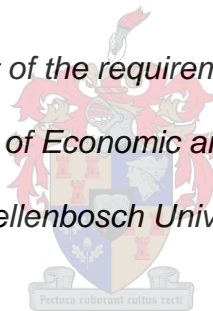# THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INDIVIDUALS' PERSONALITY AND SPECIFIC BRAND PERSONALITIES

by

Xanri Haak

Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Commerce in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at Stellenbosch University

Supervisor:

Professor Charlene Gerber

Stellenbosch University

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"If you can imagine it, you can create it. If you can dream it, you can become it"

~ William Arthur Ward ~

DECLARATION OF WORK

By submitting this thesis, I, Xanri Haak, declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Date: **December 2017**

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ABSTRACT

The rapidly changing nature of businesses and the current competitive environment in which they operate require managers to focus on designing, developing and promoting new products and brands with creative and innovative features in order to distinguish them from other products and brands. Following the importance of brands in distinguishing them from the rest of the market, managers have also realised the power of brands and their influence on consumers' perceptions, associations and preferences. Various strategies are used to distinguish brands, although little research has investigated strategies focusing on the link between brand personality and individual personalities. Against the background of the challenge marketers face in influencing consumers' perceptions, associations and preferences, this study attempts to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. The secondary research objectives specifically assessed whether there is a relationship between each of the Big Five personality dimensions and specific brand personalities.

This study is based on a review of existing literature, covering aspects within both the branding (i.e. brand equity, brand knowledge, brand associations and brand personality) and personality (i.e. conceptualisation, personality approaches and the personality trait theory) landscape. The empirical aspect of this study made use of an exploratory mixed methods approach conducted in two phases, namely a qualitative and a quantitative phase. The aim of the qualitative research phase was to identify and select four car brands with perceived brand personalities (reflecting the Big Five personality dimensions) that differ significantly from one another for the purpose of the follow-up quantitative research phase. Firstly, a focus group discussion was conducted to identify ten car brands perceived as familiar among consumers. These brands were then used in the second stage of the qualitative phase, in which participants were asked to match a number of brand personality traits to each car brand and model, using picture and word associations.

The outcome of the qualitative research was used to build upon the quantitative research phase.

The quantitative research phase was conducted by means of a structured online web-based questionnaire, measuring brand personality, personality and purchase intent. The questionnaire link was distributed via email and the social networking site Facebook. No screening criteria were set and the realised sample consisted of males and females of all races between the ages of 25 and 65, who fell into the LSM categories 8 to 10, have an understanding of the English language and live in South Africa.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient test statistic was performed to assess the research objectives of this study – the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. The findings of this study indicate that personality variables are not strong enough to be reliable predictors of individuals' brand preferences or intent to buy a specific brand personality; however, the significant findings on the relationship between specific personality dimensions and brand personalities offer useful insights for managers.

OPSOMMING

Die snel veranderende aard van die sakewêreld en die huidige mededingende omgewing waarin dit funksioneer, vereis dat bestuurders moet fokus op die ontwerp, ontwikkeling en bevordering van nuwe produkte en handelsmerke met kreatiewe en innoverende kenmerke wat hulle van ander produkte en handelsmerke onderskei. Op grond van die belangrikheid van handelsmerke om hulle van die res van die mark te onderskei, het bestuurders die krag van handelsmerke besef, asook hulle invloed op verbruikers se persepsies, assosiasies en voorkeure. Verskeie strategieë word gebruik om handelsmerke te onderskei, hoewel daar min navorsing is oor die strategieë wat fokus op die skakel tussen handelsmerkpersoonlikheid en verbruikerspersoonlikhede. Teen die agtergrond van die uitdagings wat bemarkers in die gesig staar om verbruikerspersepsies, -assosiasies en -voorkeure te beïnvloed, poog hierdie studie om die verhouding tussen individue se persoonlikhede en spesifieke handelsmerkpersoonlikhede te assesseer. Die sekondêre navorsingsdoelwitte het spesifiek ondersoek of daar 'n verhouding is tussen elkeen van die Groot Vyf persoonlikheidsdimensies en hulle ooreenstemmende handelsmerkpersoonlikheid.

Hierdie studie is gebaseer op 'n studie van die bestaande literatuur en dek aspekte van binne beide die landskap van die handelsmerk (m.a.w. handelsmerk-ekwiteit, handelsmerkkennis, handelsmerkassosiasies en handelsmerkpersoonlikheid) en die landskap van persoonlikheid (m.a.w. konseptualisering, persoonlikheidsbenaderings en persoonlikheidstrekteorie). Die empiriese aspek van hierdie studie maak gebruik van 'n verkennende gemengde metode benadering in twee fases, naamlik 'n kwalitatiewe en 'n kwantitatiewe fase. Die doelwit van die kwalitatiewe navorsingsfase was om vier motorhandelsmerke te identifiseer en te kies wat duidelike handelsmerkpersoonlikhede het (wat die Groot Vyf persoonlikheidsdimensies weerspieël) wat noemenswaardig van mekaar verskil. Die doel hiervan was om hulle in die daaropvolgende kwantitatiewe

navorsingsfase te gebruik. Eerstens is 'n fokusgroep-bespreking gehou om tien motorhandelsmerke te identifiseer waarmee die deelnemers bekend was. Hierdie handelsmerke is toe in die tweede stadium van die kwalitatiewe fase gebruik, waarin die deelnemers gevra is om 'n aantal handelsmerk persoonlikheidstrekke aan elke motorhandelsmerk en model te koppel deur van prent- en woordassosiasies gebruik te maak. Daar is in die kwantitatiewe navorsingsfase op die uitkoms van die kwalitatiewe navorsing gebou.

Die kwantitatiewe navorsingsfase is deur middel van 'n gestruktureerde aanlyn webgebaseerde vraelys uitgevoer om handelsmerkpersoonikheid, persoonlikheid en bedoeling om te koop te meet. Die skakel na die vraelys is via e-pos en die sosiale netwerk-webwerf Facebook versprei. Geen siftingskriteria is gestel nie en die uiteindelike monster het bestaan uit mans en vrouens van alle rasse tussen die ouderdomme van 25 en 65, wat deel was van die LSM-kategorieë 8 tot 10, met 'n begrip van die Engelse taal en wat in Suid-Afrika woon.

'n Pearson se korrelasiekoëffisiënt toetsstatistiek is uitgevoer om die navorsingsdoelwitte van hierdie studie te assesseer – die verhouding tussen individue se persoonlikhede en spesifieke handelsmerkpersoonlikhede. Die bevindings van hierdie studie dui daarop dat persoonlikheidsveranderlikes nie sterk genoeg is om betroubare voorspellers te wees van individue se handelsmerkvoorkeure of bedoeling om 'n spesifieke handelsmerkpersoonlikhied te koop nie; die betekenisvolle bevindings oor die verhouding tussen spesifieke persoonlikheidsdimensies en handelsmerkpersoonlikhede bied egter nuttige insigte vir bestuurders.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

16PF: Sixteen personality factors

BPS: Brand personality scale

CFA: Confirmatory factor analysis

FFM: Five Factor Model

USP: Unique selling proposition

CHAPTER 1 | INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Murgolo-Poore, Pitt and Berthon (2003), marketing is a relatively new field in academia and therefore lacks the depth and variety of theory possessed by marketing's foundation fields: economics, sociology and psychology. Consequently, a large amount of the literature and theory from ancestor disciplines have been applied in the marketing domain in order to address various marketing problems as opposed to formulating new theories more specific to the marketing sphere. Marketing derives many of its theories from other disciplines, particularly from economics and psychology (Mittelstaedt, 1990; Plummer, 2000). For the context of this research study, theory from psychology as well as marketing was applied in order to investigate brand personality and personality.

According to Plummer (2000), progress has been made in marketing in understanding and researching consumers. A number of marketing academics have attempted to explain consumers' behaviour through the application of personality theory, which lies in the field of psychology (e.g. Allport, 1921; Hogan, Hogan & Roberts, 1996; Kassarjian, 1971; Mulyanegara, Tsarenko & Anderson, 2009). Derived from marketing studies investigating personality, research suggests that consumers favour and identify themselves with brands that would best reflect their own personality characteristics, suggesting a link between individuals' personalities and brands (Dolich, 1969; Govers & Schoormans, 2005; Hirschman, 2010; Mulyanegara et al., 2009; Thellefesen & Sørensen, 2013).

For the purpose of this study, the focus was directed towards literature about brands, brand personality and individual personality. Following the literature overview, the research design of the study is discussed, and the chapter concludes with a brief

discussion of ethical considerations for the proposed research study and a brief outline of the content of the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND

Due to the rapidly changing nature and highly competitive circumstances of business, managers are required to design, develop and promote new products and brands with creative and innovative features in order to distinguish them from other products and brands (Shen, Tan & Xie, 2000). This suggests that brands increasingly play an important role in the marketing environment as well as in the marketing strategies of organisations (Lim & O'Cass, 2001). Marketing managers also continue to realise the power of brands and their influence on consumers' perceptions, associations and preferences. For the purpose of this research study, branding and personality were examined to investigate whether there is a relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. Figure 1.1 summarises the existing literature surrounding branding and personality, illustrating the indirect linkage between the branding concept, its brand personality element and, ultimately, personality. These elements are discussed in more detail in Chapters 2 and 3.

THE BRANDING CONCEPT AND ITS ELEMENTS

CHAPTER 2

INDIVIDUALS' PERSONALITY APPROACHES

CHAPTER 3
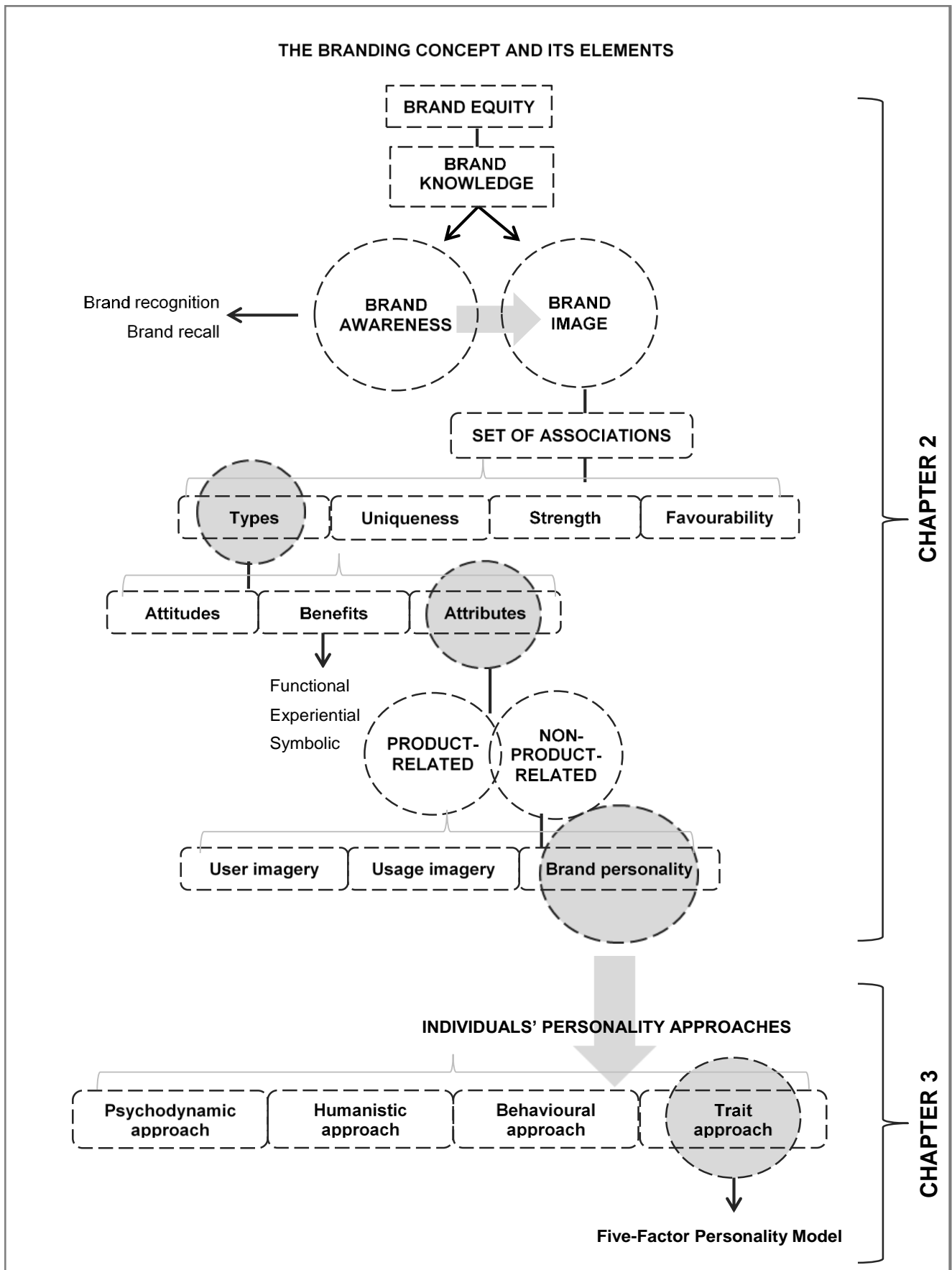
Figure 1.1: Summary of the literature

Source: Adapted from Aaker (1991); Alimen & Cerit (2011); Biel (1992); Keller (1993); Pitta & Katsanis (1995); Tuominen (1999); Yoo & Donthu (2001)

1.3 BRANDING

Theoretically, a brand is defined as "a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors" (Kotler & Keller, 2009:276). Various academics also have adapted and incorporated this definition of a brand into their research (AMA, 2007; Dolak, 2005; Faircloth, Capella & Alford, 2001; Fletcher, 1999; Grace & O'Cass, 2002; Kotler & Keller, 2009:276; Rahinel & Redden, 2011; Thellefsen & Sørensen, 2013; Wood, 2000). King (as cited in Aaker, 1991:1) defines a brand by differentiating between products and brands and states that a product is "something that is made in a factory" and a brand "something that is bought by a customer". Furthermore, he argues that a product can be copied by a competitor and can be quickly outdated, but a brand is unique and timeless, thus emphasising the changing role of brands in the modern marketing era. Fletcher (1999) supports King's (as cited in Aaker, 1991:1) suggestion by stressing that brands have become rather prevalent and therefore increasingly more difficult to define. This suggests that branding is a much more comprehensive construct and the existing guidelines for defining brands are no longer appropriate. As such, a suitable definition must still be developed (Kapferer, 2008).

