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The Effects of Self-Congruity on Brand Attitude

The moderating impact of different usage situations

Anna Manokhina and Lea Melpignano

Supervisor: Magne Supphellen

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NORWEGIAN SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS

Abstract

Self-congruity theory is a much researched construct in marketing literature. Nevertheless, the results found are controversial and there is a lack of consensus about several factors including which variables moderate the self-congruity effect. In an effort to lessen some of the controversy, this study investigates how different usage situations influence the effects of consumers' self-congruity evaluations on brand attitude. Moreover, rapid technological developments influence consumers' behavior, affecting the success of marketing efforts. Therefore, as one of the firsts, our research includes the presence of social media in connection to self-congruity theory.

Based on a study with 116 respondents, we tested the self-congruity effect for three different usage situations: public, private and private with social media. It was found that the self-congruity effect was strongest in public usage situations, followed by private with social media usage situations. No significant results were found for private usage situations. In addition, further tests show that the self-congruity effect on brand attitude diminishes or even completely disappears when measured together with other variables such as quality, taste, and brand knowledge.

These findings have interesting implications for measurement of symbolic brand effects and marketing theory. Firstly, based on the results that the self-congruity effect disappears when measured together with other variables, we can infer that self-congruity should always be tested together with other attributes to avoid any measurement bias. Moreover, the varying effects of perceived self-congruity in different usage situations is valuable information for brands and can be used to optimize their marketing efficiency.

Keywords: self-congruity theory, actual and ideal self-congruity, self-concept, brand image, brand attitude, usage situations, social media.

Acknowledgments

This thesis represents the final chapter of our Master of Science in Economics and Business Administration at the Norwegian School of Economics. The goal of this thesis was to further develop the current understanding of self-congruity theory, discover possible moderating factors and develop actionable recommendations for future research and marketing practitioners.

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1. Introduction

Consumers are exposed to increasingly more brand messages each day. In fact, studies have shown that the average consumer sees approximately 10,000 messages a day (Saxon, 2017). On top of that, the growing number of channels consumers have at their disposal, cause the number of daily brand messages to grow and go beyond these 10,000 messages a day. Consequently, consumers' attention is divided across ever more messages and it is increasingly harder for companies to be noticed and grab consumers' attention. This, in turn, increases the difficulty for brands to influence consumers' purchasing decisions.

Another challenge brands are facing is the changing competitive landscape. Besides consumers receiving more messages than ever, they are also receiving them differently. Due to the presence of the internet, and especially social media, the more traditional ways of branding where adverts are placed on television, radio or online, are no longer the norm. For example, we see brands using more brand ambassadors and influencers to indirectly advertise to consumers, and brands can reach their optimal target consumer better due to the advancements in data analysis. Moreover, brands that did not advertise before, such as ones purely focused on functional attributes, also join the promotional competition, because being heard and finding their niche is becoming more relevant.

Adding higher competition, less demand and increasing costs to this situation, many companies are investigating how they can make their marketing more (cost) efficient (Keller, 1993). To be successful, they need to appeal to consumers and distinguish themselves from competitors. Companies can do this by forming positive attitudes about the brand in consumers' minds, which, in return, have an effect on their purchasing behavior (Azjen, 2008; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). An attitude is "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object" (Fishbein & Azjen, 1975, p. 6). They vary and can be categorized along different factors, which ultimately decides how consumers evaluate something, in this case a brand. For example, attitudes can be positive or negative, easy or hard to be remembered, held strongly or weakly, last long or short, and they can be easy or hard to change (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010, p. 122). Thus, brands can leverage the effects of their brand positioning to create a competitive advantage in the minds of consumers (Keller, 1993).

Self-congruity theory is an area in marketing that may help brands gain a competitive advantage. The theory proposes that the congruence between a consumer's self-image and that of the consumer's brand image affect the consumer's attitude towards a brand. When evaluating a product or a brand, consumers may be guided not only by practical attributes, but also some symbolic values. We do not simply consume brands, they also serve as indicators of our status and values to other people. Questions we ask ourselves include: Would I look cool if I buy this product? And, does this ecological (and/or savvy, smart, hip, etc.) product reflect my personality? In addition, we may want to communicate different values in different situations (Graeff, 1997). How would that influence our consumer behavior?

The presence of the Internet and social media is also an important factor to consider, since most studies on self-congruity theory were conducted when this dimension of our life was not as pronounced. How do changes in the digital world and social media affect our lives? Would people post more about products that are congruent with themselves, thereby communicating something about their values to their followers? This is an important question to ask, as posting about products on social media helps increasing brand recognition and forming positive attitudes among potential consumers.

Alternatively, the effect of self-congruity may be overrated. Is it possible that consumers purchase certain brands not because they are congruent with their self-concepts, but simply because they like the taste more, or consider them of being a higher quality than competition?

1.1 Research Question

The effects of self-concept and brand-image congruity have been widely studied (e.g. Levy, 1959; Sirgy, 1982; Malhotra, 1988; Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). However, the research is scattered in different directions and findings vary regarding potential moderators as well as the importance of the different self-congruity constructs. Moreover, the influence of social media has not yet been researched much.

To lessen the controversy in the existing literature, we would like to further explore the self-congruity effect on brand attitudes. More specifically, we would like to investigate the relative influence of self-congruity on brand attitude and how this effect may vary depending on different contexts. Therefore, the following research question is proposed to guide the thesis:

"To what extent does self-congruence influence brand attitudes, and how does the usage situation moderate this relationship?"

1.2 Thesis Outline

To answer the research question proposed above, our thesis followed a deductive approach in which we first studied and analysed existing theories, before the creation of hypotheses and a suitable research strategy to test them (Saunders et al., 2009).

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the existing literature on self-congruity theory. We start by explaining the basic concepts that are central to our thesis such as self-concept, brand image, the self-congruity effect as well as previously studied moderating variables to the self-congruity effect including socially desirable responding and self-esteem. Finally, we also tap into the effects of different usage situations and address both product conspicuousness and the influence of social media.

In chapter 3 we present our conceptual framework and hypotheses. The chapter includes an illustration of the hypothesized effects as well as an analysis of the reviewed literature based on which the hypotheses were formed.

To test the hypotheses, a fitting research design needs to be chosen. This will be explained in chapter 4. We start by explaining the research design, followed by a detailed overview of the methodology used to test our hypotheses. It includes an overview of our measures as well as the descriptive statistics and correlations between variables. Then, in chapter 5 our results are shown with an overview of the hypotheses tests.

The last chapter is a discussion and conclusion of our thesis. There we present the main findings, as well as some additional ones, which were found in process and which also contribute to answering the research question. In the end practical and theoretical implications are suggested. We also discuss limitations of our research, as well as make proposals for further research in our topic.

2. Literature Review

This chapter provides an overview of self-congruity theory and related concepts. According to self-congruity theory, the congruence between a consumer's self-image and that of a consumer's brand-image affect a consumer's attitude towards that brand (e.g. Sirgy, 1982, Graeff, 1996; Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). In order to better understand this effect, we will start by explaining the basic concepts of self-concept, brand-image and brand attitude, followed by a discussion on self-congruity theory. The discussion on self-congruity theory includes an analysis of the opposing views in the existing literature as well as an overview of potential moderators of the self-congruity effect.

In the consumer behavior literature, the terms "*self-image congruence*", "*self-congruence,*" "*self-congruity*", and "*image congruence*" are used interchangeably. In our thesis the term "*self-congruity*" is chosen as central, referring to the match between consumers' self-concept and the user image of a given product or brand. (Kressmann et al., 2006)

2.1 Self-Concept

Self-concept has been defined as the "totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings having reference to himself as an object" (Rosenberg 1979, p. 7; as cited in Sirgy, 1982). It reflects the thoughts and feelings we have about ourselves, including who and what we are, the way we look, and what we can or cannot do.

Initially, self-concept was studied as a unidimensional construct considering only the actual self (e.g. Birdwell, 1968; Green, Maheshwari, & Rao, 1969; Grubb & Stern, 1971). However, as research progressed, this unidimensional view evolved into a multidimensional one to include other facets of the self such as the ideal self, the social self and the ideal social self (e.g. Sirgy, 1982; Malhotra, 1988). The actual self reflects how a person sees him or herself. Respectively, the ideal self refers to how a person desires or aspires to see him or herself. Finally, the social self relates to how a person perceives others to see him or herself and the ideal social self relates to the way a person would like others to perceive him or herself.

Even though a person's self-concept has different facets, he or she may relate more to one or the other depending on the goal he or she has for buying certain products or services (Malhotra, 1988; Hong & Zinkhan, 1995). This will be explained in the following section.

2.1.1 Purchase Motivation

Consumers buy products and brands not only for their functionality, but also for their symbolic meaning, which they can leverage to define, maintain or enhance their self-concept (cf. section 2.2). This means that consumers can use products or brands to express their self-image: who they are, where they are, what they are, and how they would like to be viewed. (Graeff, 1996).

On the one hand consumers are motivated by self-consistency in which they try to maintain and protect their actual self (Hong & Zinkhan, 1995). External influences may threaten the self-concept and destabilize it, causing anxiety and discomfort for the individual as the beliefs a person has about him or herself (i.e. the self-concept) are challenged (Rosenberg, 1979; Hong & Zinkhan, 1995). Here, people buy, project or use products and brands consistent with their actual self (Sirgy, 1982). On the other hand, people are motivated by self-esteem in which they try to enhance their self-concept towards the ideal self to be perceived more positively (Hong & Zinkhan, 1995). Given the different goals people have (i.e. consistency or enhancement), the role and selection of self-concept may vary across different people, products and/or situations (Malhotra, 1988; Hong & Zinkhan, 1995).

2.2 Brand Image

Like people have images of themselves and others, they can also have images of brands (Sirgy, 1985). Keller (1993) defined brand image as the "perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory". Thus, brand associations represent the pieces of information that come to mind when a consumer thinks about a brand. These brand associations taken together carry the meaning of the brand for consumers (Keller, 1993). Moreover, brand associations vary in favorability, strength, and uniqueness, which not only influences how people feel about brands, but also how they evaluate them (Keller, 1993). This indicates the importance for brands to create a positive brand image in consumers' minds, as it aids brands in their positioning and provides them with the opportunity to differentiate themselves from competitors. Brand associations can be divided into two categories: brand attributes and brand benefits (Keller, 1993).

Attributes are the characteristic features of a product/service. They include what consumers think about a product/service, what a product/service is or has to offer, and what factors are related to purchasing or consuming a product/service. Attributes can be further divided into

product-related and non-product-related (Keller, 1993). Product-related attributes are those necessary to fulfil the product's/service's functional expectations (e.g. physical or performance requirements). Non-product-related attributes, on the other hand, are those associated with the purchase or consumption of a good/service such as price, packaging, user imagery (i.e. the stereotypical user of the product/service) and usage imagery (i.e. where and when the product/service is used).

Even so, it is not always easy to say to which category some attributes belong. For example, one of the attributes of a product is quality, which seems to be purely product related. Quality was defined by Dodds et. al (1991) as "the perceived ability of a product to provide satisfaction relative to available alternatives". However, perceived quality is not always objective and may be based on subjective perceptions of the intrinsic attributes (e.g. color, flavor or smell) (Garvin, 1984), or such extrinsic attributes as the manufacturer's brand image, price and country of origin (Teas & Agarwal, 2000). Therefore, it also has features in non-product related attributes and some researchers even suggest that perceived quality is similar to an attitude (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988).

Benefits represent the personal value (i.e. what consumers think the product/service can do for them) consumers attach to product/service attributes (Keller, 1993). There are three types of benefits based on consumers' needs: functional, experiential and symbolic (Park, Jaworski, & McInnis, 1986; Keller, 1993). Functional benefits help consumers solve problems (e.g. a vacuum cleaner removes dust). Experiential benefits satisfy needs connected to sensory pleasure (e.g. the smell of perfume), cognitive motivation (e.g. solving a Sudoku puzzle), and/or variety seeking (e.g. changing the brand or flavor of toothpaste with each purchase). Lastly, symbolic benefits help consumers to influence how they perceive themselves as well as how they are perceived by others. Thus, consumers buy things also because of their personal or social meaning, rather than purely their functional benefits (Levy, 1959; Grubb & Stern, 1971).

For the scope of this thesis, we will focus on non-product related attributes and symbolic benefits, because self-congruity research focuses primarily on symbolic consumption behavior (e.g. Dolich, 1696; Sirgy, 1982; Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). Such attributes as quality and taste are also included in our study, as their perception may also be influenced by brand image (Monirul & Han, 2012).

