	_____ 나이먹은, 오래된	_____ 잘 만들어진	_____ 안전한, 안정된					
_____ 편리한	_____ 엄격한, 꼼꼼한	_____ 최신의	_____ 쾌활한, 잘노는					
_____ 다방면의	_____ 성공한, 잘된	_____ 조용한, 침착한	_____ 건강한					
_____ 빠른	_____ 새로운, 최신의	_____ 섬세한	_____ 진짜의, 실재하는					
_____ 성실한, 진실한	_____ 따뜻한, 온정있는	_____ 여성스러운	_____ 깨끗한					
_____ 힘찬, 생기있는	_____ 자유스러운	_____ 안정된	_____ 독특한					
_____ 최초의	_____ 매혹적인	_____ 상상력이 있는	_____ 유쾌한, 명랑한					
_____ 젊은	_____ 거친, 강건한	_____ 가족적인	_____ 활동적인					
_____ 신나는	_____ 전통적인	_____ 프로 정신의	_____ 깔끔한, 산뜻한					
_____ 큰, 대단한	_____ 지적인, 총명한	_____ 예절의, 격식적인	_____ 열심히 일하는					
_____ 독립적인	_____ 자신감 있는	_____ 남성스러운	_____ 시골의, 소박한					
_____ 법인의, 조직의	_____ 혁신적인	_____ 전형적인	_____ 대담한, 용감한					
_____ 친근한, 정다운	_____ 쉬운	_____ 바쁜	_____ 비싼, 고가의					
_____ 무거운, 묵직한	_____ 기술적인	_____ 잘생긴, 예쁜	_____ 멋진, 유행의					

전 페이지에서는 여러가지 단어들에 여러분들의 현재의 자신을 얼마나 잘 표현하는지에 대하여 응답하여 주셨습니다. 이번에는 현재의 여러분들이 아니라 여러분들이 이상적으로 생각하는 자신에 대해서 말씀해 주십시오. 다음의 여러가지 단어들을 보시고, 여러분들이 이상적으로 되고 싶은 자신 또는 갖고 싶은 성격이나 인성에 대해서 (1) “**전혀 표현하지 않는다**” 부터 (7) “**매우 잘 표현함**” 까지의 7개의 번호중에 한개를 선택하여 주십시오. 전 페이지와 같이 옆의 빈칸에 1 부터 7까지의 번호 중 한개를 적어주십시오. 꼭 모든 단어에 번호를 적어주셔야 됩니다.

전혀 표현하지 않음	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 잘 표현함
_____ 이끄는, 지도하는	_____	_____ 편안한	_____	_____	_____ 믿을 수 있는	_____	_____	_____ 상류층의
_____ 현대적인	_____	_____ 정보를 주는	_____	_____	_____ 색다른, 각지않은	_____	_____	_____ 유명한, 인기있는
_____ 감상(감정)적인	_____	_____ 간단한, 단순한	_____	_____	_____ 우스운, 웃기는	_____	_____	_____ 트렌디한, 유행의
_____ 현실적인	_____	_____ 정직한, 진실한	_____	_____	_____ 서양의, 서구의	_____	_____	_____ 명랑한, 말이 많은
_____ 능률적인	_____	_____ 아주 좋은, 멋진	_____	_____	_____ 우아한, 품위있는	_____	_____	_____ 야외의, 아웃도어의
_____ 만족을 주는	_____	_____ 건전한, 유익한	_____	_____	_____ 터프한, 강인한	_____	_____	_____ 매력있는
_____ 안전한, 안정된	_____	_____ 즐거운	_____	_____	_____ 나이먹은, 오래된	_____	_____	_____ 잘 만들어진
_____ 쾌활한, 잘노는	_____	_____ 편리한	_____	_____	_____ 엄격한, 꼼꼼한	_____	_____	_____ 최신의
_____ 건강한	_____	_____ 다방면의	_____	_____	_____ 성공한, 잘된	_____	_____	_____ 조용한, 침착한
_____ 진짜의, 실재하는	_____	_____ 빠른	_____	_____	_____ 새로운, 최신의	_____	_____	_____ 섬세한
_____ 깨끗한	_____	_____ 성실한, 진실한	_____	_____	_____ 따뜻한, 온정있는	_____	_____	_____ 여성스러운
_____ 독특한	_____	_____ 힘찬, 생기있는	_____	_____	_____ 자유스러운	_____	_____	_____ 안정된
_____ 유쾌한, 명랑한	_____	_____ 최초의	_____	_____	_____ 매혹적인	_____	_____	_____ 상상력이 있는
_____ 활동적인	_____	_____ 젊은	_____	_____	_____ 거친, 강건한	_____	_____	_____ 가족적인
_____ 깔끔한, 산뜻한	_____	_____ 신나는	_____	_____	_____ 전통적인	_____	_____	_____ 프로 정신의
_____ 열심히 일하는	_____	_____ 큰, 대단한	_____	_____	_____ 지적인, 총명한	_____	_____	_____ 예절의, 격식적인
_____ 시골의, 소박한	_____	_____ 독립적인	_____	_____	_____ 자신감 있는	_____	_____	_____ 남성스러운
_____ 대담한, 용감한	_____	_____ 법인의, 조직의	_____	_____	_____ 혁신적인	_____	_____	_____ 전형적인
_____ 비싼, 고가의	_____	_____ 친근한, 정다운	_____	_____	_____ 쉬운	_____	_____	_____ 바쁜
_____ 멋진, 유행의	_____	_____ 무거운, 묵직한	_____	_____	_____ 기술적인	_____	_____	_____ 잘생긴, 예쁜