It is certain that the role of brands has shifted from merely identifying producers to becoming a primary factor for differentiation – becoming even more influential than price on some occasions (Aaker, 1991; Gronlund, 2013; Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff & Terblanche, 2008; Seitz, Razzouk & Wells, 2010). In fact, the literature suggests that a distinguishing characteristic of modern marketing is the focus on the creation of differentiated brands (Chen, Chen & Huang, 2012; Dolak, 2005; Gronlund, 2013; Hirschman, 2010; Sharp & Dawes, 2001). Kapferer (2008) agrees with the importance of creating distinguished brands by stressing the current attention economy. The essence of Kapferer's (2008) argument is that there is so much opacity, where consumers are faced with too many choices and too little time to compare between them. He believes that a

well-differentiated and well-managed brand conveys certitude and trust, which in turn reduce time spent on comparing brands before consumers make a choice. This statement illustrates the importance of a well-differentiated and well-managed brand that lends itself to being top of mind.

Differentiation can be explained by the preference for one firm's offering over another's; in other words, when one brand is preferred over another. This predilection presumes that there is a differentiating factor between brands, resulting in the added value perceived by consumers (Fischer, Völckner & Sattler, 2010; Kotler & Keller, 2009; Rahinel & Redden, 2013; Sharp & Dawes, 2001). This added value is likely to lead to a differential response, which in turn positively affects brand equity (Fischer et al., 2010; Gronlund, 2013; Kotler & Keller, 2009). Kapferer's (2008) opinion regarding differentiated brands also is aimed at the gain in perceived value brought by the brand to the consumer; in other words, consumers prefer brands that supply them with an added value aspect, whether it is quality, exclusivity or some kind of emotional component.

Brand equity has increasingly become a marketing imperative, demanding greater understanding of how to build and manage it (Hoeffler & Keller, 2003; Kapferer, 2008; O'Cass & Grace, 2003). Although brand equity has been defined in various ways by researchers and practitioners, they seem to agree that brand equity involves consumers assigning value to a brand beyond the value created by the functional features of a product (Biel, 1992; Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994; Farquhar, 1989; Kapferer, 2008; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Park & Srinivasan, 1994). It also appears that a number of brand equity definitions rely on brand knowledge structures (Alimen & Cerit, 2010; Chen et al., 2012; Faircloth et al., 2001; Grace & O'Cass, 2002; Huang & Sarigöllü, 2012; Keller, 1993; Kotler & Keller, 2009; Lassar, Mittal & Sharma, 1995).

As shown in Figure 1.1, brand knowledge consists of two components: brand awareness and brand image; these are indirectly associated with brand personality (Aaker, 1991;

Atilgan, Aksoy & Akinci, 2005; Faircloth et al., 2001). Brand awareness refers to aspects ranging from consumers' ability to recognise (brand recognition) or to recall (brand recall) a brand and brand image, to consumers' accumulated brand associations and perceptions (Keller, 1993; Tuominen, 1999). According to various academics, brand awareness is a necessary condition for the creation of brand image (Alimen & Cerit, 2010; Esch, Langner, Schmitt & Geus, 2006; Keller, 1993; Macdonald & Sharp, 2003). Researchers generally define brand image as a set of brand associations that differentiate the brand in the minds of consumers (Biel, 1992; Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990; Faircloth et al., 2001; Keller, 1993; Kotler & Keller, 2009; Pitta & Katsanis, 1995). It is therefore concluded that consumers' associations with a particular brand constitutes the brand's image.

The depiction of brand image above further emphasises the similarity between brand image and consumers' associations with a brand. The similarity is highlighted further by various studies that use brand image to determine brand associations and, in contrast, use brand associations to determine brand image (Biel, 1992; James, 2005; Faircloth et al., 2001; Keller, 1993; Low & Lamb, 2000). Following these notions, it can be concluded that brand image and brand associations are viewed as two similar concepts that are used interchangeably. For the purpose of this study, no distinction is made between these concepts and the following section will focus on the term "brand associations".

According to James (2005:14), brand associations are "anything about the likeableness of a brand and help in the formation of a brand's image". Keller's (1993) research emphasises that the dimensions of brand associations that contribute to consumers' brand knowledge are: the types, uniqueness, strength and favourability of associations, all playing an important role in the development of brand equity; as well as the types of associations having an indirect relationship with brand personality. The types of brand associations are further classified into three categories: attitudes, benefits and attributes (Keller, 1993; Tuominen, 1999). For the purpose of this study the emphasis was placed on attributes, since their relation to brand personality is more direct. According to Kotler

and Keller (2009) and Tuominen (1999), attributes are those features that characterise a product and can either be product-related or non-product-related. Product-related attributes refer to those attributes that are related to the physical features of a product necessary for its primary function. In the current research study, the focus was shifted toward the non-product-related attributes, which refer to those attributes that are external to the product (Keller, 1993; Tuominen, 1999). These attributes are believed to have an effect on the purchase or consumption decision, rather than on the actual performance of the particular product (Tuominen, 1999), and consists of a product or brand's user imagery, usage imagery and brand personality, the focus of this study (Grace & O'Cass, 2002:97; Keller, 1998).

The general agreement amongst academics on the definition of brand personality is based on Aaker's seminal work. She defines brand personality as a "set of human characteristics" that can be associated with a brand (Aaker, 1997:347). This suggests that brands can possess human personality traits such as warmth, concern and sentimentality. Although Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale has been used as the foundation of brand personality research by most researchers, Mulyanegara et al. (2009) developed a brand personality scale that directly correlates with all five personality dimensions of the so called Five Factor Model (FFM), also referred to as the Big Five. The brand personality dimensions included in Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) scale are trusted, sociable, exciting and sincere. Flowing from their research about brand personality, it therefore is expected that individuals who are dominant on a particular dimension of the Big Five would prefer a brand personality that reflects that dimension or is close to it.

Due to the increased importance of brands in organisations' marketing strategies, researchers have investigated brand personality and its positive effects in various ways. An evaluation of extant studies suggests that brand personality has an influence on consumer perceptions, associations and preferences (Freling & Forbes, 2005; Freling, Crosno & Henard, 2011; Sirgy, 1982). Increased loyalty and trust (Fournier, 1998), elicited

consumer emotions, self-expression and association (Biel, 1992) and differentiation (Aaker, 1991) are also positively impacted by brand personality. This research emphasises the growing importance of brand personality, but at the same time highlights an important issue that warrants further exploration. This statement is validated by the realisation of the little effort devoted to examining the significance of personality in affecting preferences for a brand portraying a personality reflective of the individual's.

Managers are increasingly required to develop strategies that will distinguish their brands from others and add value (other than functional value) to consumers, as mentioned before. The aim of these strategies can be focused on building specific personalities for brands (Aaker, 1997; Lannon, 1991; Plummer, 1985) in order to encourage positive associations (Kotler & Keller, 2009:281). Derived from research studies examining brand personality and its increasing importance, it is suggested that consumers favour brands that best reflect and communicate characteristics of their own personality (Belk, 1988; Dolich, 1969; Elliott, 1994; Govers & Schoormans, 2005; Mulyanegara et al., 2009; Thellefsen & Sørensen, 2013).

In other words, if the brand image of a specific brand is congruent with a consumer's personality, the consumer will be more likely to show a positive preference for that brand. Hirschman's (2010) reasoning for this phenomenon is that humans have evolved the capacity to think in symbolic and metaphorical terms, which provides them with the ability to view themselves, and others, as having personal and social identities. Hirschman's (2010) research confirms the above proposition stating that consumers express a stronger preference for brands that reflect their own personalities. In order to further address this gap in the research relating to brand personality and individual personality, a discussion on personality as a construct is considered necessary.

1.4 PERSONALITY AS A CONSTRUCT

The literature on individual personality has been the subject of a variety of academic research, owing to the vast and complicated domain encompassed and represented by personality. Allport (1921:442) confirms the above claim when stating that "there have been noteworthy efforts made to carefully delimit the concepts of personality … as to their psychological significance". Personality is a broad field of study consisting of various elements that contribute to a large number of domains (Allport, 1924). Allport (1921:442) also states that personality is one of the most abstract words in the English language and defines it as "the dynamic organi[s]ation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment". Yet, 90 years later, personality is still viewed as ineffable and a source of confusion and debate (Roberts & Hogan, 2001:12). For the context of this research study, a general definition of personality is employed. Various researchers assume that personality is a set of psychological traits individuals possess that is stable over time, explaining the way in which they think, feel and act (Barrick & Ryan, 2003; Cascio, 2006; Guthrie, Coate & Schwoerer, 1998; Hogan et al., 1996).

MacKinnon (cited in Hogan et al., 1996:469; Roberts & Hogan, 2001:11) states that personality can be understood and applied in two ways: Firstly, personality refers to the internal structures of individuals that explain the way they create impressions on others, thus individuals' social behaviour. Secondly, personality also refers to the social characteristics of individuals and the overall impression these individuals make on others. In this definition, personality is viewed from the observer's perspective and is akin to an individual's reputation, in other words individuals' explicit actions that are observable by others.

The second application of personality (applicable to this study) as introduced above, referring to the social characteristics of individuals and the impression individuals make

on others, is more often applied in research when individuals' personalities are measured and linked with their perceptions and actual buying behaviour (Hogan et al., 1996). Kassarjian's (1971:409) research found that marketing activities such as purchasing behaviour, media choice, segmentation and product choice have been related to individuals' personality. This is also seen in Pessemier and Tigert's (as cited in Kassarjian, 1971:414) research, where some initial relationships were found between "factor-analysed groups of individuals and their behaviour". Their research was based on distinctive and characteristic modes of living of segments of a society. Their methods (cluster analysis, factor analysis and canonical correlation) divided the total market into segments based on psychographics and their lifestyle. Marketing scholars refer to this as psychographic segmentation, which enables marketers to divide consumers into segments on the basis of their personality. Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) research suggests that consumers prefer to buy brands that best reflect their personality. Following Kassarjian (1971) and Pessemier and Tigert's (cited in Kassarjian, 1971) research, the possibility exists that individuals who possess similar personality traits will have similar perceptions of and associations with similar brands.

Albeit ineffable, personality is a broad field of study that comprises many different theories. Theories of personality include the Psychoanalytic Theory of Freud, Social-Psychological Neo-Freudian Theory, Self-Concept Theory and Trait Theory (Boeree 2006; Funder, 2001:198; IILM Online, 2012). Personality trait theories are often utilised in practice to explain individuals' behaviour. A study conducted by Roberts, Kuncel, Shiner, Caspi and Glodberg (2007) has confirmed the validity of using personality traits rather than other factors in explaining and understanding how consumers think, feel and act, thus possibly explaining their perceptions of and associations with brands.

A number of psychologists believe that the best representation of an individual's personality trait structure is provided by the Five Factor Model (FFM), also known as the Big Five personality dimensions (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009; John, 1990). According to the

FFM, all personality types can be clustered into five broad dimensions (Mount & Barrick, 1998). These dimensions are: Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). Semeijn, Boone, Van der Velden and Van Witteloostuijn (2005) state that it has been confirmed that five dimensions cover the broad realm of personality to a large extent.

1.5 REASON FOR THE STUDY

The changing role of brands and the evolution of this role in the marketing domain have been emphasised by various subject experts over the years (Aaker, 1991; Goodson, 2012; Gronlund, 2013; Hofmeyer & Parton, 2006; Joubert & Poalses, 2012). Brands have long only identified the source of the product, but the role of brands has progressively shifted toward something much profounder than identification, with the focus on differentiation (Gronlund, 2013; Shen et al., 2000). Marketers started implementing various strategies to instil brands with personality traits in order to differentiate them from other brands (Aaker, 1997; Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990). More recent research supports Aaker's (1997) statement that emphasises the important link between brands and people (Gronlund, 2013). It is suggested that, because people so often identify, relate to and define themselves by brands, they have influence (Gronlund, 2013:3). The general definition of brand personality, as argued by Aaker (1997), further emphasises an existing, but not optimally researched, link between brands and people (Ambroise, Ferrandi, Merunka & Vallette-Florence, 2005; Hirschman, 2010).

The lack of research devoted to the link between consumer personalities and brands in the marketing domain might be explained by the fact that marketing is a relatively new field in academia and therefore lacks the depth and variety of theories within marketing's foundation fields (Murgolo-Poore et al., 2003). Theories applied in marketing to address research problems, such as personality theory, are often derived from these neighbouring fields. Investigating consumer personalities (borrowed from Psychology) through the

notions of trait theory allows the researcher to address one of the research gaps in the marketing domain (Quick & Nelson, 2013).

Despite Govers and Schoorman's (2005) suggestion that consumers favour brands that would best reflect their own personality, little research has been conducted on consumer personality traits (measured by the FFM personality scale) and consumers' preferences for specific brand personalities. This study therefore aimed to address a gap in the marketing literature by assessing the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities.

1.5.1 Research objectives

In line with the reason for this study, as discussed above, the primary objective of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. Secondary research objectives were:

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on openness to experience and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on conscientiousness and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on extroversion and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on agreeableness and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on neuroticism and specific brand personalities

1.6 RESEARCH METHOD

Research design refers to a blueprint the researcher develops that specifies the methods and procedures that will be followed in order to collect, measure and analyse data to

achieve the research objectives (Churchill, Brown & Suter, 2010; Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2010:66). As part of planning the research design, the basic method and technique of both the secondary and primary research, the data collection instrument, the sampling design, data collection and data analysis were all considered. These different elements of the research design are discussed in more depth in Chapter 4.

1.6.1 Secondary research

Secondary research is research that has already been collected for use in previous studies (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:163). For the purpose of this study, a literature review was carried out to gain an overview of the two main concepts applicable in this study, namely branding and personality. The literature review began by exploring the branding construct and its main elements, including brand knowledge and brand associations, together with its sub-elements, leading to brand personality (Aaker, 1991). These concepts are defined and clarified in greater depth in Chapter 2 of this study.