Now that we understand the concepts self-concept and brand image, we will investigate the relationship between these two concepts and what effects they have on brand attitude.

2.3 Self-Congruity Theory

According to self-congruity theory, consumer behavior is to some extent influenced by the degree to which a consumer's self-concept compares to his or her image of a brand: consumers tend to have more favorable attitudes towards (or prefer) certain brands which are congruent with their self-image, compared to those which are less congruent with their self-image (e.g. Sirgy, 1982; Graeff, 1996; Sirgy et al., 1997; Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). Hence, the more the self-concept matches the brand image, the more likely a consumer is to positively evaluate the brand.

Based on the four different types of self-concept (i.e. actual self, ideal self, social self, and ideal social self), there are four corresponding types of self-congruity: actual self-congruity, ideal self-congruity, social self-congruity, and ideal social self-congruity (Sirgy, 1982). They each refer to the congruity between the respective types of self-image and the brand image, represented by the stereotypical brand user (Sirgy, 1986; Sirgy et al., 1997). Moreover, actual and ideal self-congruity are the most commonly used in self-congruity research and supported the strongest (Sirgy, 1982).

How the self-concept and brand image interact and affect consumer behavior has been widely studied (e.g. Sirgy, 1982; Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004; Graeff, 1996; Malär et al., 2012). However, the literature is undecided on a variety of factors such as which type of self-congruity effect is more important (actual or ideal) and which factors moderate the self-congruity effect (cf. Appendix A). Moreover, both current and rapidly developing societal changes - due to the technological advancements - may also affect the self-congruity effect. In the next sections we will investigate these discrepancies and new developments further.

2.3.1 Which effect is more important: Actual or Ideal?

Some scholars (e.g. Malär, Krohmer, Hoyer, & Nyffenegger, 2011; Sirgy, 1982) claim that the effect of actual self-congruity on brand attitude is more important and larger than that of ideal self-congruity. On the contrary, others (e.g. Aguirre-Rodriguez, Bosnjak, & Sirgy, 2012;

Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004; Graeff, 1997) argue that the effect of ideal self-congruity is larger than that of actual self-congruity.

The varying results could be explained by the experiment design that researchers used. Generally, the self-congruity constructs have been measured within subjects, meaning that subjects responded to both the ideal- and actual self within the same experiment. This approach may have led respondents to respond differently (thereby biasing their results) than if they were asked about only one of the constructs. To avoid any carry over effects, Helgeson and Supphellen (2004) proposed to measure the actual- and ideal self-congruity constructs separately instead (i.e. respondents get only asked about one of the self-congruity constructs).

Alternatively, the varying results may also be explained by the presence of moderating factors. In the next section, we will address this further.

2.4 Moderators of the Self-Congruity Effect

The literature has covered a variety of moderating factors that could influence the self-congruity effect including socially desirable responding (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004; Graeff, 1996), consumers' self-esteem (e.g. Malär et al., 2012; Silber & Tippett, 1965), and type of usage situation (e.g. Aaker, 1999; Dolich, 1969; Ross, 1971; Graeff, 1996).

2.4.1 Socially Desirable Responding

Socially Desirable Responding (SDR) is people's tendency to answer research questions in a way to make themselves look good compared to the cultural norms at hand (Mick, 1996). When engaging in SDR people tend to overreport favorable behaviors (e.g. helping people in need) and underreport unfavorable ones (e.g. pretending to be sick to get out of an engagement) (Mick, 1996).

SDR has been considered a serious response bias as people tend to adapt their answers to make themselves look better, which consequently affects studies' results (Mick, 1996). Helgeson and Supphellen (2004) investigated the moderating effects of SDR on self-congruity measures and found that SDR may have a negatively moderating effect on the relationship between the actual self and consumers' brand attitude. In fact, they found that respondents with high levels of SDR manipulated their answers to brand attitude and/or actual self-congruity reporting.

2.4.2 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem occurs when a person has a positive self-concept. Malär et al. (2012) found that high levels of self-esteem strengthen the effect of actual self-congruity on emotional brand attachment, whereas low levels of self-esteem strengthen the effect of ideal self-congruity. In addition, they found that the effects of ideal self-congruity are negated for people with high levels of self-esteem. Thus, people with a high self-esteem, who like their actual self, want to consume products or services that confirms their actual self. On the other hand, people with a low self-esteem, who do not like their actual self, will aim for products or services that help them achieve their ideal self.

2.4.3 Usage Situations and Situational Congruity

The importance of consumption situations for consumer behavior has been considered by different researchers (e.g. Biel, 1992; Graeff, 1997), but little research in relation to self-congruity has been done. For example, Graeff (1997) claimed that consumers' self-image is not a static concept and depends on a particular situation. According to him, for each consumption situation individuals may have a different self-image, which brings us to the concept of situational congruity.

Situational congruity or brand usage imagery congruity can be defined as "the relationship between a consumer's expectations of the typical situations that a brand would be used by him/her, and the general perceptions of the brand's usage situations" (Liu, Li, Mizerski, & Soh, 2012). For example, sports clothing can be associated with sports activities and expected to be used for exercising in a gym or jogging.

Keller (2001) considered purchase and usage situations of importance for building brand associations. According to him, associations of different usage situations may be based on such considerations as the time when the brand is used (e.g. day or month), the place where the brand is used (e.g. on vacation or at home) and the type of activity in which the brand is used. Furthermore, Keller (2001) claimed that a more concrete communication of usage situation "forms a base for creating broader and more abstract associations of personality, value, history, heritage and experiences". For example, brand associations can be influenced when a brand is linked to sports events through sponsorships (Keller, 1993). A good example of creating associations through usage situations is Red Bull, which suggests consuming their

drinks while doing sports. The company is known for creating and strengthening consumers' brand associations through annual extreme sports events sponsored by the brand.

Usage situation may also be considered in a social context. Linville and Carlston (1994) claim that usage situations can be divided into two main components: physical aspects of the situation (cf. Keller, 2001 above) and social surroundings (e.g. other people present in the situation, their traits and roles). People attempt to match their performance to social expectations, depending on the goals they aim to achieve (Schenk & Holman, 1980). For example, one may have a goal to maintain an image of a serious business person and they attempt to do this by using a Rolex pen when signing contracts with important stakeholders. Similarly, a young mother may conform her clothing style to the one common among representatives (i.e. other young mothers) of her newly obtained social role. However, the role performance cannot be predicted only by the requirements of one's social position because social role performances are learned and determined by culture (Schenk & Holman, 1980).

When a person anticipates entering a certain social situation, he/she recalls situational cues. As a result, they activate particular personality traits, associated with the anticipated situation. Consequently, the person may become framed to buy those product, which suit the traits recalled during the anticipation phase. For example, if the person anticipates visiting a seminar, physical attributes of the seminar may be recalled as well as social surroundings and participants. This anticipation makes the person elaborate on normative standards of how to behave at the seminar, thereby making accessible such traits as intelligence, creativity, and competence. As a result, these situational assessments combined with an individual's personal goals and expectations of the situation, determine his or her behavior. (Aaker, 1999)

Product Conspicuousness

Product conspicuousness has been divided into two concepts: publicly consumed products and privately consumed products (Bourne, 1957). Publicly consumed products are those that others can see while we use them, whereas privately consumed products are those that are not visible to others, sometimes not even to the user him/herself (e.g. a wireless router). Even so, products do not always belong to one extreme or the other. Instead, the majority of products can be placed somewhere in the middle (e.g. a mobile phone) depending on how much they are seen by others during consumption (Kulviwat, Brunner II, & Al-Shuridah, 2009).

Dolich (1969) and Ross (1971) have investigated the relationship between product conspicuousness and self-congruity theory. They expected the ideal self to have a larger effect on evaluations of publicly consumed brands as opposed to the actual self. Conversely, they expected the actual self to have a larger effect on evaluations of privately consumed brands. The assumption was that in public situations people are motivated by impressing others, but in private situations that is not necessary because there is nobody to form an opinion about the consumer, besides the consumer him/herself.

Even though Dolich (1969) and Ross (1971) did not find support for their hypotheses, additional research has been done on the relationship between product conspicuousness and self-congruity theory. For example, Graeff (1996) found that the ideal self-image has a larger effect on consumers evaluations of publicly consumed brands (in support of Dolich's (1969) and Ross' (1971) hypotheses), but that the actual and ideal self-image have equal effects on consumers' evaluations of privately consumed brands (not in support of Dolich's (1969) and Ross' (1971) hypotheses).

A consumer's consumption behavior in public or social situations may be further influenced by the people he/she surrounds him/herself with. According to Venkatesan (1966), individuals' product choices may be affected by conformity and reactance to group pressure. Similarly, Bourne (1965) found that the purchase of certain products and brands may be influenced by reference groups. Reference groups can be defined as "actual or imaginary institutions, individuals, or groups conceived of having significant relevance upon an individual's evaluations, aspirations, or behavior" (Park & Lessig, 1977). Based on the degree of an individual's membership to a group, reference groups can be divided into membership and aspirational groups (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). Membership groups are the reference groups to which the individual already belongs, for example his/her family or group of colleagues at work. Aspirational groups are the reference groups to which the individual would like to or aspires to belong. According to Escalas and Bettman (2003), individuals aspiring to become part of a group they do not belong to yet, may try to transfer associations to themselves which they know the aspirational group favors. For example, if a consumer wishes to be more carefree, and he/she sees carefree people wearing a certain brand's clothing, he/she may choose to wear that particular brand's clothing in an attempt to assign the carefree associations of that brand to him/herself.

2.5 Self-Congruity and Social Media

The public vs private consumption situation setting becomes even less obvious when the use of the internet and social media is involved. The presentation of the self online has been investigated since the early days of the Internet (McKenna & Bargh, 2000). However, it is still questionable whether people represent their actual self online, a more idealized version of themselves, or both (Bargh, McKenna, & Fitzsimons, 2002). If people are using editing tools (e.g. filters) to enhance their appearance on the content they publish, is it possible that they also prefer to surround themselves with some products over others when posting them online? For example, would they choose a more sophisticated brand to share on social media, rather than a brand they usually consume if they would not be posting anything, in order to appear better? Would they choose to buy a product congruent with their self-concept to post on social media, or would that not play an important role?

Social networking sites (SNSs), such as Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter, constitute more than a quarter of internet traffic, and attract more than 90% of teenage and young adult users (Trusov, Bodapati, & Bucklin, 2010). In spite of the fact that it is not always easy to measure the return on investment of social media marketing (Hoffman & Fodor, 2010) consumer engagement with a use of social media has become a part of organizations' strategic planning (Tuten & Solomon, 2017). Therefore, it becomes relevant to investigate how people represent themselves online, in particular, in the context of SNSs (Hollenbeck & Kaikati, 2012).

2.5.1 Influence of SNS on Actual vs Ideal

Nadkarni and Hoffmann (2012) suggest two basic social needs when using SNSs: the need for belonging and the need for self-presentation. The need for belonging may be reflected on Instagram through the motive of coolness/popularity. In a study by Sheldon and Bryant (2016), the dimension "coolness", including factors such as "to become popular" and "to self-promote", was found to be a significant motive to use Instagram. Moreover, social support of others can positively affect one's self-esteem and self-worth either through "likes" or "comments" on Instagram (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Thus, self-enhancement by representing a more idealized self may take place to get social support and satisfy the need for belonging.

In addition, Back et al. (2010) covered two hypotheses about virtual identity and how people present themselves: the idealized virtual identity hypothesis and the extended real-life hypothesis. The ideal virtual identity hypothesis states that Facebook users' profiles represent idealized information that does not reflect users' real personalities, whereas the extended real-life hypothesis proposes that Facebook users' profiles communicate the users' real personalities. The results of the study by Back et al. (2010) show that individuals present their actual- rather than ideal self on Facebook. As an explanation, the authors suggest that it is hard for individuals to maintain their idealized identity online, because friends see each other's posts online and, therefore, might question the trustworthiness of the information, provided by the user, if it does not correspond to the actual image of the person.

However, other researchers suggest that SNSs are used for personal value reinforcement and self-promotion instead (Sheldon & Bryant, 2016), especially by users with narcissistic features (Moon et al., 2016). Narcissists wish to be perceived in a positive light, which explains why they use Instagram in an effort to appear "cool." For example, narcissists post and manipulate specific photos to make themselves and their lives appear to be in a certain way, which differs from the actual situation (Sheldon & Bryant, 2016). In addition, according to Watson and Watts (2001) individuals with neurotic features tend to have larger distance between their actual- and ideal self and present themselves in ways that are incongruent to their own self-perceptions, suggesting that they may present idealized selves online (Seidman, 2013). In addition, the premises to talk about the "Facebook-self" and the "false Facebook-self" already exist, with a growing phenomenon of some users representing an image, substantially deviating from their true one (Gil-Or, Levi-Belz, & Turel, 2015). Therefore, the existing data on the issue is rather controversial.