다음에 보실 문항들은 현재 판매되고 광고되고 있는 여러가지 브랜드 (옷 & 시계)에 대한 여러분의 의견을 물어보고 있습니다. 각각의 브랜드에 대한 여러분의 개인적인 취향 또는 선호도와 구입의향에 대해서 아래에 7개의 빈칸중 가장 정확히 여러분의 생각을 나타내는 곳에 체크(√)를 해주십시오.

예) _____:_____√_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

로렉스 (Rolex - 시계 브랜드)

이 브랜드를 잘 알지 못한다.
(전혀 친숙하지 않다.)

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드를 매우 잘 안다.
(매우 친숙하다.)

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
싫어한다.

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
좋아한다.

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지
않을 것 같다.

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할
것 같다.

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아한다.

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다.

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다.

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다.

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같다.

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 있다.

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 없다.

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다.

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
없을 것 같다.

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
있을 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다.

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다.

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지
않는다.

디젤 (Diesel - 옷 브랜드)

이 브랜드를 잘 알지 못한다.
(전혀 친숙하지 않다.)

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

이 브랜드를 매우 잘 안다.
(매우 친숙하다.)

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
싫어한다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
좋아한다.

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지
않을 것 같다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할
것 같다.

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아한다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다.

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같다.

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 있다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 없다.

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
없을 것 같다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
있을 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지
않는다.

태그호이어 (TAG Heuer – 시계 브랜드)

이 브랜드를 잘 알지 못한다.
(전혀 친숙하지 않다.) _____

이 브랜드를 매우 잘 안다.
(매우 친숙하다.) _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
싫어한다. _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
좋아한다. _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지
않을 것 같다. _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할
것 같다. _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아한다. _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다. _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다. _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다. _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같다. _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 있다. _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 없다. _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
없을 것 같다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
있을 것이다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다. _____

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지
않는다. _____

노스페이스 (North Face - 옷 브랜드)

이 브랜드를 잘 알지 못한다.
(전혀 친숙하지 않다.) _____

이 브랜드를 매우 잘 안다.
(매우 친숙하다.) _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
싫어한다. _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
좋아한다. _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지
않을 것 같다. _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할
것 같다. _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아한다. _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다. _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다. _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다. _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같다. _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 있다. _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 없다. _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
없을 것 같다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
있을 것이다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다. _____

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지
않는다. _____

테크노마린 (Technomarine - 시계 브랜드)

이 브랜드를 잘 알지 못한다.
(전혀 친숙하지 않다.) _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드를 매우 잘 안다.
(매우 친숙하다.)

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
싫어한다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
좋아한다.

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지
않을 것 같다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할
것 같다.

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아한다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다.

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같다.

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 있다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 없다.

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
없을 것 같다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
있을 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다.
_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지
않는다.

폴로 랄프로렌 (Ralph Lauren - 옷 브랜드)

이 브랜드를 잘 알지 못한다.
(전혀 친숙하지 않다.) _____

이 브랜드를 매우 잘 안다.
(매우 친숙하다.) _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
싫어한다. _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
좋아한다. _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지
않을 것 같다. _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할
것 같다. _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아한다. _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다. _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다. _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다. _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같다. _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 있다. _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 없다. _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
없을 것 같다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
있을 것이다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다. _____

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지
않는다. _____

감사합니다.

APPENDIX K

EXPERIMENT 1 (REAL BRANDS) - Part II (Korean Version)**브랜드 연구 - Part II - A**

두번째 설문에 응해 주셔서 감사드립니다. 두번째 설문의 목적은 여러분들이 첫번째 설문에서 보시고 평가해주셨던, 여러 가지 브랜드들을 재평가해주시는 겁니다.