The personality construct, including its conceptualisation, the different approaches to personality theory and specifically the trait theory relevant to this study, is addressed in Chapter 3. The external data sources (research collected from outside sources) consulted and investigated were journal articles, the Internet, books and other research papers written by professionals familiar with the fields of marketing and psychology.

1.6.2 Primary research

Primary research refers to research that is specifically collected for the purpose of the investigation at hand (Blumberg, Cooper & Shindler, 2011:175; Zikmund et al., 2010). For the purpose of this study, the secondary research collected was not sufficient, therefore primary data also was collected. In order to satisfy the research objectives it was deemed necessary to follow a mixed methods approach in which both qualitative and quantitative research methods were combined (see Figure 1.2 below). This method allowed the researcher to divide the primary research of this study into two separate phases. The first

phase concerned the collection of qualitative data for the second phase follow-up, quantitative data collection.
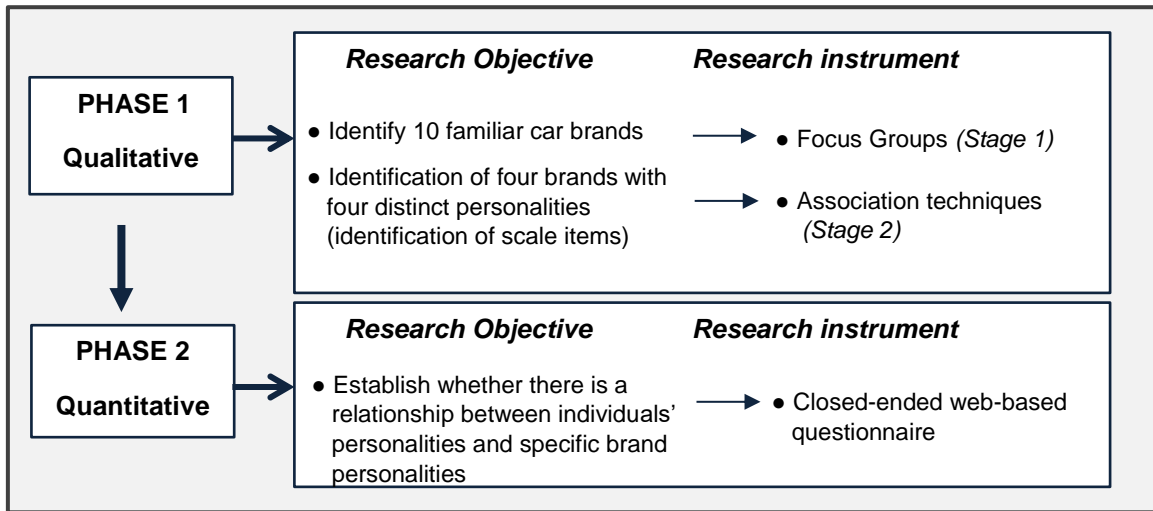
Figure 1.2: Primary research design

Source: Adapted from Malhotra (2007) and Zikmund and Babin (2010).

1.6.2.1 Qualitative research design (Phase 1)

The aim of the qualitative research was two-fold: firstly, to identify a group of ten car brands perceived by consumers as familiar and, secondly, to link each of the ten car brands to one of four brand personality dimensions identified by Mulyanegara et al. (2009). Four car brands and models were then identified that distinctively portrayed one of four brand personality dimensions. The objective was to select four brands with perceived brand personalities that differed from one another for the purpose of the second phase of the research design, quantitative data gathering.

In order to address the abovementioned qualitative research objectives, a focus group was conducted during the first stage of the qualitative research to identify ten cars perceived by consumers as familiar. Participants in the focus group fit the description of the defined target population (see Section 1.7). The researcher decided to take an indirect approach during the second stage of qualitative data gathering and utilised a projective technique. A projective technique is an indirect, vague, ambiguous and unstructured

means of questioning and involves situations in which participants are placed in simulated activities in the hope that they will divulge or "project" information about themselves that is unlikely to be revealed under direct questioning (Donoghue, 2000; Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Picture- and word-association sessions were conducted in which participants fitting the description of the defined target population were asked to match a number of brand personality dimensions and traits to ten car brands (this is discussed in detail in Chapter 4). As mentioned, an exploratory mixed method approach was followed, referring to a design characterised by collecting, analysing and building on qualitative data for the quantitative follow-up.

1.6.2.2 Quantitative research design (Phase 2)

Quantitative research addresses the research objectives through empirical assessments that involve statistical measurement and analysis (Malhotra, 2007:143; Zikmund et al., 2010:134). Basic research methods available for quantitative primary research can be divided into broad techniques, namely surveys, observation and experiments (Kotler & Keller, 2009). For the purpose of this study, an online survey was chosen and a structured, web-based questionnaire was developed (Malhotra, 2007:184; Zikmund & Babin, 2010).

1.6.2.3 Data collection instruments (Phase 1 and Phase 2)

Different data collection instruments were used in both Phase 1 (qualitative data collection) and Phase 2 (quantitative data collection). A quick overview of all data collection instruments developed and used in this study is provided next.

- *Qualitative data collection instruments*

The researcher made use of various stimuli to collect the required qualitative data. For the purpose of the first stage of the qualitative research design, a focus group interview guide (see Appendix A) that detailed the content and set of topics to be covered during the interview was developed (Morgan, 1988). The interview guide was structured to include a foreword and six questions that had to be answered on completion of the focus group

discussion. Colour-printed and laminated car brand logos (11 cm by 11 cm) were also used as stimuli to refresh participants' memory and to encourage conversation amongst them concerning the relevant topic.

The second stage of the qualitative research design concerned the picture- and word-association sessions. An interviewer guide (see Appendix B) was developed that detailed the content and instructions to be given to the participants before the association sessions took place. Ten SUV brand images were printed and laminated. Two angles were provided – front and side. Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) four brand personality dimensions as well as traits comprising the dimensions (see Chapter 4, Section 4.7.3) were also printed equally in size, and laminated. A booklet with each of these traits' definition was also provided to the participants. A white cardboard surface created a large white space used, firstly, to arrange the SUV models and traits in a specific order and, secondly, to provide a non-influenced space for participants to match each of the traits with the SUV model provided.

- *Quantitative data collection instrument*

A structured, web-based questionnaire consisting of three areas of focus (constructs) was used to collect the required quantitative data. In the first instance, respondents were asked to rank thirteen brand personality traits from "best description" to "fourth best description" (see Section 1.6.2.1, also discussed in detail in Chapter 4).The scale measuring brand personality aimed to re-establish the personalities assigned to the specific car brands and models in Stage 2 of the qualitative data gathering process. The respondents' purchase intent was measured using a seven-point Likert scale (Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009), allowing them to indicate to what extent they would buy each of the brands and models. Brand importance was measured solely for the purpose of added insights and did not relate directly to the research objective.

The second section of the questionnaire included the Ten-Item Personality Measure (TIPI), which is an adapted and shortened version of "The Big Five" personality scale that aims to measure individuals' dominant personality type (Gosling, Rentfrow & Swann 2003, McCrae, 2000). The respondents were asked to rank themselves on a seven-point Likert scale containing adjectives that related to each of the Big Five dimensions (Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism).

The third and last section of the questionnaire asked the respondents to provide their demographic data, including age, race, gender, education, occupation and income. Fundamental problems in the survey design were eliminated by implementing a pilot test with a group of respondents who satisfied the criteria of the target population (Zikmund et al., 2010:233). The problem areas were identified and the questionnaire was adapted accordingly.

1.7 SAMPLE SELECTION

The sampling procedure outlines key steps in identifying and selecting the target population, including decisions made about the method used to select the sample, the determination of the sample size, procedures that are related to the ultimate selection of the sampling element used in a study, as well as how and by whom the sampling elements will be reached (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:694).

The target population for both the qualitative and quantitative phases was defined as male and female individuals who are: of all races, between the ages of 25 and 65, fall into the LSM (Living Standard Measures) categories 8 to 10, as outlined by the All Media and Product Survey (AMPS), have an understanding of the English language and live in South Africa. Individuals segmented into LSM categories 8 to 10 are suggested to represent the higher income brackets of the South African population (SAARF, 2013). It has been concluded that these individuals are more likely to have an understanding of the car market, own a car themselves (SAARF, 2012), or to be considering purchasing a car in

the near future. Participants in the qualitative phase had to be employed or in the process of completing a postgraduate degree.

For the purpose of the current study, a non-probability sampling method was applied in both the qualitative and quantitative research phases. The sampling elements for the qualitative research phase were selected on the basis of convenience, with a sampling size of five participants for the first qualitative stage (focus group) and 25 participants for the second qualitative stage (picture and word association). Snowball sampling was used to select respondents for the quantitative data collection phase. The realised sample size of the quantitative phase was 204 respondents – in line with the suggested minimum of 200.

1.8 DATA COLLECTION AND FIELDWORK

As mentioned, a focus group was conducted for the first stage of the qualitative data collection phase. The researcher fulfilled the role of the moderator, whereas a professional in the field of qualitative research acted as the assistant moderator. The moderator led the focus group by asking six questions that were focused on specific topics. The focus group was audio-recorded for the purpose of analysis.

Picture and word association sessions were also conducted by the researcher during the second stage of the qualitative data gathering process. A time was scheduled with the participants, and each session started off with a formal introduction, thanking the participant for making available his/her time to participate in the research study, informing him/her that the session would be recorded to assist the researcher in data analysis and writing up the results, as well as notifying the participant that he/she was not obliged to participate. The instructions were then given to the participant to complete the picture- and word-association task. Once the participants had completed the task, the end result was captured by digital camera and stored in a secure place with the objective to analyse

it once all 25 sessions were completed. The audio-recordings of each session were also stored in case needed.

Following the pilot study, the structured web-based questionnaire was distributed to respondents via email and the social networking site Facebook (discussed in detail in Section 4.8.3) for purposes of the quantitative data collection phase. Facebook was a valid means of questionnaire distribution as it could circumvent the limitations of overreliance on relatively small samples as well as of self-reporting. Instead, respondents could complete the web-based questionnaire in their natural environment (Kosinski, Matz, Gosling, Popov & Stillwell, 2016). Facebook were used to reach a large audience of individuals that suited the target population stipulated in the sampling design (Section 1.7). An invitation letter and a cash incentive, together with the link that redirected to the questionnaire (where it could be completed online) was sent to a list of individuals via Facebook or email. A request to share the survey with friends and acquaintances was also included. A reminder of the survey was repeatedly posted on Facebook and/or emailed to possible respondents. The responses to the completed questionnaires were automatically logged into an Excel spreadsheet, ready for data processing and analysis.

1.9 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

Qualitative research does not depend on numerical measurement, but rather relies on subjective interpretation to analyse the data that has been collected. For the purpose of this study's qualitative research phase, a thematic analysis approach was used to extract meaning from the participants responses in both stages (the focus group and picture- and word-association sessions) of the qualitative research phase. Once analysed, the data was used for the development of the web-based survey.

The processing and analysing of the quantitative primary data were done by using SPSS and STATISTICA. Suitable reliability and validity tests were performed to assess the quality of the questionnaire. The proposed data analysis techniques for this study's

quantitative data were divided into two sections: descriptive and inferential analysis. The former refers to the most elementary transformation of the data in a way that describes basic characteristics like central tendency, distribution and variability of the data set, and the latter to the section where the stated hypotheses were tested and inferences were drawn from the variables (Malhotra, 2004:416; Zikmund & Babin, 2010:516). A Pearson's correlation coefficient test statistic was performed to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities (Mulyanegara et al., 2009; Zikmund et al., 2010). The data analysis for this study is discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This research study was classified as holding low risk for the respondents. In line with the framework provided by Stellenbosch University, "the probability or magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research [was] not greater in itself than that ordinarily encountered in daily life" (Viviers, 2012). The questionnaire, however, required respondents to disclose information about aspects of the self, therefore anonymity was regarded as a priority. During the data collection it was crucial to inform potential respondents about the nature of the questionnaire, to guarantee anonymity and to emphasise voluntary participation. The respondents who participated in this research study supplied the researcher with verbal informed consent, which led to the continuation of data collection.

1.11 ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

The current study consists of six chapters. **Chapter 1** has provided an overview of the study to familiarise the reader with the theme and purpose of the study. Key concepts such as branding and personality were introduced, as well as the reason why the study was undertaken. **Chapters 2** and **3** make use of secondary research and report on the investigation of existing literature on branding together with all its elements and personality respectively. **Chapter 4** is dedicated to a discussion of the study's research

design and methodology. The secondary and primary research, the measurement instrument, the sampling procedure for selecting potential respondents, fieldwork, data analysis as well as the ethical considerations of this research are the elements included in this chapter. **Chapter 5** discusses the results obtained from the primary research through descriptive and inferential statistics. **Chapter 6** discusses the research conclusions and managerial implications. The findings of the study are amalgamated in order to provide recommendations for marketing managers with regard to marketing communication strategies. In addition, areas for future research as well as the limitations of this study are identified and discussed in the conclusion of this chapter. The chapter concludes with a reconciliation of the research objectives.

CHAPTER 2 | BRANDING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As established in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. Since the study relates to the subject area of marketing (branding), the primary objective of this chapter is to provide an overview of the position of this study within the marketing discipline.

The research interest regarding brands continues to be strong in the marketing literature (Alden, Steenkamp & Batra, 1999; Lim & O'Cass, 2011). This chapter therefore commences with a discussion of branding as a construct within the domain of marketing, together with a discussion of the role of brands in the current marketing age. This section is followed by an examination of brand equity and its dimensions, which include brand knowledge, brand awareness, brand image, brand associations and brand personality. Special attention is paid to brand personality, as it is the dependent variable of the current study. The concept of brand personality establishes the association between this chapter and Chapter 3, which discusses the domain of personality.

2.2 BRANDING AS A CONSTRUCT

For the purpose of this study, branding as a construct was explored, together with all the relevant factors of branding, so as to assist in a better understanding of brand personality and its position in the branding hierarchy. According to Aaker (1991), brands are organisations' most important intangible assets and marketing managers must focus on building and managing strong brands that benefit the organisation as well as the consumer. Branding originated in the field of marketing (Lim & O'Cass, 2001), therefore a definition of marketing is deemed necessary.