2.5.2 Extended-Self in a Digital World

According to Belk (1988), "knowingly or unknowingly, intentionally or unintentionally, we regard our possessions as parts of ourselves". He noted that our possessions may represent the extended self of a person. The main features of the extended self are our body, internal processes, ideas, and experiences, and those persons, places, and things to which we feel attached. In his more recent research, Belk (2013) claims that with the creation of digital technologies, "the possibilities for self-extension have never been so extensive". Thus, he suggested updating his old concept of the extended self to the fact that digital technologies are changing consumer behavior (Belk, 2013).

Belk (1988) noted that possessions comprising the extended self serve not only as cues for others to form impressions about us but also as markers for individual and collective memory. Both the objects we preserve and the memories associated with them were described as self-enhancing and nostalgic. One important change of the digital self is that individuals continue to leave traces of their consumption, and our private possessions become visible online (Belk, 2013). This can have specific influence on consumer behavior in SNSs. However, this has yet to be thoroughly researched and further studies are needed to evaluate the effects of extended self on consumer behavior in SNSs better.

3. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the conceptual framework and hypotheses that will serve as a base for our research.

3.1 Model

Figure 1 represents the conceptual framework that we would like to study. Based on the literature review in Chapter 2, we that assume actual and ideal self-congruence have an effect on brand attitude. However, depending on the type of situation a brand or product is used in (i.e. public, private, or private with social media), the self-congruity effect may vary. The framework illustrates the self-congruity effect on brand attitude moderated by the proposed usage situations.
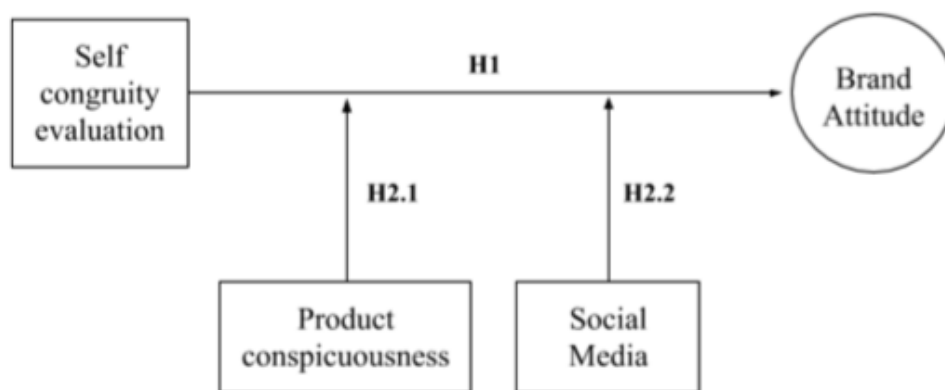
Figure 1 Conceptual Model

3.2 Hypotheses

Based on the research model presented above, we propose 3 hypotheses. The first hypothesis looks into the effect of self-congruity on brand attitude without any moderators. We then explore 2 more hypotheses to study the effects of potential moderators (i.e. public, private and private with social media) on this relationship.

3.2.1 Self-Congruity and Brand Attitude

Attitudes are "learned predispositions to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object" (Fishbein & Azjen, 1975, p. 6) and guide people's

thoughts, affect their feelings and influence their (consumption) behavior (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010). Therefore, it is important for marketers and brands to study how consumer attitudes are formed as it influences consumers' purchasing intentions and consequently the success of brands. Moreover, brands can use their positioning to create competitive advantages in the minds of consumers (Keller, 1993). Understanding how self-congruity influences consumers' brand attitude affects the way brand communication messages should be written (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). To contribute to the existing literature, we would therefore like to start our research by investigating the relationship between self-congruity and brand attitudes further.

According to psychologists, people aim to generally preserve a positive self-concept (Brown, Collins, & Schmidt, 1988). Therefore, it is likely that people will evaluate those brands or products positively, which give them a positive feeling. This would be independent of whether it will help them maintain or enhance their self-concept as both can help consumers elicit positive feelings about themselves.

According to Sirgy (1985), when both actual- and ideal self-congruity are high, a consumer is motivated to purchase a product. This is due to the fact that in this particular situation, both the consumer's need for self-consistency and self-esteem are satisfied. However, if the product is congruent with only one self (either actual or idea), it may create a conflict in purchase motivation, resulting in only one of the two purchase motivations being satisfied and causing a self-inconsistency or self-abasement problem (Sirgy, 1985). Even so, instead of investigating this further and treating the self-congruity constructs as additive, most researchers have treated the constructs separately. We would like to develop a further understanding of how the self-congruity constructs taken together influence consumers' brand attitude. In our analyses we will also test for the individual effects of actual- and ideal self-congruity. However, since the effect for total self-congruity is expected to be larger, we will base our hypotheses on the additive effect. Our first hypothesis looks as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Self-Congruity has an effect on consumers' brand attitudes.

3.2.2 Consumption Situation

A person can assume different roles depending on the situation he or she is in (Graeff, 1997). Someone can be (but does not have to be) each of the following: a father (mother), a brother (sister), a son (daughter), a husband (wife), a friend, a businessman (woman), etc. However, different situations may call for a person to act differently depending on the role in that

situation or moment. For example, when considering a dinner in a restaurant, a parent will likely behave differently when going out with his or her children (taking on a more responsible and care-taking role) than if that same person goes out with his or her friends instead (taking on a less responsible and care-taking role). Thus, in different situations a person will likely behave in ways that are consistent and appropriate with his or her role in that specific situation. Moreover, if people behave differently depending on the role they assume, it is probable that their self-concept for these roles varies as well. For example, someone may feel very competent and confident at work. However, this same person may feel a lot less competent and confident at home as a partner or parent.

As consumers in specific situations, people can use their choice of products and brands to communicate to others that they are behaving in the way they think they ought to be in a particular situation (Graeff, 1997). Hence, the situation a product will be used in can influence a consumer's product or brand choice. For the next hypotheses, we will investigate how three different consumption situations (i.e. public, private, and private with social media) affect the self-congruity effect.

Consumption Situation: Public vs Private

Product conspicuousness (private vs public) has been researched before as a moderator for the self-congruity effect (e.g. Dolich, 1969; Ross, 1971; Graeff, 1996). Socially consumed products are those that we consume or use when others are around us and privately consumed products are those that we consume when we are alone.

Dolich (1969) and Ross (1971) expected the ideal self-image to have a larger effect on publicly consumed products and the actual self-image to have a larger effect on privately consumed products. However, neither of the researchers found support for their hypotheses. Nevertheless, studying conspicuousness as a characteristic of a situation rather than of a product, Graeff (1996) did find some support for conspicuousness moderating the self-congruity effect. Rather than categorizing products into either conspicuous or inconspicuous goods, Graeff (1996) argued that a product can be both and that it is the situation in which you use a product that varies in conspicuousness.

If one product can be both, how does consumers' purchasing behavior change for public consumption situations? Is the self-congruity effect stronger in a public situation compared to

a private one, when the person is unobserved by others? There are some important differences in consumer behavior when others are present.

The consumption choices we make as consumers are influenced by our expectations of how others will evaluate our choices, because we want to leave favorable impressions (e.g. Ratner & Kahn, 2002; Belk, 1988; Ariely & Levav, 2000). In fact, this effect seems to influence people to the extent that they buy products they would not normally choose, because of the anticipated judgement of others, even though they know that these non-preferred products will give them less enjoyment (Ratner & Kahn, 2002). Thus, people perceive social pressure when it comes to the purchasing of publicly consumable goods.

Moreover, according to identity theory "individuals participate in the establishment and maintenance of identities" (Burke, 1980), where identities are "social products that are formed, maintained, and confirmed" through different processes (Burke & Reitzes, 1991). That said, individuals initiate behaviors that maintain the congruity between their identity and social evaluations (Burke & Reitzes, 1981), which may be done through consuming products that are congruent with individual's self. In addition, affect control theory states that individuals tend to "behave within the framework of their identities" and confirm their identities by behaving in accordance with their social roles (Heise, 1979). People may change their consumer behavior, anticipating entering a certain social situation (Aaker, 1999), and may want to appear and behave in accordance with their social role, which also supports the effect of congruity on consumer behavior in the situation of the presence of others.

As we can see, self-congruity seems to affect consumers' behavior more in conspicuousness situations, when people are observed by others and may thus communicate something (i.e. values or status) to them through their consumption choices. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2.1*: The effect of self-congruity on brand attitudes is stronger for publicly consumed brands than for privately consumed brands.*

Consumption Situation: Private with social media influence

To complete the private vs public consumption situation with more recent social changes associated with digital transformation, it would be interesting to investigate how social networking sites (SNSs) influence consumers' behavior.

The difference between public and private consumption situations is rather obvious as this depends on the presence of others. However, with the increasing presence of SNSs in our lives, how private are private situations really? For example, in a situation where the conditions of a privately consumed product are followed (i.e. the consumer is alone, not observed by others and is not expected to be observed at any point of the consumption cycle); is it still a private situation if the consumer has taken a picture of the product and posted it on social media? Or, does this become a public consumption situation as the consumer's followers observe this otherwise private situation?

On the one hand, users may be careful with representing their ideal self on Facebook, because friends might question the trustworthiness of the information (Back et al., 2010). In fact, documentation of social events and sharing it with friends and family was among the main reasons for people to post on social media (Sheldon & Bryant, 2016). Thus, they are more likely to demonstrate their actual self, as they are already a member of this group. In addition, individuals with self-verification tendencies are more likely to maintain consistency with their self-concept. Therefore, they form connections to the brands, used by their membership reference group, to which friends and family following the user belong (Escalas & Bettman, 2003).

On the other hand, although Facebook friendships are usually grounded in offline relationships (Hollenbeck & Kaikati, 2012), most of them can be characterized by "weak ties" (Trusov et al., 2010) and part of a person's "extended social network" (Boyd & Ellison, 2009). As a result, not all "friends" know the user well, which leaves users the possibility to present a more idealized version of themselves with a relatively low risk of social sanction (Hollenbeck & Kaikati, 2012). For example, friends may be aware of financial difficulties of a user, and him/her posting photos in expensive cars and with luxurious accessories may become the source of jokes or judgment. However, a platform such as Instagram implies the concept of followers, who might be totally unfamiliar with the subscriber. This allows users, especially individuals with self-enhancement goals, to achieve their need to look better to themselves and others. They can relate to their aspirational group through forming connections to the brands the members of this group would use (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). In addition, people may want to demonstrate their ideal self online to get the positive feedback from their followers, which would increase their self-esteem (Valkenburg, Peter, & Schouten, 2006).

Building on prior research, it is expected that self-congruity influences the attitude towards certain brands when publishing the product on social media occurs. SNSs make the private consumption situation publicly available, assigning it with features (e.g. public demonstration of the brand) specific for public consumption. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2.2 The effect of self-congruity on brand attitudes is stronger for privately consumed brand when social media is present than for privately consumed brands without social media.

4. Research Design and Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to explain how we planned and conducted our study to answer the research question proposed in chapter 1. We will first describe the choice of our research design. Then, we will describe the methodology used to conduct our experiment, including a description of our procedure, sample, and measures.

4.1 Research Design

The *research design* summarizes the way in which we planned to answer our research question. It includes elements such as the purpose of the research, the sources used to collect all the necessary data as well as the research design's constraints (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

The purpose of our study was to find out how the self-congruity effect on consumers' brand attitudes varies depending on the usage situation. We hoped to find a causal relationship between consumers' self-congruity evaluation and their brand attitude as well as varying effects based on different usage situations. Therefore, we executed an explanatory research which allowed us to study whether any causal relationships were present (Saunders et al., 2009).

Similar to other research on self-congruity theory, we followed a deductive approach, which suggests to study and analyze existing theories first as input for one's hypotheses, followed by the development of a suitable research strategy to test the hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2009). On the contrary, an inductive approach suggests to collect data first and create theory based on the results obtained (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.1.1 Research Strategy

The research strategy represents the way in which data will be collected. According to Saunders et al. (2009) there are many types of research strategy such as experiments, surveys, case studies, action research, grounded theory, ethnography, and archival research. All of these methods have their own benefits (as well as downsides) which must be considered on a case by case basis when selecting the right strategy for a study.