하지만, 이번에는 여러가지 사회적인 상황에 따라서 브랜드를 재평가해주셔야 합니다. 여러분들이 보실 모든 사회적인 상황은 점심이나 저녁식사와 관련이 있습니다. 다시 말해 여러분들은 각각의 사회적인 상황을 보신후, 여러분들이 직접 그 상황에 있다고 가정 (상상)을 하신 후, 다음에 나오는 여러가지 브랜드에 대해서 평가해 주시면 됩니다.

본 연구의 성공은 여러분들의 상상력과 그에 따른 각각의 브랜드에 대한 선호도나 구입의향에 대해서 얼마만큼 잘 평가해주시느냐에 달려 있습니다.

여러분들의 상상력의 가상을 돕기위해 각각의 상황은 그림과 짧은 글로 묘사되어있습니다. 각각의 상황을 보고 읽으신 후, 여러분들이 직접 그 상황에 가거나, 갈 준비를 하고 있다고 상상해 주십시오. 그리고 여러가지 브랜드에 대해서 평가해 주시면 됩니다.

성별: 남 _____ 여 _____

연구자가 두가지 설문을 비교/분석하기 위해서는 여러분들의 아이디어가 필요합니다. 첫번째 설문에 적으셨던 아이디어를 적어주십시오. 예를 들어, 여러분의 생일이 1983년 12월 12일이면, “19831212”이라고 적어주십시오. 아래와 같이 8개의 빈칸에 순서대로 적어주시면 됩니다.

예) ID number: 1 9 8 3 1 2 1 2

ID number: _____

여러분들에게는 세가지 다른 사회적인 상황이 주어질 것입니다. 각각의 상황마다, 여섯가지 브랜드에 대해서 여러분의 선호도와 구입의향에 대해서 응답해 주십시오.

다음 페이지로

지금부터, 첫번째 상황을 보시겠습니다.

- 그림과 짧은 글을 자세히 보신 후
여러분들이 직접 이 상황에 가거나, 또는
참석할 계획을 갖고 있다고 상상해 주십시오.

다음 페이지로



현수와 은정은 친구들이 매년 주최하는 연말 파티에 참석하기로 되어있다. 파티가 열리는 호텔에 도착해서 대리 주차원에게 자동차를 맡긴 후, 근사한 호텔 파티장으로 들어갔다. 내부 인테리어는 화사했고 무척 고급스러워 보였다. 현수와 은정은 주변 사람들과 인사를 나눴고, 그들의 자리로 안내 되었다. 잠시 후, 순서에 따라 코스로 준비된 프랑스 요리들이 고급스러운 접시에 담긴 장식과 함께 서빙되기 시작했다. 모두들 고급스러운 음식과 분위기에 감탄하였고, 그들이 만찬을 즐기는 동안 재즈 뮤지션의 스윙 재즈 연주가 시작되었다.

여러분들이 조금 전에 보신 상황 (호텔에서의 연말 파티)에 가거나, 참석할 계획이 있다고 상상해 보십시오. 여러분들은 호텔에서 열리는 연말파티에서 여러분들의 자신을 나타내기 위해서 여러 가지를 준비하실 겁니다. 여러분들이 호텔에서 연말파티에 계시거나, 참석할 거라고 가정하여, 노스페이스 (North Face - 옷 브랜드) 에 대해서 평가해주십시오.

노스페이스 (North Face - 옷 브랜드)

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를 싫어한다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를 좋아한다.

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지 않을 것 같다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할 것 같다.

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해, 이 브랜드를 좋아한다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해, 이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다.

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드 구입할 것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를 트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를 트라이 해 볼 것 같다.

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는 것을 상상할 수 있다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는 것을 상상할 수 없다.

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이 없을 것 같다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이 있을 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의 이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의 이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지 않는다.

여러분들이 조금 전에 보신 상황 (호텔에서의 연말 파티)에 가거나, 참석할 계획이 있다고 상상해 보십시오. 여러분들은 호텔에서 열리는 연말파티에서 여러분들의 자신을 나타내기 위해서 여러 가지를 준비하실 겁니다. 여러분들이 호텔에서의 연말파티에 계시거나, 참석할 거라고 가정하여, 테크노마린 (Technomarine – 시계 브랜드) 에 대해서 평가해 주십시오.

테크노마린 (Technomarine – 시계 브랜드)

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를 싫어한다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를 좋아한다.

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지 않을 것 같다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할 것 같다.

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해, 이 브랜드를 좋아한다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해, 이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다.

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드 구입할 것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를 트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를 트라이 해 볼 것 같다.

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는 것을 상상할 수 있다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는 것을 상상할 수 없다.

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이 없을 것 같다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이 있을 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의 이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다. _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의 이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지 않는다.