Marketing is defined as a set of processes through which value is created, communicated and delivered (planning and executing the conception of the marketing mix – product, price, place and promotion) to customers, as well as the managing of customer relations in ways that benefit the customer, the organisation and the organisation's stakeholders (AMA, 2013; Bagozzi, 2010:245; Kotler & Keller, 2009). Hawkins, Mothersbaugh and Best (2007) note that the value an organisation provides to its consumers must be more than the value provided by competitors. This added value provided by the organisation will distinguish it from competitors and place it in a differentiated position in the market (Kotler & Keller, 2009). Lane, King and Russel (2005) argue that organisations can achieve this differentiated position in the market through the use of effective branding strategies. Creating a distinct image or character of the brand (attracting a specific target market) is one strategy marketers use to differentiate their brands from competitors'.

As stated in Chapter 1, the rapidly changing nature and highly competitive circumstances of the business environment require managers to design, develop and promote new products and brands with innovative and creative features. In doing so, they not only provide consumers with a compelling argument as to why they should choose a particular brand (Thomas & Kohli, 2009), but also create a distinction between their and their competitors' products and brands (Shen et al., 2000). According to Lim and O'Cass (2001), brands and branding are increasingly playing an important role in the marketing environment and in managers' marketing strategies. Kay (2006) supports Lim and O'Cass's (2001) opinion when he states that, in part, branding activities bridge most of the important decisions marketing managers face.

Sherry (2005:46) emphasise the importance of brands by stating that brands "embod(y) every undertaking of the company". Keller and Lehmann (2006:754) further emphasises Sherry's (2005) opinion on the importance of brands, suggesting that branding is not only an important priority in the marketing environment, but rather becoming a priority for all types of organisations and departments within organisations. The continued realisation of

the power of brands and their influence on consumers' perceptions, associations and preferences has also gained increased attention in the marketing literature, which highlights the current emphasis on the importance of brands (Kotler & Keller, 2009; Kotler & Pfoertsch, 2007; Plummer, 2000; Rao, Agarwal & Dahlhoff, 2004). Once managers understand how consumers' perceptions, associations and preferences are formed and influenced, they can develop strategies accordingly and ultimately influence consumers' actual behaviour.

Miller and Muir (2004:5) identified two key themes that are essential for understanding brands: firstly, a brand is the result of behaviour and secondly, a brand only exists in consumers' minds. The first theme refers to the impact an organisation's behaviour can have on a brand. According to Miller and Muir (2004:4), "everything a company does has the potential to impact a brand". These actions include organisational culture as well as the overall strategic direction of the organisation. The second theme is of more importance in this study and refers to the existence of brands in the minds of the consumers, which indicates that consumers (not organisations) bring brands to 'life'. Kay's research (2006) contributes to the second theme proposed by Miller and Muir (2004), stating that a brand is a collection of perceptions and the creation of associated meanings in the mind of the consumer. These perceptions and associations formed in the minds of consumers lead to a certain image of a brand held by consumers, which in turn portrays a certain personality that attracts a consumer that is congruent with a brand's personality. Over the years, marketing practices and brands' role within the marketing domain have changed. The following section briefly discusses this role and its changing nature over the years.

2.2.1 The role of brands

Branding dates back to the medieval period in Europe, when "to brand" meant to "burn with a hot iron" (Coyle, 2005:17). In 1587, branding was already used in a modern sense. During that time, branding was used to mark goods as proof of ownership and to indicate

product quality (Hofmeyr & Parton, 2006:2). By 1602, branding was used to influence the way in which consumers think, perceive, remember and learn – thus how these consumers acquire, process and store information about a brand. Brands have also long had a role in commerce, dating back to the 1800s, when manufacturing emerged and names were put on goods in order to identify the source of these goods (Aaker, 1991:7; Hofmeyr & Parton, 2006). The main purpose for the creation and development of a brand is to establish a distinct identity for the product in terms of how consumers perceive it (Joubert & Poalses, 2012). In other words, to provide primary points of differentiation. As such, it is evident that brands can be critical to the success of companies in that consumers will choose the most differentiated brand perceived as having the maximum value-added benefits (Orth, 2005; Wood, 2000).

Gardner and Levy (1955) argue that a brand name is more than a just a label differentiating among sources of a product. They believe that a brand is a "complex symbol that represents a variety of ideas and attributes" that tells a 'story' and enables consumers to build up a body of associations (Gardner & Levy, 1955:35). Various academics have refined Gardner and Levy's (1955) opinion about a brand name and defined a brand as a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors (AMA, 2007; Faircloth et al., 2001; Kotler & Keller, 2009:276; Wood, 2000). Following the definition of a brand, marketing managers identified branding as a positioning tactic used to differentiate organisations from competitors and to favourably position the organisations' brands in the minds of consumers (Aaker, 1991; Aaker & Shansby, 1982; Kotler & Keller, 2009; Lamb *et al.*, 2008; Wood, 2000).

Kotler and Keller (2009:276) also state that during the aforementioned medieval era, craftspeople put trademarks on their products to protect themselves and their customers against substandard quality imitations. It is only since the twentieth century that branding and brand associations, used to differentiate goods, have become an integral part of

modern marketing (Aaker, 1991). The focus has been shifted from the product being solely a commodity (price as the primary factor) to being a branded product (differentiation as the primary factor). In addition to identify and differentiate the goods and services of various sellers (Aaker, 1991), Kotler and Keller (2009) state that branding also provides organisations with various other benefits. Lowson, King and Hunter (1999) add to the notion that products no longer just add utilitarian value to individuals, but rather represent symbolic significance that adds value to consumers' symbolic needs, such as the need for self-expression and prestige (Bhat & Reddy, 1998). In other words, products can also be created and positioned to provide consumers with a certain status.

2.2.2 Branding dimensions

As organisations focus more and more on building stronger brands, they are creating brand equity at the same time. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the brand equity dimension has increasingly become a marketing imperative, demanding greater understanding of how to build and manage it (Keller, 1993; Lassar et al., 1995; O'Cass & Grace, 2003). Aaker (1991:15) defines brand equity as "a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or a service" to an organisation and/or its customers.

On the basis of the prior review of the literature, it was concluded that brand equity has proliferated into multiple meanings (Aaker, 1991; Davidse & Kantu, 2013; Feldwick, 1996; Hofmeyr & Parton, 2006; Keller, 1993; Tuominen, 1999; Wood, 2000). The concept of brand equity has been a topic of debate in both finance and marketing literature, which emphasises the importance of a long-term focus within brand management (Wood, 2002). According to various academics and researchers (Aaker, 1991; Alimen & Cerit, 2010; Faircloth et al., 2001; Keller, 1993; Tuominen, 1999) there are two general motivations behind studying brand equity. The first focus is a financially based motivation, whereas the second is customer based.

The second motivation for studying brand equity is consumer based. Eliot and Percy (cited in Alimen & Cerit, 2010:539) state that brand equity from a consumer's perspective is the evaluations of "consumer(s') perceptions of the brand". Keller (1993:2) believes that brand equity from a consumer's perspective (consumer-based brand equity) arises from the "differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of a brand".

As mentioned in Chapter 1, Aaker (1991) suggests that the assets underlying brand equity can mainly be divided into five dimensions or constructs, namely brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations and other proprietary brand assets (i.e. patents and trademarks). Faircloth et al.'s (2001) research suggests that brand equity is affected by brand associations, brand image and brand attitudes. Atilgan et al. (2005) support Faircloth et al.'s (2001) research. They believe that brand associations and brand image are specifically significant influences on brand equity, since these dimensions positively influence consumers' perceptions, resulting in a positive brand image that will give rise to brand equity.

As the main focus of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personality and specific brand personalities, brand awareness, brand image and brand associations are key focus areas in this chapter. These dimensions and their relevance are illustrated in Figure 2.1 and addressed in subsequent sections.

THE BRANDING CONCEPT AND ITS ELEMENTS
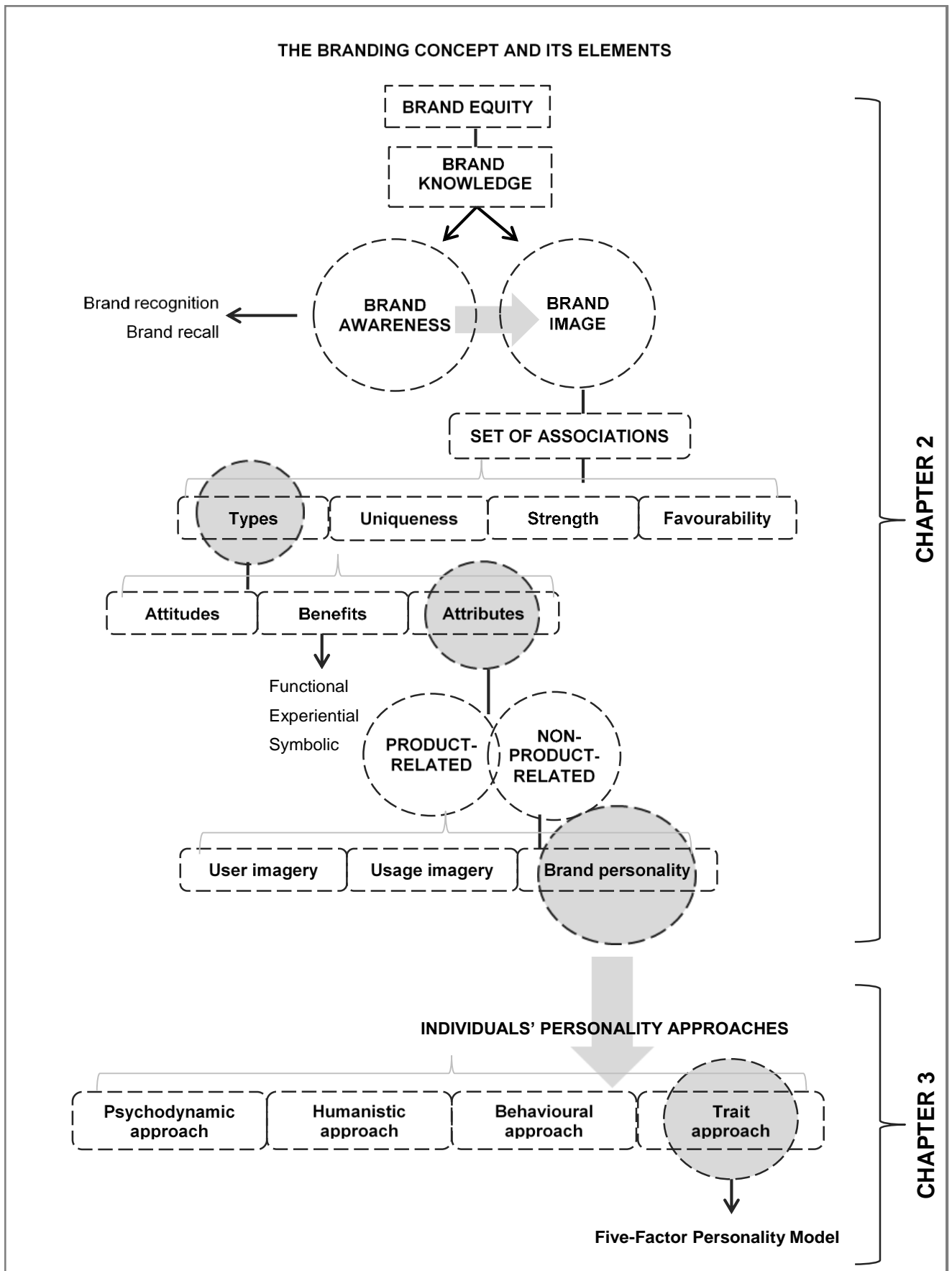
Figure 2.1: Summary of the literature

Source: Adapted from Aaker (1991); Alimen & Cerit (2011); Biel (1992); Keller (1993); Pitta & Katsanis (1995); Tuominen (1999); Yoo & Donthu (2001)

- 28 -

2.3 BRAND KNOWLEDGE

Tuominen (1999) believes that brand knowledge is a key element in creating consumer-based brand equity. Brand knowledge is a topic in the branding literature that has been debated by various academics and researchers (see Biel, 1992; Faircloth et al., 2001; Hoeffler & Keller, 2003; Keller, 1993; Pitta & Katsanis, 1995). In terms of brand knowledge in the marketing literature, one widely adopted conceptualisation involves the "Associative Network Memory Model" (Hoeffler & Keller, 2003; Keller, 1993; Wyer & Srull, 1989). According to this model, a brand will have a node in consumers' memories, with a variety of associations that will be linked to various other nodes (Keller, 1993:2; Tuominen, 1999:76). These nodes are stored information connected by links that vary in strength. In a research study undertaken by Hoeffler and Keller (2003), they agree with Keller's (1993) definition when arguing that all types of brand nodes in a consumer's memory may be linked to the brand to make up its brand association. In other words, brand knowledge is all associations (feelings, attributes, benefits, thoughts, attitudes, experiences) and personal meaning about a particular brand when thinking about it (Keller, 2003; Kotler & Keller, 2009:281). Brand knowledge can be created in a number of ways, which managers should consider when wanting to create positive brand associations and images for their brands. Managers should therefore realise that any possible encounter with a brand, whether marketing initiated or not, has the opportunity to change the representation of the brand and the type of information that can possibly appear in consumers' memory.