For the purpose of this research, we decided to perform a survey based experiment. The objective of an experiment is to study causal relationships (Saunders et al., 2009), which is why we thought this approach to be the most suitable for our research. Moreover, the majority of research on the self-congruity effect has been done through experiments. By using a similar strategy to existing research, we hoped to find significant results and to contribute further to the literature. Furthermore, the survey approach allowed us to collect relatively large amounts of data at a low cost and in a short amount of time, which benefited our time constraints and limited financial resources.

4.2 Data Collection and Procedure

An online survey was created to examine the moderating effects of different usage situations on the relationship between consumers' self-image evaluation and their brand attitude (cf. Appendix B). The survey was administered through Qualtrics and distributed via social media in international student communities and groups.

The survey is based on two experiments conducted by Graeff (1997), who investigated the moderating effects of consumption situations on the self-congruity effect using different brands of beer. The results were inconclusive for consumption conspicuousness, but supportive of a dynamic situational ideal self-image. To further build on Graeff's research, we replicated his experiments to a large extent to see if we get similar results. Together with our supervisor, Professor Magne Supphellen, we made some adaptations such as changing the brands used and incorporating different scales to increase the validity and reliability of our results.

To simplify the data collection process, a structured survey containing only closed-ended questions was used. The data was collected cross-sectionally, measuring the data from our sample at a specific point in time.

The survey consisted of several sections. First, respondents were randomly assigned to one of three conditions (i.e. public, private or private with social media) and presented with a respective stimulus (cf. section 4.2.3). Our experiment was not brand specific, so respondents were asked to choose a beer brand of their liking, which they thought would be most suitable for the specific situation given in the stimulus. Respondents were encouraged to choose a brand themselves to ensure that they had enough knowledge about the brand to answer the

subsequent questions. Then, after choosing a brand, respondents were asked to indicate their familiarity with and attitude towards the chosen brand. The second section of the survey consisted of questions about the respondents' self-congruity (both actual self-congruity and ideal self-congruity) with regards to the brand. In section three, respondents were asked questions about their product involvement. Finally, the last section checked for socially desirable responding and registered demographic data about respondents.

Respondents in the third condition, private with social media, were asked additional questions to measure their social media familiarity and usage.

4.2.1 Choice of Product Categories and Brands

We chose beer as the product category for our experiment for a number of reasons. Anticipating that our sample would primarily consist of university students or recent graduates (cf. section 4.3), it was important to choose a product that they are familiar with. What is more, beer is a product category that depends heavily on image appeals and university students tend to have relatively strong brand images of beer. Allison & Uhl (1964) found that participants of their experiments did not distinguish taste differences among various brands of beer, but labels and related associations were very influential on their evaluations. Therefore, the symbolic value of a product, such as the brand name and the story behind it, make beer a suitable product for the experiment. In addition, the product had to be suitable, realistic and equally important for each of the conditions. Beer is a product that may be consumed both in private and in public. Finally, successful experiments on self-congruity theory have previously been conducted using beer as the product category (Graeff, 1997).

Respondents could choose from a variety of beer brands, including internationally recognized as well as several local European brands. Respondents also had the option to freely choose any other beer brand they preferred over the ones in the provided list through the "other:" option. They were encouraged to choose from a large list of brands to ensure their familiarity with the brand, which was important for several reasons. First, familiarity would increase the quality of our results. When being asked about self-congruity, respondents were supposed to compare their self-concept to the brand image. If they did not know much about a brand, it would be difficult to answer these questions. This way, even respondents with low involvement for the product category were able to pick a brand they were familiar with.

Moreover, by asking respondents questions about a brand they were familiar with, response rates were likely higher than for questions about unknown brands.

4.2.2 Choice of Social Media Channel

For the private situation with social media, it was important to choose the platform very carefully to set the condition as close as possible to a real-life situation. For this purpose, three of the most popular social media platforms were examined for their suitability: Facebook and Instagram (We Are Social et al., 2018).

Instagram was chosen as it has attracted SNS users to present themselves via a variety of photographs and short videos, making the user interface of the platform very easy (Moon, Lee, Lee, Choi, & Sung, 2016). The distinctive feature of Instagram is that text-only content cannot be created on this platform, which implies that the respondents in the private with social media situation would know they would have to post a picture with a brand being visible on it. In addition, Instagram is only accessible via mobile phones, which "potentially creates different user behavior and motivation compared to other SNSs" (Lee, Lee, Moon, & Sung, 2015). The respondents would imagine themselves in a more spontaneous situation, compared to other platforms.

A study from Lee et al. (2015) indicated that self-expression and social interaction are the main motivations for using Instagram. This suggests that Instagram users use pictures of all sorts of things to present their actual and ideal selves, which is another argument to choose this platform (Lee et al., 2015). Instagram is more preferable, as on this platform the picture (meaning the product with the brand) is in the center of attention in relation to the text, while on Facebook this relationship is vice versa.

4.2.3 Stimuli

Participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions. Each condition represented a different usage situation: public, private, and private with social media.

Participants in the public usage situation condition were told to consider the following: "*Imagine that you are out with your friends at a restaurant, bar, lounge, or other public place. And, you are considering ordering a beer. Imagine that you will be consuming that beer in a very public situation. That is, there your friends will see you while you consume this beer.*"

Participants in the private usage situation condition were told to consider the following: "*Imagine that you are considering buying a beer so that you can consume it at home. Imagine that you will be consuming this beer in privacy. That is, there will be no one else present while you consume this beer. Imagine you are purchasing this beer so that you can consume it while watching a rented movie, your favorite TV show, or even a televised sporting event.*"

Participants in the private with social media usage situation condition were told to consider the following: "*Imagine that you are considering buying a beer so that you can consume it at home. Imagine that you will be consuming this beer in privacy. That is, there will be no one else present while you consume this beer. Imagine you are purchasing this beer so that you can consume it while watching a movie, your favorite TV show, or even a televised sporting event. However, you know that you might share a post on Instagram about your relaxing evening alone, where the beer will be visible to your followers.*"

Very similar situation' descriptions for private and public conditions have already been successfully used by Graeff (1997), therefore it was decided to adopt them for our research. For the social media condition, the private consumption situation was modified to imitate a real case, where a respondent would use Instagram in a private usage situation. A possible limitation could be that posting on social media is rather a spontaneous decision. Therefore, asking respondents to buy a beer while anticipating posting a photography on Instagram about it is a rather unrealistic situation. However, in order to keep all three conditions balanced, it was decided to leave the consumption situation for the grocery store with the note that respondents might share a post on Instagram later, making them aware of the duality of the condition.

4.2.4 Preparing the data for Analysis

After collecting enough responses to our survey, we exported the data into SPSS to start analysing our results. However, first we reviewed the entries in the dataset to remove any responses that could harm the reliability of our analyses. 42 responses were registered as incomplete and therefore completely removed. Then, 3 more responses were completely removed, because they were collected during previewing of the survey where we checked whether all questions were displayed correctly (one preview per condition). Next, we reviewed the dataset to check for any careless responses. However, we were not able to detect any.

4.3 Sample

Our final dataset consisted of 116 respondents. Respondents were equally divided among conditions with 39 respondents (33.6%) exposed to the public stimulus, 38 (32.8%) exposed to the private stimulus and 39 (33.6%) exposed to the private with social media stimulus.

The sample consisted of 63 male (54.3%) and 52 female (44.8%) respondents, and 1 (0.9%) respondent who identified as 'other'. Moreover, 107 respondents (92.2%) had finished or were studying either a Bachelor (26.7%) or Master (65.5%) degree at the time. Of 4 respondents (3.4%) the highest level of education was high school and 5 respondents (4.3%) had finished or were pursuing a PhD at the time. Regarding the age distribution, 58 respondents (50%) were aged 18-24 years old, 44 respondents (37.9%) were aged 25-34 years old, and 14 respondents (12%) were aged between 35-64 years old. Finally, respondents' country of residence reflects the international level of the CEMS network through which the survey was primarily distributed. The majority of respondents resided in either Norway (15.5%), The Netherlands (16.4%), The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (15.5%) or Italy (10.3%) (cf. Appendix C).

Overall, 92.2% of respondents were currently at university or had finished a Bachelor and/or Master's degree. Moreover, 87.9% of respondents were between 18 and 34 years old. Thus, similar to what we anticipated, we assume to have collected data from primarily university students and recent graduates.

4.4 Measures

The following section provides an overview of the different variables we studied as well as an overview of how we planned to measure them.

4.4.1 Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

The dependent variable in our study was Brand Attitude. To measure respondents' overall brand attitude, we adopted the brand attitude measure used by Helgeson and Supphellen (2004). Respondents were asked to agree/disagree with the statements *"I like this brand"*, *"This is a good brand"* and *"I have a favorable impression of this brand"* on a 7-point Likert scale.

4.4.2 Independent Variable: Self-Congruity Evaluation

Traditionally self-congruity is measured by calculating the discrepancy ratio between respondents' product-user image and their self-concept. However, several issues were found with this approach and researchers have argued that this approach does not measure self-congruity accurately (Sirgy et al., 1997). To avoid these issues and increase the predictability of our scale, we therefore used Sirgy et al.'s (1997) global measurement approach.

To measure the congruity between respondents' self-concept and brand X (i.e. the brand each respondent had chosen at the beginning of the survey), respondents were asked to indicate their agreement/disagreement with the following questions on a 7-point Likert scale (ideal self-congruity items are shown between brackets): *"Brand X is consistent with how I (would like to) see myself"*, *"Brand X is consistent with how I (would like to) see myself"*, *"I am quite similar (I would like to be perceived as similar) to the typical customer of this brand"*.

To avoid any carry over effects between actual- and ideal self-congruity (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004), the questions about actual self-congruity and ideal self-congruity were randomized.

4.4.3 Participants' Background: Beer Brand Knowledge, Beer Involvement and Beer Consumption

Besides demographic information such as age, gender, education and country of residence, we also recorded respondents' Beer Brand Knowledge, Beer Involvement and Beer Consumption to see whether the chosen product category was relevant to the respondents of our study and whether respondents had enough knowledge to adequately answer the survey questions.

Beer brand knowledge was measured by asking respondents about their brand familiarity and brand experience. The questions were adopted from Graeff (1997) and consisted of the questions *"How familiar are you with Brand X?"* and *"How much experience have you had with Brand X?"* on a 7-point Likert scale.

Beer involvement was added to measure the importance of the product category to the respondents (Mittal, 1995). A 7 point Likert scale was adopted from Bues et al. (2017) and included the questions *"Beer is a topic that I could talk about for a long time"*, *"I understand the different types of beer well enough to evaluate the brands"*, *"Beer is a subject that interests me"*, *"I have a preference for one or more types of beer"*, *"I am not at all familiar with*

different styles of beer", *"Beer is a product that I have little interest in"* and *"There are specific breweries I regularly purchase beer from"*. To avoid response bias, we included positively as well as negatively phrased questions.

Beer Consumption was documented to measure how much beer participants drink a week. Participants had 7 options including *"None"*, *"0-0.5"*, *"0.5-1.0"*, *"1.0-2.0"*, *"2.0-4.0"*, *"4.0-6.0"*, and *"6.0 or more"*. The unit asked was in liters.

4.4.4 Brand Evaluation: Quality and Taste

Besides participants' brand knowledge and product category involvement, we also measured their quality perception of the chosen brand. To measure this, participants were asked to respond to the following questions on a 7-point Likert scale: *"Brand X is a high quality brand"* and *"I like the taste of Brand X a lot"*.

4.4.5 Participants' Background: Familiarity with and Usage of Instagram

In the third condition, private with social media, respondents were asked additional questions to measure how familiar they were with Instagram and how frequently they used the platform in everyday life (cf. Appendix D).

First, respondents were asked to evaluate their general familiarity with Instagram on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = very familiar, 7 = not at all familiar). In addition, they were asked on a 7-point Likert scale to indicate the frequency of which they visited Instagram (1 = almost every hour, 7 = never) as well as the likelihood that they would post something on the platform (1 = extremely likely, 7 = extremely unlikely) and the frequency with which they usually did it (1 = multiple times a day, 7 = never).

Finally, as we were interested in investigating consumers' behavior in different types of situations, we asked respondents about the status of their Instagram account (1 = public, 2 = private) and the number of followers on their Instagram account.