여러분들이 조금 전에 보신 상황 (호텔에서의 연말 파티)에 가거나, 참석할 계획이 있다고 상상해 보십시오. 여러분들은 호텔에서 열리는 연말파티에서 여러분들의 자신을 나타내기 위해서 여러 가지를 준비하실 겁니다. 여러분들이 호텔에서의 연말파티에 계시거나, 참석할 거라고 가정하여, 폴로 랄프로렌 (Ralph Lauren – 옷 브랜드) 에 대해서 평가해주시십시오.

폴로 랄프로렌 (Ralph Lauren – 옷 브랜드)

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를 싫어한다. _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를 좋아한다.

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지 않을 것 같다. _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할 것 같다.

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해, 이 브랜드를 좋아한다. _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해, 이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다.

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드 구입할 것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를 트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다. _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를 트라이 해 볼 것 같다.

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는 것을 상상할 수 있다. _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는 것을 상상할 수 없다.

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이 없을 것 같다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이 있을 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의 이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다. _____

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의 이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지 않는다.

여러분들이 조금 전에 보신 상황 (호텔에서의 연말 파티)에 가거나, 참석할 계획이 있다고 상상해 보십시오. 여러분들은 호텔에서 열리는 연말파티에서 여러분들의 자신을 나타내기 위해서 여러 가지를 준비하실 겁니다. 여러분들이 호텔에서의 연말파티에 계시거나, 참석할 거라고 가정하여, 로렉스 (Rolex - 시계 브랜드) 에 대해서 평가해주십시오.

로렉스 (Rolex - 시계 브랜드)

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를 싫어한다. _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를 좋아한다.

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지 않을 것 같다. _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할 것 같다.

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해, 이 브랜드를 좋아한다. _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해, 이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다.

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드 구입할 것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를 트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다. _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를 트라이 해 볼 것 같다.

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는 것을 상상할 수 있다. _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는 것을 상상할 수 없다.

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이 없을 것 같다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이 있을 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의 이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다. _____

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의 이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지 않는다.

여러분들이 조금 전에 보신 상황 (호텔에서의 연말 파티)에 가거나, 참석할 계획이 있다고 상상해 보십시오. 여러분들은 호텔에서 열리는 연말파티에서 여러분들의 자신을 나타내기 위해서 여러 가지를 준비하실 겁니다. 여러분들이 호텔에서의 연말파티에 계시거나, 참석할 거라고 가정하여, 디젤 (Diesel - 옷 브랜드) 에 대해서 평가해 주십시오.

디젤 (Diesel - 옷 브랜드)

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
싫어한다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를
좋아한다.

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지
않을 것 같다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할 것
같다.

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아한다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해,
이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다.

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를
트라이 해 볼 것 같다.

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 있다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는
것을 상상할 수 없다.

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할
것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
없을 것 같다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이
있을 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다.

_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의
이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지
않는다.

여러분들이 조금 전에 보신 상황 (호텔에서의 연말 파티)에 가거나, 참석할 계획이 있다고 상상해 보십시오. 여러분들은 호텔에서 열리는 연말파티에서 여러분들의 자신을 나타내기 위해서 여러 가지를 준비하실 겁니다. 여러분들이 호텔에서의 연말파티에 계시거나, 참석할 거라고 가정하에, 태그호이어 (TAG Hauer - 시계 브랜드) 에 대해서 평가해주세요.

태그호이어 (TAG Heuer - 시계 브랜드)

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를 싫어한다. _____

개인적으로, 이 브랜드를 좋아한다.

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입하지 않을 것 같다. _____

미래에 이 브랜드를 구입할 것 같다.

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해, 이 브랜드를 좋아한다. _____

다른 옷 브랜드에 비해, 이 브랜드를 좋아하지 않는다.

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(나를 위해) 이 브랜드 구입할 것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를 트라이 해 볼 것 같지 않다. _____

상점(매장)에서 이 브랜드를 트라이 해 볼 것 같다.

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는 것을 상상할 수 있다. _____

내가 이 브랜드를 구입하는 것을 상상할 수 없다.

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 전혀 고려하지 않을 것이다. _____

(선물로) 이 브랜드를 구입할 것을 분명히 고려할 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이 없을 것 같다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고에 관심이 있을 것이다.

이 브랜드의 광고를 싫어한다. _____

이 브랜드의 광고를 좋아한다.

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의 이미지가 비슷하다고 믿는다. _____

이 브랜드의 이미지와 나의 이미지가 비슷하다고 믿지 않는다.

첫번째 상황을 끝내셨습니다.

지금부터, 두번째 상황을 보시겠습니다.

- 그림과 짧은 글을 자세히 보신 후
여러분들이 직접 이 상황에 가거나, 또는
참석할 계획을 갖고 있다고 상상해 주십시오.

다음 페이지로