According to Keller (1993), brand knowledge can be defined in terms of two components: *brand awareness* – which relates to consumers' ability to recognise or recall a brand, and *brand image* – which consists of consumers' accumulated brand associations and perceptions (Tuominen, 1999). These two components of brand knowledge are illustrated in Figure 2.2.
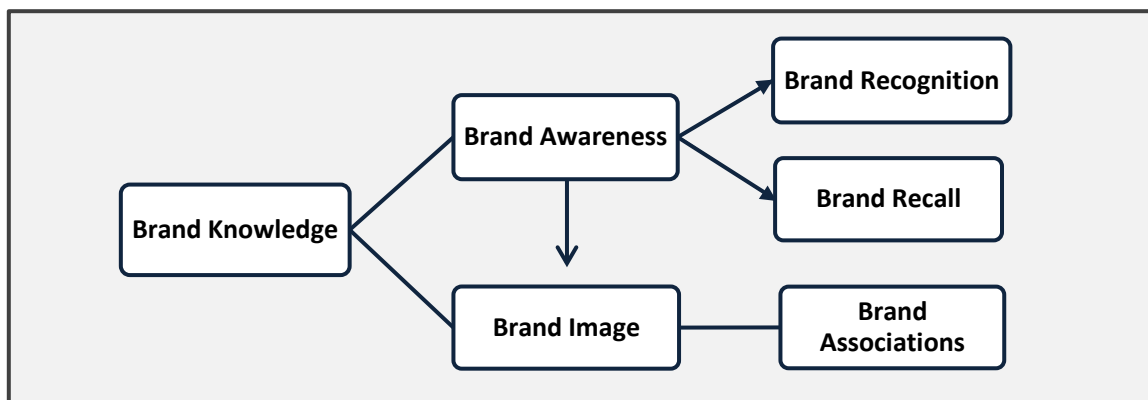
Figure 2.2: Brand knowledge component

Source: Adapted from Keller (1993), Tuominen (1999) and Yoo and Donthu (2001)

Keller (1993) argues that brand awareness is necessary for the creation of brand image, as brand image refers to a set of associations relating to a particular brand in a consumer's memory. Brand awareness also affects brand image, as brand awareness is the extent to which a consumer can recognise or recall a particular brand and, as a result, form an image of that brand (Hoeffler & Keller, 2003; Keller, 1993; Macdonald & Sharp, 2003). Thus, understanding the content and structure of brand knowledge is important to managers because it influences consumers' brand awareness as well as their perceptions regarding a brand's image. Brand knowledge is also important in this study, as it plays a major role in the creation of brand image, which is linked to consumers' perceptions and associations with the brand, which in turn are linked to a brand's perceived personality, as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

2.3.1 Brand awareness

The first component distinguishing brand knowledge is brand awareness. Various definitions of brand awareness have surfaced over time, but the conceptualisation remains similar. Hoyer and Brown (1990) define brand awareness as the primary level of "brand knowledge involving, at the least, recognition of the brand name". Keller (1993) and Esch et al. (2006) believe that brand awareness is related to the strength of the brand node in a consumer's memory, which is reflected by consumers' ability to identify and remember a particular brand under different conditions. Ross's (2006) definition states

that brand awareness is the strength of a brand's presence in the consumer's mind. Aaker (1991) and Yoo and Donthu's (2001) definitions combine the above descriptions of brand awareness and define it as a potential consumer's ability to and the extent to which a consumer can recognise or recall a particular brand as part of a product category.

Derived from the conceptualisation above, and as illustrated in Figure 2.2, Keller (1993) categorises brand awareness into *brand recognition* and *brand recall*. Brand recognition refers to consumers' ability to confirm prior exposure to the brand when given the brand as a cue, in aided or prompted recall (Alimen & Cerit, 2010; Keller, 1993; Thomas & Kohli, 2009). Brand recall relates to the consumer's ability to retrieve the brand when given a probe, such as the product category or the needs fulfilled by the category (unaided recall or top-of-mind) and is one of the most common ways to measure brand awareness (Esch et al., 2006; Keller, 1993; Thomas & Kohli, 2009; Tuominen, 1999). Both brand recognition and brand recall can be assessed through a number of aided and unaided memory measures, while brand recall can also be assessed in terms of the order in which a consumer can recall a number of brands (Esch et al., 2006).

Brand awareness is of high importance to marketing managers for a number of reasons. Firstly, products with high brand awareness form part of a consumer's consideration set – the few selected brands that receive consideration for purchase (Baker, Hutchinson, Moore & Nedungadi, 1986; Panchal, Khan & Ramesh, 2012). According to Macdonald and Sharp (2003), brand awareness has a notable effect on consumer decision making by influencing which brands are selected for consideration, as well as what brand is selected from the consideration set. Secondly, brand awareness affects decisions made regarding the brands in the consideration set through the use of heuristic cues (Macdonald & Sharp, 2003). Thirdly, organisations can gain a significant competitive advantage through brand awareness (Alimen & Cerit, 2010). Once the organisation's brand is the preferred brand choice among consumers, an increase in consumer-based brand equity will follow. Lastly, brand awareness influences the creation and strength of brand

associations, which leads to the creation of brand image (Keller, 1993). Furthermore, consumers cannot form a brand image unless they have brand awareness (Alimen & Cerit, 2010; Macdonald & Sharp, 2003), thus brand awareness is a necessary condition for the creation of brand image (Esch et al., 2006).

In other words, when a brand is well established in consumers' memory, it is easier to attach meaning to that brand and establish it firmly in memory (Esch et al., 2006). In the light of the review of the literature, it is concluded that brand awareness is necessary to create, as well as affect, brand image.

2.3.2 Brand image

After managers have created brand awareness, it is suggested they create a set of positive associations with the particular brand in the mind of the consumer. According to Pitta and Katsanis (1995), this task is the essence of creating a positive brand image. Brand image has long been recognised as a key concept in marketing, with Gardner and Levy (1955) being the first to formally introduce the importance of communicating an organisation's brand image to a target segment. During the 1980s, brand image became a common research area in consumer behaviour, and it has not faded since (Bian & Moutinho, 2011; Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990). Despite its long existence, Dobni and Zinkhan (1990) suggest that there is less agreement on the appropriate definition of brand image. Researchers generally define brand image as a set of brand associations that differentiate the brand in the minds of consumers (Biel, 1992; Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990; Faircloth et al., 2001; Keller, 1993; Kotler & Keller, 2009; Pitta & Katsanis, 1995). It therefore is concluded that consumers' associations with a particular brand constitute the brand's image.

The similarity between the concepts brand image and brand associations is highlighted by various studies that use brand image to determine brand associations and, in contrast, use brand associations to determine brand image (Biel, 1992; Faircloth et al., 2001; James, 2005; Keller, 1993; Low & Lamb, 2000). As mentioned in Chapter 1, it therefore

can be concluded that brand image and brand associations are two similar concepts that are used interchangeably. For the purpose of this study, no specific distinction is made between these two concepts and the following section will focus on "brand associations".

2.4 BRAND ASSOCIATIONS

Brand associations are referred to as the attributes of a brand that come into consumers' minds when reminded of that brand, and are related to the implicit and explicit meanings that a consumer associates with a specific brand name (Aaker, 1991; Brand associations, 2013; Faircloth et al., 2001). Keller (1993:3) also refers to brand associations as the "other informal nodes linked to the brand node in memory", which contain the meaning of a particular brand for a consumer. Brand associations have also been referred to as "anything about the likeableness of a brand", which also helps in the formation of that brand's image (James, 2005:14). Figure 2.3 illustrates the dimensions of brand associations as suggested by Keller (1993; 1998).
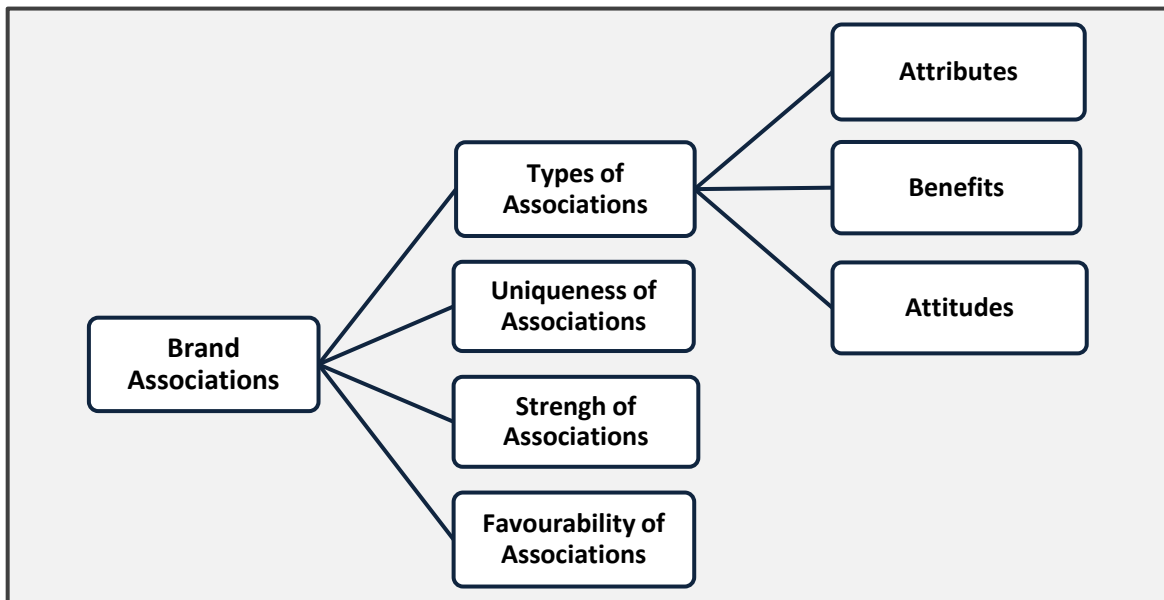
Figure 2.3: The dimensions of brand associations

Source: Adapted from Keller (1993; 1998) and Tuominen (1999)

According to Keller (1993), the favourability, strength, uniqueness and types of brand associations are the dimensions distinguishing brand knowledge, which plays an

important role in the development of brand equity (see Figures 2.1 and 2.3). The *types* of brand associations refers to consumers' beliefs that the brand has attributes, benefits and attitudes that satisfy their needs so that a positive overall brand attitude is formed (Keller, 1993). Keller (1993) also argues that the success of a marketing programme is reflected in the creation of *favourable* associations. Thus, marketers can manage their marketing programmes in such a way that they create favourable brand associations – associations with the brand that marketers want to communicate to consumers, as well as associations that match consumers' expectations.

Brand associations can also be characterised by the strength of the connection with the brand node. Therefore, the *strength* of associations depends on how the information enters consumers' memory, as well as how that information is maintained (Keller, 1993). When marketers want to create strong associations, they should present consumers with information that is deemed relevant, as well as information that is consistent over time (Tuominen, 1999). The last dimension distinguishing brand knowledge is the *uniqueness* of brand associations, which refers to the extent to which brand associations are shared with other competing brands (Keller, 1993). The uniqueness of brand associations is the essence of brand positioning – which means that a brand has a unique selling proposition (USP) that persuades consumers to buy that particular brand (Aaker, 1982; Kotler & Keller, 2009). The image strategy marketers implement involves building a personality for the product or creating an image of the product user (Meenaghan, 1995). Therefore, a USP of a particular brand can include the creation of a personality for that brand that would attract the targeted consumer. In this sense, the brand associations would be unique, favourable and strong. The different types of associations identified by Keller (1993) are discussed in the following section.

2.4.1 Types of brand associations

Keller (1993) suggests that it is useful to examine the different types of brand associations that may be present in consumers' memory so that marketers can identify these associations and target consumers accordingly. Brand associations take different forms, and a way of distinguishing among brand associations is by their level of abstraction (Keller, 1993:3). The level of abstraction refers to the amount of information that is summarised or considered in the association. Along this dimension, as illustrated in Figure 2.4, the types of brand associations can be classified into three categories: attitudes, benefits and attributes. Several additional distinctions (according to the qualitative nature of the association) can be made within these categories. The three broad categories of associations, as well as the additional distinctions, are illustrated in Figure 2.4.
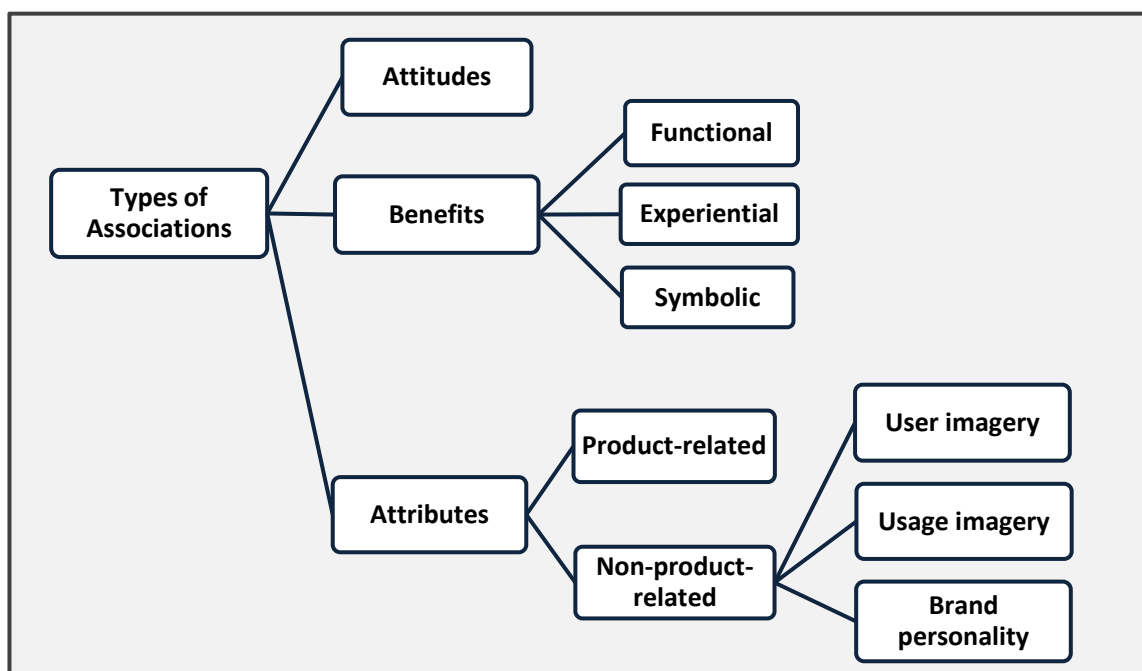
Figure 2.4: Types of associations

Source: Adapted from Grace and O'Cass (2002), Keller (1993; 1998), and Tuominen (1999)

2.4.1.1 Attitudes

The first and, according to Tuominen (1999:85), the most abstract type of association, is brand attitudes. Brand attitudes are consumers' overall evaluations of a brand and are

important because they often form the basis of consumers' buying behaviour, such as their brand preference or choice (Keller, 1993; Low & Lamb, 2000; Wilkie, 1986). The multi-attribute attitude model is the most widely accepted brand attitude approach and is based on the fact that consumers' brand attitudes generally depend on specific considerations concerning the benefits and attributes of the brand (Keller, 1993). Therefore, once consumers realise the brand attributes and benefits of a particular brand, they will form an overall attitude toward the brand.