4.4.6 Socially Desirable Responding

The Crowne-Marlowe social desirability scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) was included at the end of the questionnaire to find out to what extent respondents tried to provide answers in

a socially desirable way. According to King & Bruner (2000), the "social desirability bias is considered to be one of the most common biases affecting the results of survey research". Getting a high score on this scale means that the respondent is very concerned about social approval and may not answer survey questions truthfully. Consequently, the responses may not represent the real picture accurately (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960).

A short version of the Crowne-Marlowe scale was used to measure respondents' tendency for socially desirable responding. Respondents were asked 13 yes or no questions (cf. Appendix E).

4.4.7 Reliability of Constructs

Measurement reliability refers to the precision of a measurement (Reis & Judd, 2000). When reliability is high, the data obtained will be consistent and unlikely influenced by extraneous factors. For example, if reliability is high, it does not matter who asks the question, when or where the questions are asked, because the results should be consistent regardless due to the robustness of the questions (Saunders et al., 2009).

Testing for reliability is particularly important when creating indexed variables. To create an indexed variable different variables are taken together and merged into one single variable. With indexed variables it is important to test for internal consistency, because the variables that go into the indexed variable need to be summable in order for the indexed variable to indicate the same results. A common way to test for this is by calculating Cronbach's alpha, an internal reliability measure which indicates consistency among variables. Cronbach's alpha is a coefficient that can take a value between 0 and 1, with 0.7 being the minimum generally accepted level (Nunnally, 1978). An overview of indexed variables and their corresponding Cronbach's alpha can be found in Table 1. All values of Cronbach's alpha are above 0.7, meaning that the variables are valid.

Indexed Variable	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Brand Knowledge	0.942	2
Brand Attitude	0.889	3
Total SC	0.927	6
Beer Involvement	0.926	7
Socially Desirable Responding	0.701	13

Table 1 Reliability of Constructs

The indexed variable Total SC was computed by merging the items that measured both actual- and ideal self-congruity. Originally, we were interested in also studying the separate effects of actual- and ideal self-congruity on brand attitude. However, initial analyses showed that the results of our tests were all inconclusive when separating the variables. Consequently, additional tests were done, including a correlation analysis, which indicated that the variables are too similar and cannot be split due to a lack of discriminant validity (cf. Appendix F), it was chosen to continue the analyses with only Total SC as principal independent variable.

4.5 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

A summary of our data is presented in Table 2. A detailed overview of the descriptive statistics with values for each question, instead of indexed values, can be found in Appendix G.

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
BrandAttitude	116	1	5	2.10	.875
TotalSC	116	1	7	3.74	1.073
BrandKnowledge	116	1	7	2.67	1.618
BeerInvolvement	116	1	6	3.31	1.486
BeerQuality	116	1	6	2.25	1.054
BeerTaste	116	1	6	1.84	1.010
Valid N (listwise)	116				

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics

Besides descriptive statistics, we also created a correlation table to see whether there were any relationships between the variables in our dataset, and if so, what the strength and direction of those correlations was (cf. Table 3). The Pearson Correlation, which varies between -1 and 1,

provides an indication of whether a correlation between variables is present. If there is no correlation, the Pearson Correlation takes a value of 0. The further away from 0 the Pearson Correlation is (i.e. in the direction of -1 or 1), the stronger the correlation, and thus relationship between variables.

As can be seen from Table 3, the correlation between variables in our dataset varies. There is a strong correlation between Brand Attitude (our dependent variable) and the variables Brand Knowledge ($r = 0.720$) and Beer Quality ($r = 0.569$) and Beer Taste ($r = 0.602$). Brand Attitude is also positively correlated to the variables Total SC ($r = 0.312$) and Beer Involvement ($r = 0.275$). Moreover, Total SC is positively correlated to Brand Knowledge ($r = 0.264$) and Beer Quality ($r = 0.281$). Brand Knowledge is furthermore strongly correlated to Beer Involvement ($r = 0.442$), Beer Quality ($r = 0.439$) and Beer Taste ($r = 0.631$). Beer involvement is positively correlated to Beer Quality ($r = 0.211$) and Beer Taste ($r = 0.367$). What is more, Beer Quality is strongly correlated to Beer Taste ($r = 0.552$). Finally, based on the Pearson Correlation there appears to be a positive correlation between Total SC and the variables Beer Involvement ($r = 0.165$) and Beer Taste ($r = 0.135$). However, because the significance level is above 0.05 ($r = 0.077$ and $r = 0.148$ respectively), this effect is insignificant, and we cannot conclude whether there is a correlation between Total SC and Beer Involvement or Total SC and Beer Taste.

The correlations between Brand Attitude and Brand Knowledge, Brand Attitude and Beer Taste, Brand Knowledge and Beer Taste are above 0.6. This means that multicollinearity may be present in our dataset. However, since the relationships affected by multicollinearity do not include our independent variable Total SC, we did not take any counter measures since we expected our results to be unlikely affected by it.

Correlations

		BrandAttitude	TotalSC	BrandKnowledge	BeerInvolvement	BeerQuality	BeerTaste
BrandAttitude	Pearson Correlation	1	.312**	.720**	.275**	.569**	.602**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.000	.003	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116
TotalSC	Pearson Correlation	.312**	1	.264**	.165	.281**	.135
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.004	.077	.002	.148
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116
BrandKnowledge	Pearson Correlation	.720**	.264**	1	.442**	.439**	.631**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.004		.000	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116
BeerInvolvement	Pearson Correlation	.275**	.165	.442**	1	.211*	.367**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.077	.000		.023	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116
BeerQuality	Pearson Correlation	.569**	.281**	.439**	.211*	1	.552**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.000	.023		.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116
BeerTaste	Pearson Correlation	.602**	.135	.631**	.367**	.552**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.148	.000	.000	.000	
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3 Correlation Analysis

4.5.1 Beer Brand Knowledge, Beer Involvement and Beer Consumption

Beer Brand Knowledge was measured to see whether participants had enough knowledge about the chosen brand to be able to answer the survey questions. The majority of our sample was very familiar, familiar or somewhat familiar with the chosen brand (cf. Table 2 and Appendix H). This is an acceptable amount for our thesis and therefore we conclude that respondents had enough knowledge about the brand to be able to answer the questions.

Beer Involvement was measured to see whether the product category, beer, was personally relevant to respondents. The mean value for Beer Involvement was 3.31, which on the 7-point Likert scale used corresponds to "Somewhat agree". As the majority of respondents responded between "Strongly agree" and "Neither agree nor disagree", we conclude that the chosen product category was relevant enough to our sample for the purpose of this thesis.

Finally, the majority of respondents (66.4%) drank a moderate amount of 0.5-2.0 liters of beer a week; 11 respondents (9.5%) did not drink any beer at all, and 24.1% of respondents drank over 2.0 liters of beer a week (cf. Appendix I).

4.5.2 Beer Quality and Taste

On average respondents evaluated the chosen Beer brands' Quality as high and the chosen Beer brands' Taste as very high (cf. Appendix J and K). Thus, participants primarily chose brands which they liked or to which they held positive attitudes. This is in line with the observations from Table 3, which shows that there is a strong positive correlation between Brand Attitude and the variables Beer Quality (r = 0.569) and Beer Taste (r = 0.602).

4.5.3 Social Media Usage and Familiarity

In the third condition, private with social media, respondents were asked additional questions about their Social Media Familiarity and Usage. Detailed results can be found in Appendix L.

69.2% of the respondents were familiar or very familiar with the platform, which is a very good result. 64.1% of our respondents visit Instagram once a day or more, with 53.8% of respondents doing it several times a day. Moreover, 10.3% indicated to be "not at all familiar" with Instagram, and 23.1% never visit the platform. Overall, we can say that our sample was familiar enough with Instagram to be able to answer all of the survey questions. Nevertheless, our results may be affected by the lack of familiarity of some people in our sample.

59% of the respondents were likely to post something on Instagram, while 28.2% of respondents were "Extremely unlikely" to post something. We assume that the respondents who would not post pictures on Instagram likely go on Instagram to see others' pictures without engaging themselves on the platform. Moreover, the majority of respondents who engaged themselves on Instagram post at least once a month (56.4 %) of which 20.5%% post once a week, 15.4% post multiple times a week, and 2.6% post multiple times a day.

Finally, respondents were also asked about their Instagram account status. 53.8% of respondents had a private account, which indicates that the majority of their followers are likely to be part of the respondents' membership groups. 23.1% did not own an Instagram account. Moreover, the majority of respondents (61.5%) had fewer than 500 followers.

It should be noted that 23.1% claim that they did not have an account on Instagram. It was decided to still keep their answers, as this number is not too big and they could hypothetically imagine themselves in a situation of posting something on social media.

4.5.4 Socially Desirable Responding

A summary of the results of the Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale are shown in Table 4. Just under half of the questions (49.2%) were answered socially desirable, whereas 50.8% percent of the questions were answered socially undesirable (cf. Appendix E for a detailed overview of each response). Given that more responses were recorded socially undesirable, we assume that the results are fairly reliable and respondents were not trying to complete the survey in a socially desirable way. Nevertheless, the difference in answers that are socially desirable and socially undesirable is quite low and a greater difference would preferred for a higher reliability of our results.

Sum of total answers:	
Socially Desirable Responding	742 (49.2%)
Socially Undesirable Responding	766 (50.8%)

Table 4 SDR Results

5. Results: Tests of Hypotheses

In this chapter we will explain how we tested our hypotheses and review the results. The hypotheses were tested using regression analyses. The numbers shown for the regression analyses include the regression coefficients (β) and significance levels (indicated between brackets). The regression coefficient indicates the effect that an independent variable has on the dependent variable, when all other variables are kept constant (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). An independent effect is present if the regression coefficient is significant.

5.1 Test of Hypothesis 1

According to H1, self-congruity has a positive effect on consumers' brand attitudes. A regression analysis with Brand Attitude as dependent variable and Total SC as independent variable was performed to test H1. Total SC was found to be significantly positively related to Brand Attitude ($\beta = 0.312$, p-value < 0.01) (cf. Appendix M). These findings provide support for H1 and correspond to previous studies that have found similar results (e.g. Sirgy, 1982, Graeff, 1996; Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004).

The effects of Total SC on Brand Attitudes are also supported in Table 3, which shows a positive correlation between the variables ($r = 0.312$, p-value < 0.01).

5.2 Test of Hypothesis 2

H2.1 and H2.2 dealt with the moderating impact of different usage situations on the self-congruity effect. According to H2.1, the self-congruity effect is stronger for publicly consumed brands than for privately consumed brands. In H2.2 it was hypothesized that the self-congruity effect is stronger for privately consumed brands when social media is present than for privately consumed brands without social media. To test the hypotheses, separate regression analyses were performed for each of the different conditions with Brand Attitude as dependent variable and Total SC as independent variable (cf. Appendix M). The results of the regression analyses are summarized in Table 5.

Condition	Regression Coefficient (β)	p-value
Public	0.423	0.007
Private	0.234	0.157
Private with social media	0.374	0.019

Table 5 Summary of Results from Test of Hypothesis 2

The effects of Total SC on Brand Attitudes were found to be strongest in the public condition ($\beta = 0.423$, p-value < 0.01) followed by the private with social media condition ($\beta = 0.374$, p-value < 0.05). Since the self-congruity effect in the private condition was insignificant, we cannot conclude that there is an effect present in this condition. Thus, H2.1 and H2.2 are supported by our results.

5.3 Additional Tests

In addition to the regressions run to test our hypotheses, we conducted further analyses to test for possible moderating factors.

Based on the data in Table 3, we found that there is a strong positive correlation between Brand Attitude and the variables Beer Quality ($r = 0.569$) and Beer Taste ($r = 0.602$). This suggests that the more people evaluate Beer Quality or Beer Taste highly, the more likely they are to hold positive attitudes towards the brand. Therefore, we were interested in seeing whether the effect found in Table 5 was caused solely by the congruity between respondents' self-concept and the brand image they held, or whether this relationship was further affected by their quality and taste perception of the brand.

To test the additional effect of Beer Quality and Beer Taste on the self-congruity effect, we ran another regression analysis with Brand Attitude as dependent variable and Total SC, Beer Quality and Beer Taste as independent variables (cf. Appendix M). Our findings suggest that Beer Taste ($\beta = 0.420$, p-value < 0.01) and Beer Quality ($\beta = 0.288$, p-value < 0.01) are stronger positively related to Brand Attitude than Total SC ($\beta = 0.175$, p-value < 0.05). Moreover, comparing the regression coefficients for Total SC with our previous analysis for H1, we observe that the value has reduced a lot (from $\beta = 0.312$ to $\beta = 0.175$). This suggests

that the self-congruity effect somewhat disappears in the presence of other variables such as Beer Quality and Beer Taste.