2.4.1.2 Benefits

Benefits are seen as the personal value a consumer attaches to the brand attributes, thus what consumers think the brand can do for them (Keller, 1993; Pitta & Katsanis, 1995). Benefits are what consumers seek when purchasing a particular brand (Puth, Mostert & Ewing, 1999). According to Bian and Moutinho (2011:195), the perceived benefits are associated with consumers' perceptions of the product or brand attributes and the brand personality.

Benefits can further also be classified as functional, experiential or symbolic, depending on the underlying motivations to which they relate (Keller, 1993; 1998; Park et al., 1986). *Functional* benefits relate to the intrinsic features possessed by brands and are mostly linked to the product-related attributes and relatively low-level needs (Keller, 1993; Pitta & Katsanis, 1995). Brands that add functional value to consumers usually satisfy consumers' immediate and practical needs (Bhat & Reddy, 1998; Strahilevitz, 1999). Consumers may also gain *experiential* benefits from buying a particular brand. These benefits are the features of a brand that satisfy experiential needs such as sensory pleasure and cognitive stimulation (Keller, 1993). Lastly, consumers may gain *symbolic* benefits, which are more extrinsic advantages relating to the consumption of the brand and refer to what the brand articulates about consumers – to themselves as well as to others – and is the central focus of the current study. These benefits satisfy internally

generated consumer needs, such as self-enhancement and group membership (Jung Wan, 2009).

2.4.1.3 Attributes

As defined above, attributes are those features that characterise a product. In other words, they comprise what consumers think the product is or has and what the purchase or consumption thereof entails. According to Aaker (1991), the most used positioning approach is to associate an object with a brand attribute. Attributes also relate to the performance of brands; thus, as Keller (1993) suggests, attributes can either be product-related or non-product-related (see Figure 2.4). *Product-related* attributes are the physical features of the product that are necessary for performing the product's intended primary function. Hence, these attributes relate to a product's physical composition (Keller, 1998; Tuominen, 1999). It is also noted that these product-related attributes vary according to the product's performance.

For the purpose of this study, the focus is on *non-product-related* attributes, which are the external aspects of the product (Keller, 1993; Tuominen, 1999). These attributes are said to have an effect on the purchase or consumption decision consumers make, but not on the actual performance of the particular product (Tuominen, 1999). According to Grace and O'Cass (2002:97), Keller's (1998) modified brand knowledge model proposes that non-product-related attributes are categorised according to a product's price, the user and usage imagery, brand personality and feelings and experiences. Keller (1993:4) argues that the price of a product does not directly relate to the product's performance. It therefore is categorised as a non-product-related attribute and is also of no relevance to this study. According to Liu, Li, Mizerski and Soh (2012), the three main non-product-related attributes are user imagery, usage imagery and brand personality (see Figure 2.4).

User and usage imagery attributes can be formed either directly from consumers' own experiences and/or contact with other brand users, or indirectly through the portrayal of the target market as communicated by the organisation's marketing programmes (brand

advertising), or by another source of information, such as word of mouth (Tuominen, 1999). Biel (1992) and Shimp (cited in Liu et al., 2012) both believe that user and usage imagery make an important contribution to a brand's image. Typical brand user associations (user imagery) are based on consumers' demographic factors, such as age, gender, race, level of education, language abilities, and income or psychographic factors such as possessions, the environment or one's attitude toward a career. Thus, associations can be formed according to who a consumer thinks uses or consumes a particular product or brand. Tuominen (1999) also suggests that associations relating to a typical usage situation (usage imagery) might be based on factors such as time of day, week or year; the location of usage (inside or outside); or the type of activity (formal or informal). Thus, consumers may associate a particular product or brand with factors such as when, where and how the product or brand is used.

Both the usage and user imagery attributes can also produce certain brand personality attributes – as suggested by Keller (1993). According to Plummer (1985), one component of brand image is the personality or character of the brand itself, and therefore brands can be characterised by personality descriptors such as "gentle", "rugged" and "youthful". Lannon (1991) agrees that brand personality flows from brand associations. She suggests that "[b]rands are bought for who they are as well as [for] what they are". Derived from both Plummer (1985) and Lannon's (1991) beliefs, it was concluded that there is a clear connection between individuals' associations with non-product-related brand attributes (or a brand's image) and a brand's perceived personality – all contributing to brand equity. As the purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personality and specific brand personalities, the subsequent section is dedicated to an in-depth discussion of the concept of brand personality and all its facets.

2.5 BRAND PERSONALITY

As illustrated in Figure 2.1 and discussed in prior sections, the concept of brand personality can be linked back to the main concept defining branding in the current marketing era, namely brand equity, which is related to brand knowledge and brand associations. Brand personality literature has now evolved beyond the point of simply recognising the existence of brand personality to one where marketers and researchers alike are now invested and interested in its practical implications in the marketing domain (Freling et al., 2011). As mentioned, the current study seeks to partially address the increased interest by investigating the link between brand personality and individual personality. Depending on the outcome of the possible link, marketers can adapt the complete marketing and advertising strategy of their brand/s so as to appeal to the intended target market.

A clear conceptualisation and operationalisation of brand personality remains somewhat vague and indistinguishable from other constructs in the branding literature, such as brand awareness, brand image or brand identity (Freling & Forbes, 2012; Heere, 2010). References to brand personality first appeared in the marketing literature in the early 1950s, when Gardner and Levy (1955) suggested that brands have an embedded set of characteristics that are evaluated by consumers in complex ways. Levy (1959) was the first researcher to point out the changes from a mere functional usage of consumer goods to an extended symbolic meaning as a method of distinction. Levy (1958; 1959) examined how the specific symbolism of a brand conveys information regarding consumers' demographics, such as the age, gender and class of the brand user. In his research, Levy (1958) describes how consumers aim to purchase brands with symbolic meaning in accordance with the image they would like to direct to their social surrounding. Although Levy's (1958; 1959) research can be considered the initial foundation of the brand personality concept, it rather focuses on the idea of a brand's symbolic meaning.

Over the years, the interest in brands' symbolic value has expanded. Today, marketers implement various strategies to instil brands with personality traits in order to differentiate them from other brands (Heere, 2010; Klink & Athaide, 2012). Examples of such strategies are highlighted by brands such as Coca-Cola, which is associated with personality traits such as being all-American, cool and real, while Pepsi is associated with traits such as being young, hip and exciting (Johnson, 2011). Plummer (1985; 2000) was the first to extensively take on the term "brand personality" in his research, along with the Dwork of Aaker (1997), who is considered one of the major researchers shaping brand personality theory. Freling and Forbes (2005) argue that researchers have progressively started to investigate brand personality and its influence on consumers' perceptions, associations and preferences due to the increased importance of brands in marketing strategy. According to various sources, brand personality includes a variety of benefits, including:

- enhancing consumers' attachment to a brand through the investment of personal meaning (Levy, 1959);
- assisting marketing managers in developing the attributes that are most often interpreted as emotional by the consumer (Landon, 1974); and
- helping marketing managers to develop distinctive positioning strategies that will enable them to differentiate their brands (Crask & Laskey, 1990).

In spite of the increased attention being paid to research in the brand personality domain, Ambroise et al. (2005:7) are of the opinion that researchers are still unclear about the conceptualisation of brand personality. They suggest that brand personality is defined "through [personality] traits utilised to characterize an individual", and that brand personality should "transfer meaning from human personality" to a particular brand. After a review of the literature concerning brand personality, it was concluded that researchers generally define brand personality according to the seminal work conducted by Aaker (1997).

Aaker (1997) defines brand personality as the human qualities and characteristics possessed by brands. It therefore includes characteristics such as gender, age and socio-economic class (Levy, 1959), as well as human personality traits such as warmth, concern and sentimentality (Aaker, 1996; Plummer, 2000). Brand personality is also regarded as a particular type of brand association by Aaker (1992) (see Figure 2.1 and Section 2.4). Ambroise et al. (2005) revised Aaker's (1997) definition by making it more specific. They argue that some qualities and characteristics of brands are not comparable at the human level. Thus they define brand personality as the "set of human personality [traits] associated with a brand" (Ambroise et al., 2005:7).

The definition of brand personality indicates that human attributes are assigned to a non-human object. Guthrie (cited in Kaplan, Yurt, Guneri & Kurtulus, 2010:1290) refers to such an attribution as anthropomorphism, which is the "transmission of human characteristics to non-human things and events" such as brands. According to Ambroise et al. (2005), animism theories postulate that humans have a need to anthropomorphise non-human objects in order to facilitate their interaction with the world. This therefore entails the assigning of human personality traits to brands. Wee (2004) argues that, because human personality traits are attributable to brands, the personality of brands would then be likely to function in the same way as the personality of humans. Fournier (1998) regards the connection between brands and consumers' personal identity as a brand-consumer relationship (discussed in Section 2.5.1).

Plummer (2000) suggests that there are two different facets of brand personality: input, that is what marketers want consumers to think and feel; and out-take, what consumers actually do think and feel. These two perspectives of brand personality are expressed through the brand personality statement from a conceptual side, and the brand personality profile on the other side. Figure 2.5 illustrates these two perspectives.

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                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │    Brand personality    │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
                       ↙                 ↘
   ┌──────────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────────┐
   │ Brand personality statement│ │ Brand personality profile │
   │         (input)          │   │        (out-take)        │
   └──────────────────────────┘   └──────────────────────────┘
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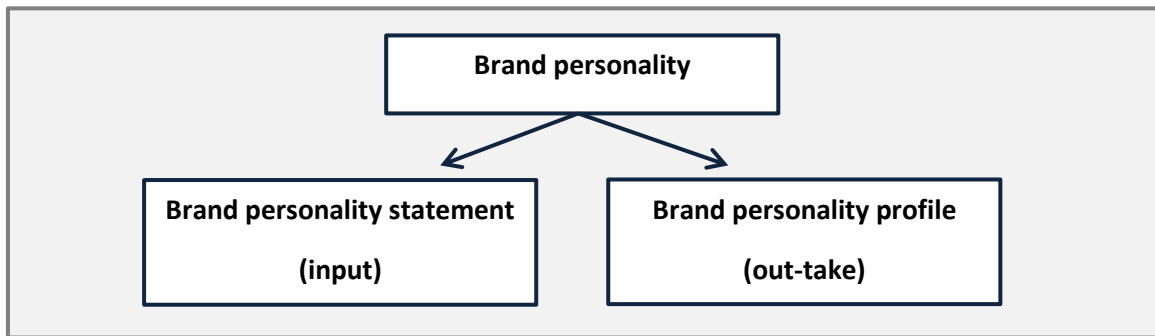
Figure 2.5: Brand personality facets

Source: Adapted from Plummer (2000)

A brand personality statement is characterised as a strategic tool for the creative individuals and functions as a guideline for marketing activities targeted towards the consumer. Plummer (2000) suggests that a brand personality statement is an articulation of what marketers ultimately want consumers to feel about the brand over time (input). On the other hand, brand personality profiles are different (in write-up, measurement and evaluation) from statements and represents consumer perceptions of the brand (out-take). Brand personality profiles should identify noticeable components of a brand's personality, thus indicate which dimensions are strong and which dimensions are weak. Having taken a consumer-orientated perspective in the current study, the focus is on the brand personality profile within the brand personality construct.

The consumers' perceptions of the brand, together with the physical attributes and functional characteristics of a brand, affect whether consumers see themselves in a particular brand (or vice versa) or not (Plummer, 2000). Levy (1959) initially argued that brand personality is closely related to consumers' desire to attain self-congruence. Self-concept and self-congruence are discussed in the following section.

2.5.1 Self-concept, self-congruence and brand personality

Either deliberately or unintentionally, people view possessions as part of themselves. Belk (1988) believes that consumers view possessions as part of them because the possessions create their extended self. Tuan (1980:472) first realised this when he argued

that consumers' fragile sense of self is supported by possessing "things", because, to a large extent, "we are what we possess". The idea of "the self" is said to influence consumers' behaviour and has therefore been the driving force of numerous marketing strategies. By associating a brand with personality traits (building a brand personality), marketers provide consumers with self-expressive benefits. Batra, Lehmann and Singh (1993) found that consumers seek brands with personalities that are congruent with their actual or ideal personalities (self).

According to Sirgy (1982), consumers' self-concepts consist of their actual self (how they perceive themselves), their ideal self (how they would like to perceive themselves) and their social self (how they present themselves to others). Consumers' self-concepts affect their behaviour as they purchase goods that express their identity. In other words, consumers attempt to match a brand's personality with their self-concept (Sirgy, 1982). When consumers succeed in matching a brand's personality with their self-concept, they have reached self-congruence. Therefore, individuals tend to behave in accordance with these perceptions of themselves or in accordance with the image they wish to convey to others. Belk (1988) and Schutz-Kleine, Kleine and Allan (1995) believe that brands can be used as a vehicle to communicate these images. Ambroise et al. (2005) suggest that it is along these lines that the concept of brand personality has emerged.

Self-congruence is guided by two self-concept motives: the need for self-esteem and for self-consistency. The greater the match between a brand's personality and consumers' ideal self, the more likely it is that consumers assume that the use of the brand will increase their self-esteem. Consumers therefore purchase specific brands in order to decrease the differences between their actual self and their ideal self. The second self-concept motive is the need for self-consistency, which motivates consumers to behave in a manner that is consistent with their actual self. According to Kressmann, Sirgy, Herrmann, Huber, Huber and Lee (2006), consumers wish to protect their beliefs about themselves and therefore prefer brands that allow for that.

Considering that product characteristics interact with consumers' self-concept (Sirgy, 1985), a parallel relationship between brand and consumer relationships can be drawn (Fournier, 1998). According to Sirgy (1985), a brand can be highly congruent with consumers' self-concepts in one consumption situation and not congruent with their self-concepts in another. In his research, Sirgy (1982) established four self-congruence comparisons (from strongest level of purchase motivation) between the brand and consumers' self-concept that may influence consumers' behaviour: positive self-congruence (positive product image perception matches a positive self-concept belief), positive self-incongruence (positive product perception matches a negative self-concept belief), negative self-congruence (both the product image perception and self-concept belief are negative) and, lastly, negative self-incongruence (negative product perception matches a positive self-concept belief).

This level of congruence between a brand and a consumer has shown to have a large influence on consumers' brand preference, as mentioned (Sirgy, 1982; 1985; Fournier, 1998; Mengxia, 2007). In his research, Sirgy (1985) demonstrates that ideal congruence and self-congruence may influence consumers' purchase motivation, as well as their preference for a specific brand. Numerous research studies regarding this relationship between brands and consumers have come to the conclusion that consumers prefer brands congruent with their self-concept (Fournier, 1998; Mengxia, 2007; Grohmann, 2009). The suggested reason for this tendency is that brands congruent with consumers' self-concept allow consumers to reinforce their actual or ideal view of themselves and, as such, support them to achieve their personal goals. As both brand personality and self-concept consist of multiple dimensions, congruence can only be reached when dimensions of both brand personality and consumers' self-concept are matched (Grohmann, 2009). In order to establish whether consumers do indeed purchase products and brands that match their self-concept or personality, both these constructs need to be

measured; hence the dimensions and measurement of brand personality are discussed in the following section.

2.5.2 Brand personality dimensions and measurement

The main critique of brand personality measurement methods is the lack of empirically tested measuring tools and, as a result, the majority of research is based on a variety of subjectively categorised character traits (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003). However, there had been no formal measure of brand personality until the seminal work of Aaker (1997), which contributed to the stream of branding literature. Aaker (1997) developed a formal brand personality scale (BPS) to measure a brand's symbolic and self-expressive function.

The BPS is a five-factor model operationalised in terms of human characteristics and was inspired by die "Big Five" model (see Chapter 3) of human personality (Ambroise et al., 2005; Batra et al., 1993; Nobre, Becker & Brito, 2010). Aaker's (1997) five factors (personality dimensions) expressing a brand's personality, derived from fifteen personality traits, are: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness. Aaker's (1997) original fifteen traits, as well as the five personality dimensions derived from them, are illustrated in Table 2.1

Table 2.1: Brand personality framework

Dimensions	Traits
Sincerity	Down-to-earth Honest Wholesome Cheerful
Excitement	Daring Spirited Imaginative Up-to-date
Competence	Reliable Intelligent Successful
Sophistication	Upper class Charming
Ruggedness	Outdoorsy Tough

Source: Adapted from Aaker (1997)

Aaker's (1997) work has been regarded as highly influential, as it has added to the missing validity and generalisability of the concept of brand personality, and has also been used as the foundation by most researchers. However, it was realised that only three of the five brand personality dimensions (sincerity, excitement and competence) correlate directly with three of the "Big Five" personality dimensions (agreeableness, extroversion and relation to this conclusion, Caprara, Barbaranelli and Guido's (2001) research results lead researchers to question the transferability of a human personality scale to brands. It is believed that descriptors of human personality express different meanings when attributed to different brands. With only three dimensions having a direct correlation, and the questionable transferability of the BPS, researchers cannot accurately and reliably draw conclusions about the relationship between brand personality and individual personality.

With the above argument taken into consideration, the researcher further investigated the existence of scales with a higher correlation with the "Big Five" dimension. Mulyanegara et al. (2009), whose research was built upon Aaker's seminal work, revealed a BPS that

correlates with the "Big Five" personality dimensions. Their research indicated four brand personality dimensions that are reflective of the "Big Five" model. Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) four brand personality dimensions, as well as the traits comprising each dimension, are illustrated in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Brand personality dimensions

Dimensions	Traits
Trusted	Reliable Trustful Persevering Traditional
Sociable	Creative Friendly Outgoing Emotional
Exciting	Adventurous Cool Active
Sincere	Simple Caring

Source: Adapted from Mulyanegara et al. (2009)

These brand personality dimensions that best reflect the "Big Five" model dimensions of all other existing brand personality scales are consistent with the research objective of this study, which was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. It therefore was decided that Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) approach and BPS would best assess consumers' brand personality associations and the link between individual personality and brand personality.

Back in 1899, Veblen (cited in Liu et al., 2012) argued that consumers purchase particular products and brands to form and sustain their image. A brand that expresses a particular image can provide self-expressive benefits (see Section 2.5.1), where consumers can use brands to express and represent their own self-image (Aaker, 1996; Ligas, 2000). Aaker's (1996) opinion is supported by other researchers, who believe that a brand's personality

enables consumers' to express themselves or dimensions of the self (Aaker, 1999; Hem & Iversen, 2002; Kleine, Klein & Kernan, 1993). De Chernatony and McDonald (1998) also suggest that a brand's personality projects its values and creates a basic image of its typical user, which might translate into the ideal image of the consumer. In the same sense, consumers who want to express themselves or dimensions of themselves would want to express their personality by purchasing a brand that projects the corresponding image. Dolich (1969) was the first to suggest that consumers prefer to buy products and brands that best reflect their personality, although his theory lacked empirical support. Later, Dolich's (1969) theory was also supported by Govers and Schoormans (2005), who also suggest that consumers prefer brands that are congruent with their personality (see Section 2.5.1). On the basis of the above suggestions, there is a clear gap in the field of marketing research that has been realised in terms of the correlation between consumers' personality or character and a brand that reflects/enhances that personality – in other words, the brand also reflecting characteristics or, better defined by Aaker (1997) and various others, as brand personality (Freling et al., 2011).

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed to provide a perspective on the position of this study within the domain of marketing. First, branding and its role in the current marketing era were discussed. It was established that branding has become more than merely a commodity, but rather a basis of differentiation for an organisation, as well as a source of symbolic significance for the consumer. Brand equity and its dimensions were then examined, since these are the basis of creating strong brands, as well as the foundation of the brand personality concept (Aaker, 1991). Brand knowledge, brand awareness, brand image and brand associations were examined in order to establish the association between brand equity and brand personality – which was the last construct discussed in this chapter. The aspects of this chapter were discussed in detail, as they form the basis of the current study.

CHAPTER 3 | PERSONALITY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Personality research has been the basis of psychology since early 20th century and has been used across various other disciplines outside the domain of psychology (Monte, 1999; Pervin & John, 1992). Despite its growing popularity in other areas of social science, personality research in the marketing domain is considered limited (Baumgartner, 2002). Since the primary objective of this study was to determine whether specific personality types have any relation to brands with a perceived corresponding brand personality, it is necessary to examine the basis of the personality construct. The focus of this chapter therefore is on providing theoretical background on the subject of individual personality and its position within the marketing domain.

The chapter commences by defining the personality concept. In this attempt it was concluded that personality is still a source of confusion and debate among researchers (Hogan & Roberts, 2001). No general approach exists to study personality, thus the second section provides an overview of the different approaches to personality used in the domain of personality. Special attention is given to the trait approach, since trait theory is best suited to assess individuals' personality. Traits are also the most likely to explain individuals' behaviour (Bergh & Theron, 2006; Corr & Matthews, 2009; Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). The chapter concludes with a discussion of the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality, as well as the FFM's five personality dimensions and their association with brand personality.

3.2 DEFINING THE PERSONALITY CONCEPT

Due to the complex nature of the personality domain, individuals' personality has been the subject of a vast number of academic research studies. Personality is a broad field of

study consisting of various elements that contribute to a large number of domains, spanning decades of research (Allport, 1924). In his attempt to develop a satisfactory definition of personality, Allport (cited in Engler, 1985) arrived at over 50 different definitions. His research efforts indicate that there is little common agreement among personality theorists on the appropriate use of the term. Bergh and Theron (2006:284) support Allport (cited in Engler, 1985) when they state that no generally accepted approach to study personality exists. Personality is still viewed as ineffable and a source of confusion and debate (Hogan & Roberts, 2001:12). Therefore, no clear conceptualisation of personality exists with which all personality theorists would agree.

However, Bergh and Theron (2006:291) argue that there is some agreement on certain aspects that should be included in a definition of personality. Most psychologists also agree that a sufficient explanation of personality can only be realised when both the interaction between the characteristics or traits of an individual and the situation or environment are considered (Bergh & Theron, 2006). These aspects are:

- The external, visible or observable physical appearances, behaviour and traits (the original meaning of personality)

- Possible invisible, hidden or unconscious behaviours, emotions, attitudes, values, thoughts and feelings within people

- Enduring patterns and consistencies (shyness in situations), but also the dynamic nature of behaviour (motivation and change)

- The uniqueness of each person

- The necessity to accept that personality refers to a living human able to adapt to situations

- Organisation or wholeness and differentiation in personality, a personal being and mind with all its separate and integrated functions

Although no consensus has been reached on the conceptualisation of personality, the following contemporary definitions of personality follow similar central ideas and incorporate most of the above aspects. Funder (2004:5) defines personality as an "individual's characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, and behaviour, together with the psychological mechanisms … behind those patterns". Larsen and Buss (2005:4) describe personality as a "set of psychological mechanisms within" individuals that are "organized and relatively enduring and that influence" their interactions with the physical and social environments. Mayer (2007) believes there is a central definition of personality that is in use today, but that is worded differently by different psychologists. He suggests the central definition of personality is defined as the "organized, developing system within the individual that represents the collective action of that individual's major psychological subsystems (Mayer, 2007:14). Pervin, Cervone and John's (2005:6) definition is more simplistic and apprehensible. They define personality as "those characteristics of the person that account for consistent patterns of feelings, thinking, and behaving". For the purpose of this research study, Pervin et al.'s (2005) definition will be accepted. As mentioned, personality is a broad field of study that comprises various theories and approaches. Now that personality has been defined in terms of this study, a deeper analysis can be done within this domain. The following section entails a discussion of various approaches to personality used by psychologists and researchers.

3.3 APPROACHES TO PERSONALITY

Many influences are responsible for there not being one generally accepted approach to studying personality. The lack of integration between these influences can be criticised; however, the richness of various types of theories, assumptions and methods provides for creative thinking about human behaviour. According to Bergh and Theron (2006:279), personality theories provide conceptual and integrative systems or paradigms. The aim of

these numerous theories is uniform in that they strive to describe, explain, assess and, in some way, predict human behaviour in a way that is rational and reliable.

The four major theories most commonly referred to in psychology are the psychoanalytic/ psychodynamic, humanistic/existential, cognitive-behavioural and trait theories. These four personality approaches/theories are illustrated in Figure 3.1 and discussed in the subsequent sections. The discussion will focus solely on how these different theories view personality. However, special attention is given to the discussion on trait theory, since it is often utilised in practice to explain individuals' behaviour (Kassarjian, 1971; Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009; Mulyanegara et al., 2009; Rajagopal, 2010). The study conducted by Roberts et al. (2007) recognises the validity of utilising personality traits to other factors in explaining and understanding how consumers think, feel and act, thus explaining their perceptions of and associations with brands.
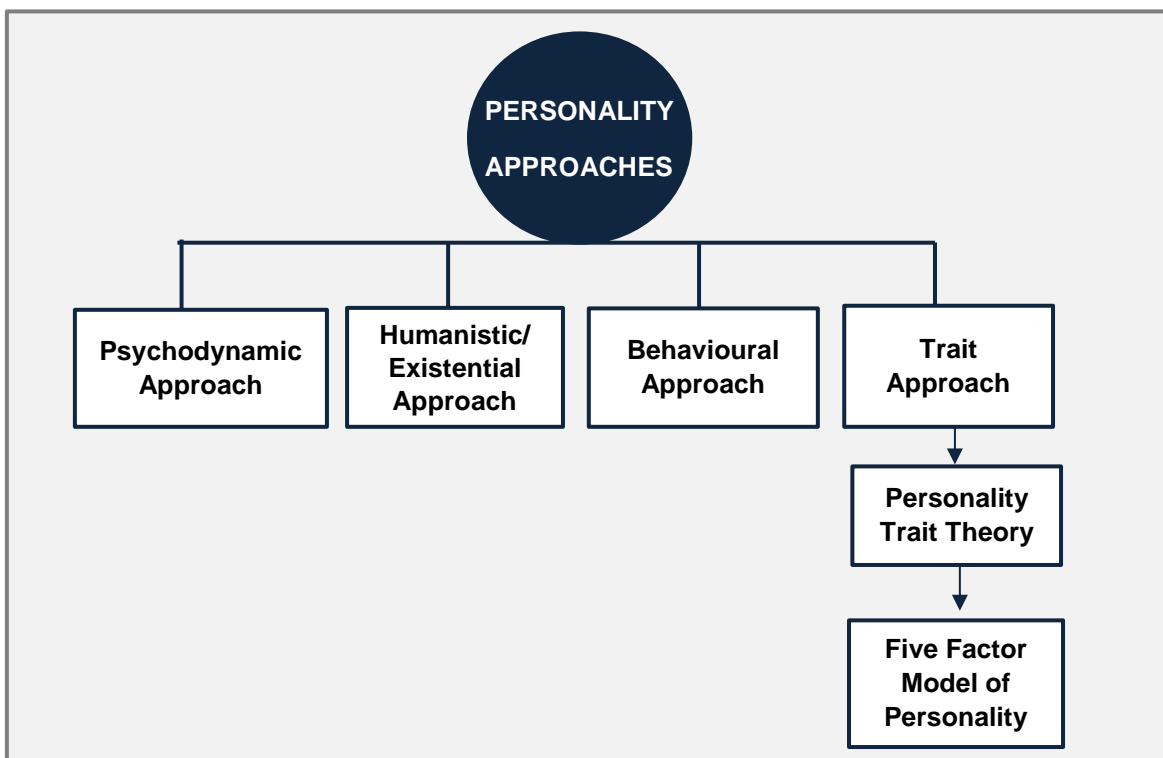
Figure 3.1: Approaches to personality

Source: Adapted from Swartz, De la Rey, Duncan & Townsend (2008)

3.3.1 The psychodynamic approach

Psychodynamic or psychoanalytic theories emphasise the influence of the unconscious mind and childhood experiences on personality. These theories suggest that the structures of personality are largely unconscious. Thus, people are mostly unaware of why they behave in certain ways and, in turn, strive to become aware of reasons for their behaviour (Bergh & Theron, 2006). According to Sternberg (1995), biological drives and other biological forces also play a key role in psychodynamic theories, therefore this perspective emphasises dynamic, biologically orientated processes, particularly those that take place in the unconscious mind. Freud (1987) believed that the unconscious is the source of our motivations.