To investigate the effect found in the regressions run with Beer Quality and Beer Taste further, we ran another regression including Brand Knowledge as independent variable (cf. Appendix M). Similar to the results with Beer Quality and Beer Taste, the regression coefficient for Brand Knowledge ($\beta = 0.685$, p-value < 0.01) was significantly higher than that of Total SC ($\beta = 0.131$, p-value > 0.05). Moreover, since the self-congruity effect was insignificant in this case (p-value > 0.05), the effect seems to have completely disappeared, supporting our findings in the regression run with Beer Quality and Beer Taste.

Since the independent variables used in the additional regression analysis were strongly positively correlated (cf. Table 3), multicollinearity was a possible problem. Therefore, we included multicollinearity tests to the regression analyses. This provided us with variance inflation factors (VIFs) between 1.075 and 1.533. VIFs range from zero to infinity and indicate how much of the variance of an independent variable can be attributed to other independent variables (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). The VIFs found in our regression are close to zero and below 10, the suggested cut-off point by Neter et al. (1989, p. 409). Consequently, we do not believe the multicollinearity to be large enough to significantly affect our results and it is assumed to not threaten the conclusions from our analyses.

6. Discussion

Self-congruity theory is a much studied construct and includes a variety of hypotheses (e.g. Levy, 1959; Sirgy, 1982; Sirgy et al. 1985; Malhotra, 1988; Graeff, 1996; Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). Moreover, research has highlighted the importance to marketing research for understanding the self-congruity effect and its influence on consumers' behavior. However, the results are controversial and research is undecided as to which variables moderate the self-congruity effect or which type self-congruity effect is more important. What is more, rapid technological developments most likely affect today's consumers' behavior, which consequently influences the self-congruity effect even more.

The objective of our thesis was to further research the self-congruity effect and develop a broader understanding of potential moderating factors influencing the relationship between consumers' self-congruity evaluations and the brand attitudes they hold. With the results of our study we hope to contribute to the existing literature by finding support for results found in previous studies and lessen some of the controversy found in self-congruity literature. Moreover, our study is one of the first to consider social media in connection to self-congruity theory. Our findings also offer some suggestions on how future research on the self-congruity effect may be improved.

6.1 Main Findings

The aim of our thesis was to explore the differential effect self-congruity has on brand attitude in different usage situations: public, private and private with social media usage situations, in particular. The results of our study support prior studies that have found self-congruity to have an effect on brand attitude (H1) (e.g. Sirgy, 1982; Graeff, 1996; Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). Moreover, the self-congruity effect was shown to be strongest in public usage situations (H2.1), followed by private with social media situations (H2.2). However, no support of the self-congruity effect was found for private situations. Finally, when investigating the self-congruity effect on brand attitude together with other variables such as Beer Quality, Beer Taste or Brand Knowledge, the self-congruity effect was found to diminish or even disappear completely.

6.1.1 Product Conspicuousness

Although no significant effects on brand attitude were found for private usage situations, consumers' brand attitude in public- and private with social media situations seem to be affected by the self-congruity effect. A possible explanation for this outcome is that consumers, due to social pressure, are more aware of themselves and their actions, including their consumption behavior, when confronted in situations with other people present. In fact, consumers' consumption choices are influenced by the expectations of how others will evaluate their choices, because they would like to leave favorable impressions (e.g. Ratner & Kahn, 2002; Belk, 1988; Ariely & Levav, 2000). Of course, the social pressure we perceive is not static and depending on for example how familiar we are with or the importance we assign to the people around us, the pressure may vary.

6.1.2 Additional Findings

Besides the hypothesized effects, we also performed additional analyses to discover whether the findings in our study where robust and whether there were additional factors influencing the self-congruity effect that we found. We found that, when measured together with other variables, Total SC influences consumers' brand attitude less than other variables such as Beer Quality, Beer Taste or Beer Brand Knowledge. As a matter of fact, the effect of Total SC disappears in the presence of other variables. It should be noted that these variables affecting the effect of Total SC on brand attitude were strongly positively correlated to brand attitude (cf. Table 3). Thus, besides self-congruity, other factors also influence consumers' attitudes towards brands, which should not be overlooked.

6.2 Theoretical Implications

The objective of our thesis was to develop a further understanding of potential moderating factors influencing the self-congruity effect. Research has investigated the moderating role of product conspicuousness several times (e.g. Dolich, 1969; Ross, 1971; Graeff, 1997), however results were primarily inconclusive. The observations made from our study offer new insights into the potential moderating role of product conspicuousness on self-congruity. Instead of measuring self-congruity separately (i.e. actual vs ideal), we analysed the self-congruity constructs together and found significant results for different usage situations. Moreover, we have added an additional layer of product conspicuousness by including an ambiguous

situation, private with social media. The findings extend upon Graeff's (1997) research that products should not be categorized on their level of product conspicuousness, but usage situations should be instead.

6.3 Practical Implications

The additional findings of our study show that the self-congruity effect disappears when measured together with other variables. Thus, the self-congruity is not as influential as it appeared to be when measured on its own. This indicates the presence of a measurement bias. This implies that it would be incorrect to measure the effects of self-congruity by itself as it can increase the reported self-congruity effect wrongfully. Consequently, we can infer that self-congruity should always be tested together with other attributes to test which variable influences brand attitude the strongest.

Moreover, marketing and brand managers may also find interesting implications from our research. Companies are constantly investigating how they can make their marketing more (cost) efficient (Keller, 1993). Through brand positioning, companies try to appeal to consumers and distinguish themselves from competitors (Kotler & Keller, 2012). When done effectively, brand positioning can clarify to consumers what the brand is/does, the similarities and differences between the brand and its competitors, and why they should buy the brand's products or services (Keller, 2012). Therefore, any knowledge about consumers' purchasing motivation and how to best address them is very valuable for marketing and brand managers as they can use it to optimize their marketing strategy.

Effective brand images are those that are congruent with the self-images of the largest number of consumers. This implies that the development of an effective brand image must be coupled with a consideration of the potential situations in which the product is to be consumed.

Our findings indicate that self-congruity affects consumers' brand attitudes most for products used in public situations, followed by private with social media usage situations. Furthermore, the self-congruity effects disappear in the presence of other attributes. This suggests that marketing and brand managers should investigate in what types of usage situations their products are used and whether consumers value any specific attributes about the brand's product. Based on this, the likelihood of self-congruity being an influential factor on brand attitudes can be predicted. For example, when product quality is an attribute much valued by

consumers, self-congruity will likely not be as influential on brand attitude as perceived quality. In this case, marketing efforts should focus more on perceived quality as opposed to creating self-congruity.

6.4 Limitations

Our study faced several limitations which we will elaborate on in this section. First, a discussion on validity will be presented, followed by an overview of general limitations. Validity is "the extent to which data collection method or methods accurately measure what they were intended to measure" (Saunders et al., 2009). Four types of validity are discussed: internal validity, external validity, construct validity, and statistical conclusion validity.

6.4.1 Internal Validity

According to Saunders et al. (2009), internal validity is "the extent to which the findings can be attributed to the interventions rather than any flaws in the research design". Thus, if internal validity is high, the results can be attributed to the intended interventions to the experiment and not errors in the experiment. There are several threats to internal validity which may affect the results of our study (Saunders et al., 2009). In this section, we will investigate each of the threats further.

The aim of our research was to study the differential self-congruity effects across different usage situations. As such, it did not matter which brands were used in our experiment since we did not take them into account for our analyses. Consequently, respondents were encouraged and free to choose a brand of their liking, which helped us avoid the history threat.

A testing threat occurs when respondents think or feel that the results of the research may affect them, either positively or negatively (Saunders et al., 2009). We only conducted a single survey without any pre- or post-tests. Therefore, respondents did not feel any pressure of retaking tests based on their previous answers. Moreover, respondents accessed the survey through an anonymous link, which provided them with a sense of security since we would not record any of their personal details. Therefore, we believe to have also avoided the testing threat.

Furthermore, since we administered the survey only once per respondent over a very short period of time, without any pre- or post-tests and without additional information provided

throughout the survey, we do not expect respondents to have learned something that may have affected their responses. Therefore, the instrumentation threat was also avoided.

The mortality threat refers to respondents dropping out midway, which may affect the results of a study due to a number of incomplete responses recorded (Saunders et al., 2009). We experienced a considerable number of respondents not completing our survey. However, because we removed all incomplete responses from our dataset (cf. section 4.2.4), we managed to avoid the mortality threat.

In addition, due to the short time frame that respondents were exposed to the survey (approximately 5 to 7 minutes), it is unlikely for them to have physically or psychologically changed in any way that may have affected our results. Thus, also the maturity threat was avoided.

Random assignment ensures that the groups assigned to each condition are equal (Kirk, 1982). In our survey experiment each respondent had an equal probability of being assigned to one of three situations. This way we ensured that there were no systematic differences between the groups. Therefore, using random assignment also contributed to the internal validity of our study.

6.4.2 External Validity

External validity is "the extent to which the research results are generalizable" (Saunders et al., 2009). In other words, to which degree the conclusions in our study would hold for other people in other places and at other times.

The sample chosen for our study has both advantages and disadvantages for external validity. The main advantage is that the sample was collected across different countries, which made it more heterogeneous and culturally diverse. However, these were mostly European countries, therefore the results cannot be generalized on population of America, Africa, Asia and Australia. The main disadvantage is the fact we didn't have enough control over how and where the survey was completed. The respondents could have been tired or distracted, which could influence our results. In other words, a neutral environment was not created for the experiment. In addition, the respondents represented a rather specific group: young, educated people, most of which belong to CEMS international program. Therefore, one must be careful generalizing the results on other age groups or social classes. In particular, this could relate to

results obtained about digital tools and older generation. With all this in mind, we assess the generalizability across people as relatively low. In general, we would access external validity is somewhat satisfactory, as in a lot of academic studies student samples were used without obstruction to external validity.

A big advantage of our research is, however, the high generalizability across situations. Respondents answered the questions about situations they would often encounter in their everyday life. Thus, the study is high in psychological realism - the psychological processes we triggered in our survey-experiment are similar to ones they may encounter in their life (Aronson et.al, 1998).

6.4.3 Construct Validity

Construct validity is *"the extent to which your measurement questions actually measure the presence of those constructs you intended them to measure"* (Saunders et al., 2009). To evaluate the construct validity of our survey we considered face validity, convergent validity and divergent validity.

Face validity is a subjective measure to see whether the questions used seem to reflect what you intended to measure (Trochim, 2006a). This can be done, for example, by looking at the constructs and determining whether they logically make sense. The majority of our questions (cf. section 4.4) used existing scales taken from previous research with only minor adaptations if any at all. Since our measurements were used and tested successfully before, we assume face validity to be relatively high. However, face validity on its own is not sufficient to evaluate construct validity (Trochim, 2006a).

Convergent- and discriminant validity look at the similarities between constructs. Convergent validity indicates whether constructs that should be related to each other, are in fact related. Divergent validity on the other hand, indicates whether constructs that should not be related, are not. To test for convergent- and divergent validity, we ran further correlation analyses. Similar measures should have high correlations, whereas the correlation between dissimilar measures should be low (Trochim, 2006a). The results of the correlation analyses indicate that the items we measured together (cf. Table 1) belonged together and had higher correlation coefficients than items that did not belong to each other (cf. Appendix N). For example, brand familiarity and brand experience (jointly used as brand knowledge in our analyses) were highly correlated ($r = 0.891$, p-value < 0.01), whereas the involvement constructs were significantly

lower correlated to these variables (r = between 0.268 and 0.408, p-value < 0.01). Moreover, while initially we were interested in measuring the different effects of actual- and ideal self-congruity, the correlation analyses showed us that the self-congruity constructs were too similar. Therefore, we decided to continue our hypotheses tests with the total self-congruity construct only.

6.4.4 Statistical Conclusion Validity

Statistical conclusion validity is *"the degree to which conclusions we reach about relationships in our data are reasonable"* (Trochim, 2006b). Whenever a conclusion is made, two types of error may arise: a Type I error or a Type II error (Saunders et al., 2009). A Type I error occurs when a conclusion is made that a something is true, when in fact it is not. In the case of a Type II error, a conclusion is made that something is false when actually it is true. As all three of our hypotheses were supported, our research results may be subject to a Type I error. There are different reasons that can cause a Type I error.

Due to our limited time frame and available resources, our sample consisted of only 116 respondents. Even though the sample size was sufficiently large enough to obtain significant results, this may affect the statistical power of our analysis (Trochim, 2006b). This could have been avoided if a larger sample size were to be collected. Nevertheless, as we received at least 30 responses per condition, we assume the conclusion validity to not be affected considerably by our sample size. Moreover, we tested the reliability of the constructs used in our analyses by calculating Cronbach's alpha (cf. section 4.4.7). The results indicate all values to be above 0.6, which indicates a high reliability of constructs.

Even though the statistical conclusion validity of our research may be exposed to Type I errors, we believe we took enough measures to assume that our conclusions can be reasonably deducted from our analyses and that our conclusion validity is satisfactory.

6.4.5 General Limitations

There are furthermore several other limitations to our study worth considering. The limitations are mainly related to the data collection and sampling processes.

The first limitation concerns sampling. Due to the limited time and financial resources available, we used convenience sampling to gather our data. Respondents were recruited

primarily through our own social media profiles and distributed via friends and family. A disadvantage of this technique is that the sample is being treated as an accurate depiction of the population, when in fact it is not (Saunders et al., 2009). The sample is also rather homogeneous since mostly international students from the CEMS Master Program were approached to participate in the survey. Although they live in different countries, they are mostly young, between 22 and 28 years old, attend prestigious universities, and have an international lifestyle of working, studying and traveling internationally. Lastly, as already mentioned in the statistical conclusion validity section, our sample size was relatively small. All of this together, may lower the generalizability of our results.

Another potential limitation is the language of the survey. Respondents' countries of residence consisted primarily of countries where English is not the first language. Even though the majority of respondents are assumed to be fluent enough in English to fill out our survey, some of them may have had difficulties. This may have affected our results as some questions could have been understood incorrectly, or respondents may not finish have finished the survey or filled it in carelessly.

Finally, we chose Instagram as social media channel for the usage situation with social media present. As can be seen in the descriptive statistics (cf. Appendix L), some respondents were unfamiliar with this platform, which could influence the results of our study.

6.5 Future Research

Due to the small sample size, the first suggestion would be to replicate the study with a larger group. Moreover, a more diverse sample could be used, especially in terms of age and occupation. This could increase the value of the outcomes and allow to generalize the results on a larger part of population. Especially, this issue concerns social media usage and older generations, whose usage may be rather limited compared to our sample.

Another suggestion could be adding such variable as purchase intention. Although brand attitude is known to positively influence purchase intention, the relationship is not linear and testing self-congruity against purchase intention could provide some interesting insights about consumer behavior.

Further research could readdress the issue of ideal versus actual self-congruity in conspicuous situations. It would be interesting to test how individuals' need for self-enhancement goals would conflict with self-maintenance goals in social situations, especially in a private with social media situations. Also, previous results on the relative importance of the self-congruity constructs were inconclusive. However, our findings suggest that self-congruity should be measured together with other variables, which can be tested in further research and potentially make results more conclusive.

Moreover, this study is one of the very firsts addressing the issue of self-congruity in the context of social media. Therefore, it would be particularly interesting to see how the digital world could influence consumer behavior in relation to self-congruity theory. For example, one could research how social pressure differs for people with public vs private social media accounts, since in this case people may communicate to different reference groups. In addition, the self-congruity effect should also be measured with online platforms as the behavior of users may vary on different platforms.

As for the social situations, these could also be approached deeper. Consumer behavior in social situations may vary depending on the reference group present. For example, an individual might purchase one brand of beer when his/her friends are around, while in the presence of executives a totally different brand might be chosen by the same person. This leaves us with a suggestion to research the moderating effect of reference groups, in particular membership versus aspirational groups.

7. References

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8. Appendix

8.1 Appendix A: Summary Self-Congruity Research

Author(s)	Moderating factor(s)	Findings	Actual vs Ideal Self-Congruity
Aguirre-Rodriguez et al. (2012)	Self-motive "socialness", degree of self-enhancement sought, brand personality facet, product stimulus abstraction, impression formation process, and cognitive elaboration.	Self-congruity effects are a function of underlying self-motive "socialness," degree of self-enhancement sought, the brand personality facet, the judgment object's abstraction level, cognitive elaboration, and the underlying impression formation process.	Ideal.
Dolich (1969)	/	Reference group influence, as related to the self-concept, was revealed in least preferred brand relationships but not in most preferred brand relationships. Found no evidence that the ideal self-image is more closely related than the real self-image to consumer choice decisions for most preferred brands.	Inconclusive
Graeff (1996)	Self-monitoring and product conspicuousness	Increased self-monitoring is associated with a greater effect of image congruence on consumers' evaluations of publicly consumed brands, but not privately consumed brands. Consumers' evaluations of publicly consumed brands are more affected by the congruence between brand image and ideal self-image, whereas actual and ideal congruence have equal effects on consumers' evaluations of privately consumed brands.	Ideal (public consumption), equal (private consumption)
Graeff (1996)	Self-monitoring and product conspicuousness	Increased self-monitoring is associated with a greater effect of image congruence on consumers' evaluations of publicly consumed brands, but not privately consumed brands. Consumers' evaluations of publicly consumed brands are more affected by the congruence between brand image and ideal self-image, whereas actual and ideal congruence have equal effects on	Ideal (public consumption), equal (private consumption)

		consumers' evaluations of privately consumed brands.	
Graeff (1997)	Consumption situations	Conspicuousness does not significantly moderate the relative effects of actual and ideal congruence on brand evaluations. A dynamic concept of situational ideal self-image is a better predictor of brand attitudes than are static concepts of self-image such as ideal and actual.	Inconclusive. Researchers propose the concept of a situational ideal self-image instead.
Helgeson & Supphellen (2004)	Socially desirable responding (SDR)	SDR tends to moderate the effects of self-congruity on brand attitudes. Strong effect of Ideal SC on brand attitude compared to actual SC	Ideal
Hong & Zinkhan (1995)	/	Brand preference and purchase intention are influenced by the self-congruency of an ad.	Ideal
Malär et al. (2011)	Product involvement, self-esteem, and public self-consciousness.	Actual self-congruence has the greatest impact on emotional brand attachment. Product involvement, self-esteem, and public self-consciousness increase the positive impact of actual self-congruence, but decrease the impact of ideal self-congruence on emotional brand attachment.	Actual
Malhotra (1987)	/	The differential role of ideal, actual and social self-concept is likely to vary over individuals.	Ideal
Landon (1974)	/	Self-image and ideal self-image tend to be highly correlated. Factors related to the products and to the individuals are important determinant of the relative differential impact of self- and ideal self-image on purchase intentions.	They should not be treated separately. It depends per subject and product.
Sirgy (1982)			Actual
Sirgy (1985)	/	The effects of self-congruity and ideal congruity on purchase motivation are additive.	They are additive.

8.2 Appendix B: Survey

NHH

Dear participant,

For our Master thesis at the Norwegian School of Economics we are conducting a study on brand attitudes and the motivation consumers have to purchase certain brands. No prior knowledge of this topic is needed.

To ensure the quality of responses, we would like to ask you to read each of the questions carefully and to answer them as truthfully as possible. There are no right or wrong answers and all responses will be collected **anonymously**.

Filling out the questionnaire takes about **5 minutes** of your time.

If you have any questions about this research, or if you are interested in the results, please contact us at s155505@student.nhh.no

Thank you very much,

Anna and Lea

BEFORE WE GO INTO THE QUESTIONS, WE WOULD LIKE YOU TO IMAGINE THAT YOU ARE OUT WITH YOUR FRIENDS AT A RESTAURANT, BAR, LOUNGE, OR OTHER PUBLIC PLACE. AND YOU ARE CONSIDERING ORDERING A BEER. IMAGINE THAT YOU WILL BE CONSUMING THAT BEER IN A VERY PUBLIC SITUATION. THAT IS, YOUR FRIENDS WILL SEE YOU WHILE YOU CONSUME THIS BEER.

In this situation, which beer brand would you most likely choose? **For the rest of the experiment, we will refer to this brand as Brand X.**

- Heineken
- Carlsberg
- Stella Artois
- Becks
- Peroni
- Tuborg
- Hansa
- Corona
- Leffe
- Sol
- Blue Moon
- Tsingtao
- Brew Dog
- Asahi
- Other: _____

How familiar are you with Brand X?

Very familiar	Familiar	Somewhat familiar	Neither familiar nor unfamiliar	Somewhat unfamiliar	Unfamiliar	Not at all familiar
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

How much experience have you had with Brand X?

Very experienced	Experienced	Somewhat experienced	Neither experienced nor unexperienced	Somewhat inexperienced	Inexperienced	No experience at all
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Indicate your general impression of Brand X

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I like this brand	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This is a good brand	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have a favourable impression of this brand	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Brand X is consistent with how I see myself	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am quite similar to the typical customer of this brand	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The image of the typical user of Brand X is congruent with how I see myself	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Brand X is consistent with how I would like to see myself	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would like to be perceived as similar to the typical customer of this brand	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The image of the typical user of Brand X is congruent with how I would like to see myself	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement to the following statements

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Brand X is a high quality brand	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like the taste of Brand X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Click to write the question text

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Beer is a topic that I could talk about for a long time	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I understand the different types of beer well enough to evaluate the brands	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Beer is a subject that interests me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have a preference for one or more types of beer	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am not at all familiar with different styles of beer	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Beer is a product that I have little interest in	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
There are specific breweries I regularly purchase beer from	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate whether the statement below is true or false for you

	True	False
It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged	○	○
I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way	○	○
On a few occasions, I have given up on something because I thought too little of my ability	○	○
There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right	○	○
No matter who I'm talking to, I am always a good listener	○	○
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone	○	○
I am always willing to admit it when I make a mistake	○	○
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget	○	○
I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable	○	○
I have never been irked when people express ideas very different from my own	○	○
There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others	○	○
I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me	○	○
I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings	○	○

Gender
- ○ Male
- ○ Female
- ○ Other:
- ○ Prefer not to say

Age
- ○ Under 18
- ○ 18 - 24
- ○ 25 - 34
- ○ 35 - 44
- ○ 45 - 54
- ○ 55 - 64
- ○ 65 - 74
- ○ 75 - 84
- ○ 85 or older

Education (Currently studying or the highest degree obtained)
- ○ High School
- ○ Bachelor
- ○ Master
- ○ PhD

In which country do you currently reside?

How many litres of beer do you drink on average in a week?
- ○ None
- ○ 0 - 0.5
- ○ 0.5 - 1.0
- ○ 1.0 - 2.0
- ○ 2.0 - 4.0
- ○ 4.0 - 6.0
- ○ 6.0 or more

8.3 Appendix C: Respondents' Country of Residence

CountryofResidence

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Argentina	1	.9	.9	.9
	Australia	1	.9	.9	1.7
	Austria	2	1.7	1.7	3.4
	Belgium	2	1.7	1.7	5.2
	Canada	2	1.7	1.7	6.9
	Chile	1	.9	.9	7.8
	Denmark	1	.9	.9	8.6
	Finland	8	6.9	6.9	15.5
	France	7	6.0	6.0	21.6
	Germany	7	6.0	6.0	27.6
	Hungary	6	5.2	5.2	32.8
	India	1	.9	.9	33.6
	Ireland	2	1.7	1.7	35.3
	Italy	12	10.3	10.3	45.7
	Japan	1	.9	.9	46.6
	Netherlands	19	16.4	16.4	62.9
	Norway	18	15.5	15.5	78.4
	Russian Federation	2	1.7	1.7	80.2
	Singapore	1	.9	.9	81.0
	Spain	1	.9	.9	81.9
	Sweden	1	.9	.9	82.8
	Switzerland	1	.9	.9	83.6
	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	18	15.5	15.5	99.1
	United States of America	1	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	116	100.0	100.0	

8.4 Appendix D: Social Media Experience Questions

NHH

Please indicate how familiar you are with Instagram

Very familiar	Familiar	Somewhat familiar	Neither familiar nor unfamiliar	Somewhat unfamiliar	Unfamiliar	Not at all familiar
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how frequently you go on Instagram

Almost every hour	Multiple times a day	Once a day	Multiple times a week	Once a week	Less than once a week	Never
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how likely you are to post something on Instagram

Extremely likely	Moderately likely	Slightly likely	Neither likely nor unlikely	Slightly unlikely	Moderately unlikely	Extremely unlikely
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Pleas indicate how often you post something on Instagram

Multiple times a day	Once a day	Multiple times a week	Once a week	Once a month	Less than once a month	Never
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate whether you have a public or private Instagram account

○ Public
○ Private
○ I do not have an Instagram account

Please indicate how many Instagram followers you have on Instagram

○ < 100
○ 100 - 300
○ 300 - 500
○ 500 - 1000
○ > 1000
○ Prefer not to say
○ I do not have an Instagram account

8.5 Appendix E: Socially Desirable Responding – Results

Question (bold answers are socially desirable)	Yes	No
It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.	65	**51**
I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.	72	**44**
On a few occasions, I have given up on something because I thought too little of my ability.	57	**59**
There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.	47	**69**
No matter who I'm talking to, I am always a good listener.	**70**	46
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	64	**52**
I am always willing to admit it when I made a mistake.	**76**	40
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.	56	**60**
I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.	**70**	46
I have never been irked when people express ideas very different from my own.	**43**	73
There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.	73	**43**
I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me.	60	**56**
I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feeling.	**49**	67

8.6 Appendix F: Correlation Analysis for Self-Congruity Constructs

Correlations

		ActualSC1	ActualSC2	ActualSC3	IdealSC1	IdealSC2	IdealSC3
ActualSC1	Pearson Correlation	1	.675**	.687**	.553**	.563**	.655**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116
ActualSC2	Pearson Correlation	.675**	1	.818**	.543**	.581**	.644**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116
ActualSC3	Pearson Correlation	.687**	.818**	1	.639**	.703**	.744**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116
IdealSC1	Pearson Correlation	.553**	.543**	.639**	1	.754**	.753**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116
IdealSC2	Pearson Correlation	.563**	.581**	.703**	.754**	1	.857**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116
IdealSC3	Pearson Correlation	.655**	.644**	.744**	.753**	.857**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

8.7 Appendix G: Detailed Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
BrandAttitude1	116	1	5	2.03	1.008
BrandAttitude2	116	1	5	2.11	.902
BrandAttitude3	116	1	5	2.17	.989
BrandAttitude	116	1	5	2.10	.875
ActualSC1	116	1	7	3.60	1.229
ActualSC2	116	1	7	3.78	1.224
ActualSC3	116	1	7	3.81	1.208
ActualSC	116	1	7	3.73	1.103
IdealSC1	116	1	7	3.61	1.256
IdealSC2	116	1	7	3.81	1.298
IdealSC3	116	1	7	3.83	1.307
IdealSC	116	1	7	3.75	1.193
TotalSC	116	1	7	3.74	1.073
Brand Familiarity	116	1	7	2.54	1.617
BrandExperience	116	1	7	2.80	1.710
BrandKnowledge	116	1	7	2.67	1.618
Involvement1	116	1	7	3.82	1.891
Involvement2	116	1	7	3.48	1.767
Involvement3	116	1	7	3.45	1.819
Involvement4	116	1	7	2.54	1.488
Involvement5	116	1	7	3.14	1.734
Involvement6	116	1	7	3.22	1.823
Involvement7	116	1	7	3.52	1.954
BeerInvolvement	116	1	6	3.31	1.486
BeerQuality	116	1	6	2.25	1.054
BeerTaste	116	1	6	1.84	1.010
Valid N (listwise)	116				

8.8 Appendix H: Brand Knowledge
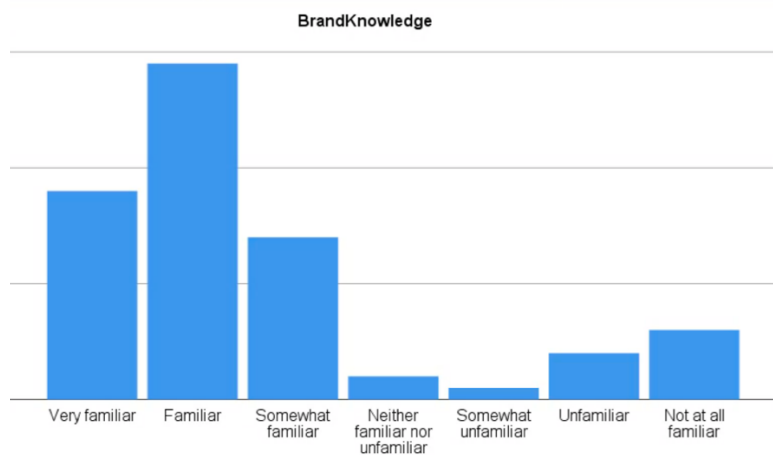
8.9 Appendix I: Beer Consumption

BeerConsumption

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None	11	9.5	9.5	9.5
	0 - 0.5	31	26.7	26.7	36.2
	0.5 - 1.0	21	18.1	18.1	54.3
	1.0 - 2.0	25	21.6	21.6	75.9
	2.0 - 4.0	15	12.9	12.9	88.8
	4.0 - 6.0	9	7.8	7.8	96.6
	6.0 or more	4	3.4	3.4	100.0
	Total	116	100.0	100.0	

8.10 Appendix J: Beer Quality
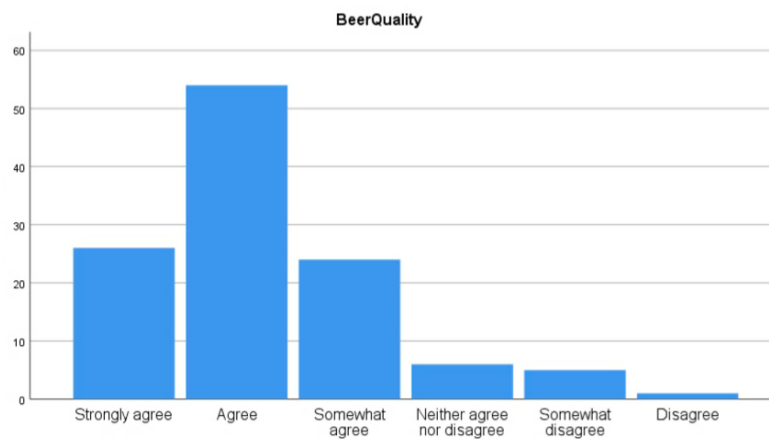
8.11 Appendix K: Beer Taste
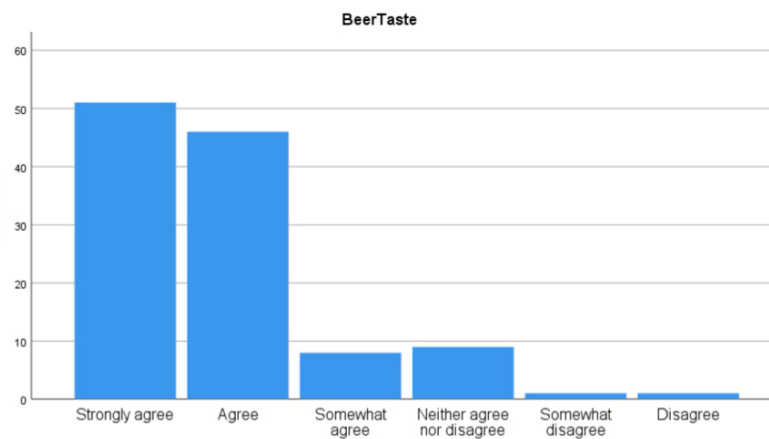
8.12 Appendix L: Social Media Familiarity and Usage

8.12.1 Social Media Familiarity

SocialMediaFamiliarity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very familiar	17	14.7	43.6	43.6
	Familiar	10	8.6	25.6	69.2
	Somewhat familiar	2	1.7	5.1	74.4
	Somewhat unfamiliar	3	2.6	7.7	82.1
	Unfamiliar	3	2.6	7.7	89.7
	Not at all familiar	4	3.4	10.3	100.0
	Total	39	33.6	100.0	
Missing	System	77	66.4		
Total		116	100.0		

8.12.2 Frequency of social media visits

SocialMediaVisits

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Almost every hour	6	5.2	15.4	15.4
	Multiple times a day	15	12.9	38.5	53.8
	Once a day	4	3.4	10.3	64.1
	Multiple times a week	2	1.7	5.1	69.2
	Less than once a week	3	2.6	7.7	76.9
	Never	9	7.8	23.1	100.0
	Total	39	33.6	100.0	
Missing	System	77	66.4		
Total		116	100.0		

8.12.3 Likelihood to post on social media

SocialMediaTendency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Extremely likely	4	3.4	10.3	10.3
	Moderately likely	7	6.0	17.9	28.2
	Slightly likely	12	10.3	30.8	59.0
	Slightly unlikely	2	1.7	5.1	64.1
	Moderately unlikely	3	2.6	7.7	71.8
	Extremely unlikely	11	9.5	28.2	100.0
	Total	39	33.6	100.0	
Missing	System	77	66.4		
Total		116	100.0		

8.12.4 Frequency of social media posts

SocialMediaPosts

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Multiple times a day	1	.9	2.6	2.6
	Multiple times a week	6	5.2	15.4	17.9
	Once a week	8	6.9	20.5	38.5
	Once a month	7	6.0	17.9	56.4
	Less than once a month	6	5.2	15.4	71.8
	Never	11	9.5	28.2	100.0
	Total	39	33.6	100.0	
Missing	System	77	66.4		
Total		116	100.0		

8.12.5 Social Media status

SocialMediaStatus

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Public	9	7.8	23.1	23.1
	Private	21	18.1	53.8	76.9
	I do not have an Instagram account	9	7.8	23.1	100.0
	Total	39	33.6	100.0	
Missing	System	77	66.4		
Total		116	100.0		

8.12.6 Social Media Followers

SocialMediaFollowers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	< 100	6	5.2	15.4	15.4
	100 - 300	10	8.6	25.6	41.0
	300 - 500	8	6.9	20.5	61.5
	500 - 1000	4	3.4	10.3	71.8
	> 1000	2	1.7	5.1	76.9
	I do not have an Instagram account	9	7.8	23.1	100.0
	Total	39	33.6	100.0	
Missing	System	77	66.4		
Total		116	100.0		

8.13 Appendix M: Tests of Hypotheses

8.13.1 Test of H1

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.151	.282		4.076	.000
	TotalSC	.255	.073	.312	3.510	.001

a. Dependent Variable: BrandAttitude

8.13.2 Test of H2 – Public Situation

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.776	.480		1.618	.114
	TotalSC	.349	.123	.423	2.841	.007

a. Dependent Variable: BrandAttitude

8.13.3 Test of H2 – Private Situation

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.477	.649		2.275	.029
	TotalSC	.247	.171	.234	1.444	.157

a. Dependent Variable: BrandAttitude

8.13.4 Test of H2 – Private with Social Media Situation

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.093	.322		3.398	.002
	TotalSC	.199	.081	.374	2.454	.019

a. Dependent Variable: BrandAttitude

8.13.5 Additional Tests

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.361	.235		1.533	.128		
	TotalSC	.143	.058	.175	2.440	.016	.920	1.086
	BeerQuality	.239	.071	.288	3.386	.001	.652	1.533
	BeerTaste	.364	.071	.420	5.093	.000	.695	1.438

a. Dependent Variable: BrandAttitude

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.713	.208		3.426	.001		
	TotalSC	.107	.054	.131	1.970	.051	.930	1.075
	BrandKnowledge	.371	.036	.685	10.299	.000	.930	1.075

a. Dependent Variable: BrandAttitude

8.14 Appendix N: Correlations to Test for Construct Validity

Correlations

		Brand Familiarity	Brand Experience	Involvement1	Involvement2	Involvement3	Involvement4	Involvement5	Involvement6	Involvement7
Brand Familiarity	Pearson Correlation	1	.891**	.394**	.334**	.268**	.324**	.348**	.374**	.367**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.004	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
Brand Experience	Pearson Correlation	.891**	1	.389**	.354**	.283**	.408**	.341**	.427**	.393**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.002	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
Involvement1	Pearson Correlation	.394**	.389**	1	.779**	.850**	.567**	.496**	.784**	.586**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
Involvement2	Pearson Correlation	.334**	.354**	.779**	1	.790**	.743**	.665**	.744**	.590**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
Involvement3	Pearson Correlation	.268**	.283**	.850**	.790**	1	.654**	.559**	.845**	.536**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.002	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
Involvement4	Pearson Correlation	.324**	.408**	.567**	.743**	.654**	1	.520**	.650**	.584**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
Involvement5	Pearson Correlation	.348**	.341**	.496**	.665**	.559**	.520**	1	.648**	.384**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
Involvement6	Pearson Correlation	.374**	.427**	.784**	.744**	.845**	.650**	.648**	1	.556**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
Involvement7	Pearson Correlation	.367**	.393**	.586**	.590**	.536**	.584**	.384**	.556**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).