The main theorist contributing to psychodynamic theories is Sigmund Freud (Boeree, 2006). Following and contributing to Freud's research were other theorists, referred to as the neo-Freudians (Bergh & Theron, 2006; Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1997; Swartz et al., 2008). A few of the most influential theorists are included in the discussion. Table 3.1 lists the main theorists as well as their theory that contributed to the psychodynamic approach.

Table 3.1: The psychodynamic approach to personality

Theorist	Theory
Sigmund Freud (1856-1939)	Psychoanalytical theory
Alfred Adler (1870-1937)	Individual psychology
Carl Jung (1875-1961)	Analytical psychology
Erik Erikson (1902-1994)	Ego psychology

Freud proposed that a person's psychological functioning is governed by instinctive forces. It is suggested that these forces exercise their effect outside of individuals'

consciousness (Arnold, Cooper & Robinson, 1998). In Freud's (cited in Bergh & Theron, 2006:306) model of personality, he suggests that personality consists of three components: the *id* (energy to drive an individual's behaviour/gratification of the instinctual urges and desires), the *ego* (controls rational adaptations to the real world) and the *superego* (generates irrational strategies to avoid punishment associated with internalised moral structures). Freud (cited in Meyer et al., 1997) believes that these components work together in order to keep the individual alive and enable the individual to experience optimal joy, as well as guilt, when possible.

Adler's theory disregards the structural concepts of Freud (Meyer et al., 1997). The basis of Adler's theory focuses on personality functioning as a whole in order to reach a set of goals. He suggests that there is a single motivating force behind individuals' behaviour and experiences – the goal of superiority (Boeree, 2006:5). Adler's theory contains the idea that individuals want to be better than others, rather than better in their own right. According to Sternberg (1995), when individuals feel they cannot attain superiority, they dwell on their feeling of inferiority and ultimately develop an inferiority complex.

According to Jung's theory, the subconscious comprises more than what Freud suggested. Jung's theory divides an individual's consciousness into three parts – the ego, the personal unconscious and the collective conscious (Boeree, 2006:5). The *ego* is identified as the conscious mind of an individual, whereas the *personal unconscious* includes anything that is not presently conscious, but can be (memories that are easily brought to mind and those that have been suppressed). According to Sternberg (1995), Jung believed that the personal unconscious is distinct to each individual. Jung (cited in Boeree, 2006:5) refers to the *collective conscious* as an individual's "psychic inheritance" – the knowledge with which all individuals are born.

The last neo-Freudian theorist discussed in this study is Erikson, whose theory is in agreement with Freud's regarding the structure of personality. Erikson also believes in the

id, the ego and the superego, although places much more importance on the role of the ego (Boeree, 2006:6). Erikson emphasises the role of culture and society and the conflicts that take place with the ego itself, whereas Freud's theory focuses more on the conflicts between the *id* and the *superego* (McLeod, 2013). Erickson's theory also expands on Freudian thoughts by extending the conception of the stages of an individual's personality development to include the entire lifespan. He proposed a lifespan model of personality development, encompassing five stages up to the age of 18 years, as well as three further stages beyond, well into adulthood (see McLeod (2013) and Cherry (2005) for a detailed view of each personality stage). The model originated from Erikson's belief that personality develops in a predetermined order and builds upon each preceding stage. The successful completion of each stage results in a healthy personality and the acquisition of basic virtues (characteristic strengths used to resolve crises that may occur) (McLeod, 2013). The outcome of personality development, according to Erickson's model, is a varied and cohesive set of life skills and capabilities that function together within the autonomous individual (Cherry, 2005; McLeod, 2013).

In summary, the psychodynamic perspective of personality emphasises the dynamic and biologically orientated processes, particularly those that take place in the unconscious mind. Due to this perspective of personality focusing more on consumers' behaviour driven by the unconscious mind, it would not give insight into whether a relationship exists between brand personality and individual personality. Since personality traits within individuals, rather than their conscious and unconscious behaviour, have to be identified in order to reach this study's objectives, the psychodynamic approach to personality was not accepted as the basis for this study.

3.3.2 The humanistic/existential approach

Humanistic/existential theories are often referred to as a person-orientated approach (Bergh & Theron, 2006:286; Swartz et al., 2008). According to Bergh and Theron (2006),

humanistic psychology views "being a person or a sense of self" as a process that is continuous and consists of a combination of all personal experiences and choices made in relation to the world and other people. In other words, people are studied as individuals (Fontana, 2000). This approach postulates that a person is recognised as a unique, active and free being who is not necessarily controlled by unconscious motives and environmental factors, but rather is controlled by conscious decisions made by individuals (Bergh & Theron, 2006; Swartz et al., 2008).

This approach was developed in response to concerns about the perceived limitations of psychodynamic theories. Rogers (the self-theory), Maslow (the holistic-dynamic theory) and May (the existential theory) were some of the theorists who believed that existing psychodynamic theories failed to adequately address issues such as the meaning of human behaviour and the nature of healthy growth (Sammons, 2012). According to Sammons (2012), the main factor distinguishing the humanistic approach from other personality approaches is the emphasis on understanding individuals' subjectivity.

These theorists differ extensively in their particular beliefs, but share one common view regarding humans. They all believe that humans are complex and distinctive from all other life forms (Sternberg, 1995). According to Bergh and Theron (2006), both Rogers's and Maslow's theories have currently been energised by the emphasis on positive psychological concepts and practices to promote optimal human functioning and well-being. Rogers, Maslow and May were identified as the three most influential theorists contributing to humanistic/existential personality research and are therefore included in the discussion (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: The humanistic/existential approach to personality

Theorist	Theory
Carl Rogers (1902-1987)	Self-theory
Abraham Maslow (1908-1970)	Holistic-dynamic theory
Rollo May (1909-1994)	Existential psychology

Rogers pioneered the person-centred approach to personality, which is referred to as the self-theory (Rogers, 1959). Therefore, his theory emphasises the self and each individual's perception of the self (Boeree, 2006:4). He argues that all individuals strive towards self-actualisation (the actualising tendency); in other words, all individuals strive to fulfil their full potential (Sternberg, 1995). Rogers's theory also postulates that people are basically good or healthy (or at the very least, not bad or ill) and views mental health as the normal progression of life. On the other hand, mental illness and other human problems are seen as distortions of that natural tendency. Rogers also recognised an individual's real and ideal self. Incongruity within the self between the real and ideal self may lead to dissatisfaction and disturb mental harmony (Aiken, 1994).

Like Rogers, Maslow is widely regarded as one of the founders of the humanistic approach. Although not as influential, Maslow may be better known to the general public because of his interest in applying psychological principles to behaviour in specific business settings. According to Meyer et al. (1997), Maslow suggests that needs are only a partial explanation of human functioning, but they still are the foundation of his theory. Maslow recognised that people have a variety of needs that differ in immediacy and that have to be satisfied at different times, hence he arranged these needs in a hierarchy (Kotler & Keller, 2009; Lamb et al., 2008; Sammons, 2012). The more basic needs are arranged towards the bottom and take precedence over those arranged higher up

(Boeree, 2006:4). At the bottom and moving upwards are physiological needs (i.e. breathing, food, water, shelter and sleep), safety and security needs (i.e. health, employment, property family and social stability), belonging needs (i.e. friendship, family, intimacy and a sense of connection), esteem needs (i.e. confidence, achievement, respect of others and the need to be unique) and, right at the top, self-actualisation needs (i.e. morality, creativity, spontaneity, acceptance and meaning and inner potential). Like Rogers, Maslow argues that self-actualised individuals have reached their full potential.

Another influential contributor to the development of humanistic psychology and the last-mentioned theorist in this section is May. He is the best known American existential psychologist (Bergh & Theron, 2006). May realised that an individual's state of mind relates strongly to the individual's ability to recover and that each individual takes personal responsibility for choices made (Sternberg, 1995). His work focuses on the positive aspects of human potential, as well as on the motivation of individuals towards self-fulfilment (Schultz & Schultz, 2005).

In summary, the main focus of this personality approach is on self-actualisation and the belief that individuals are unique and cannot be controlled by their subconscious. When considering the main focus of this personality approach it can be concluded that it could view individual and human experience as playing a role in consumers' likeliness to be attracted to a brand representing similar personality traits. This personality approach would therefore view the connection between brand personality and individual personality as a conscious decision based on an individual's experience and efforts to achieve self-actualisation. However, this approach is mainly applied in practice and continues to be used in therapy (Kassarjian, 1971; Personality, 2008). Its usefulness in personality assessment is regarded as limited and not suitable for use in this study.

3.3.3 The behavioural approach

The main focus areas of behaviouristic theories are that personality is characterised by acquired, observable behaviours or responses, expectations and thoughts as learned and rewarded in the various types of environments in which people function (Bergh & Theron, 2006; Swartz et al., 2008). As suggested by Bergh and Theron (2006), the environment and circumstances people find themselves in are prevalent influences on what these people become, and may even override their basic natural or genetic potential. Thus, individual differences between people depend on their learning experiences and the type of environmental influences to which they are exposed. This approach contributes to the development of psychometric assessment techniques in psychology used to assess human behaviour. Table 3.3 lists three of the most influential behavioural theorists who contributed to this personality approach. Each of their perspectives is discussed next.

Table 3.3: The behavioural approach to personality

Theorist	Theory
Kurt Lewin (1890-1947)	Field theory
Julian Rotter (1916-1987)	Social-learning theory
Albert Bandura (1925-present)	Social-cognitive theory

Lewin viewed personality from a cognitive perspective. He suggests that human behaviour can be explained by the forces and tensions that move individuals to action (Daniels, 2012). Unlike other behaviouristic theorists who started by studying perception and then moved towards behaviour, Lewin began with behaviour and the factors affecting it, and then explored individuals' perceptions of their own as well as others' behaviour. Lewin believed that an individual's behaviour is always orientated toward some goal (Daniels, 2012).

Rotter views personality (and therefore behaviour) as something that is always changeable (Mearns, 2009). He believes that, once the way individuals think or the environment these individuals are responding to changes, their behaviour will change. According to Sternberg (1995), Rotter believed that behaviour was not a function of just the individual or the environment, but rather a function of the interaction between the two. He too argued that cognition (in the form of expectations) is a crucial factor in social learning.

The social-cognitive theory of Bandura emphasises the joint relationships among cognition, behaviour and the environment. This interaction was named reciprocal determinism. Bandura agrees that the environment can influence one's behaviour, but he also believes that one's behaviour can influence the immediate environment.

In summary, behavioural approaches to personality investigate the manner in which individuals think and act, as well as the interaction between individuals' cognitive and behavioural reactions. The basis of the behavioural personality approach views individuals' cognitive side as playing a key role in their behaviour, which includes their associations regarding a specific brand as well as their actual buying behaviour. This approach lacks an investigation into measuring specific personality characteristics and qualities in individuals. In order to determine whether specific personality types have any relationship with brands with a perceived corresponding brand personality, personality traits dominant within individuals must be measurable. This personality approach was therefore also not accepted as the basis for this research study, and therefore further investigation of a fourth and last personality approach (trait-based personality approach) was deemed necessary. McCrae (2011) believes that, although thought-provoking and engaging, these aforementioned personality approaches have little to do with contemporary psychology. An exception to this generalisation includes trait theories (as will be discussed in subsequent sections), which led to the use of various personality scales used in a myriad of research studies.

3.3.4 The trait-based approach

According to the trait-based approach to explaining personality, human behaviour is characterised by stable and consistent patterns of behaviour, described as dimensions, traits, factors and types (Bergh & Theron, 2006:286; Corr & Matthews, 2009). This approach is often referred to as the descriptive approach due to its concern with what personality is like, rather than investigating its underlying psychological phenomena, as is the case in the previously mentioned approaches (Epstein, 1994; Fontana, 2000; Foxcroft & Roodt, 2001; Pervin et al., 2005). One identified way to conceptualise and measure individuals' personality is through the trait-based approach, which states that an individual's personality consists of a set of traits and characteristics (Rajagopol, 2010). Trait theories attempt to describe and measure an individual's personality through a series of descriptive statements to which individuals have to respond. This process allows for the identification of dominant traits reflected by these individuals (McCrae, 2011).

Three characteristics of the trait-based approach have been identified that distinguish it from the other personality approaches. Firstly, trait theories' main goal is not to understand the development of personality or to predict individuals' behaviour in a given situation, but rather to identify dominant traits portrayed. Secondly, trait theorists are rather interested in the comparison of individuals based on characteristics and the degree to which those characteristics or traits are expressed by individuals. Lastly, according to Heffner (2002), trait theories do not inherently provide a medium for personality change.

The trait-based personality approach is generally viewed from two different perspectives: idiographic and nomothetic (Sternberg, 1995). Idiographic theorists like Allport argue that individuals each have a different set of traits that are fundamental to their personality. Contrary to what idiographic theorists like Allport believe, the nomothetic theorists like Cattell and Eysenck argue that individuals manifest a universal set of traits, but differ only in the degree to which these traits are expressed (Personality, 2008; Schaubhut, Herk &

Thompson, 2009; Swartz et al., 2008). Table 3.4 lists two of the most influential trait theorists, who are discussed briefly.

Table 3.4: The trait approach to personality

Theorist	Theory
Raymond B Cattell (1905 -1998)	Trait theory (nomothetic perspective)
Gordon Alport (1897 -1967)	Trait theory (idiographic perspective)

Cattell's research originated in the 1940s, when he identified a large number of personality traits. As mentioned, he believes that all individuals manifest a universal set of traits, but differ in the degree to which these traits are expressed (Personality, 2008; Schaubhut et al., 2009). He also maintained that clinicians' observations were not a scientific basis for understanding or classifying personality, and therefore used an inductive approach to identify traits and develop his theory of personality (Schultz & Schultz, 2005). His approach to identifying personality traits expressed by individuals involved a large body of data that was first collected (observer and behavioural) with no preconceived hypothesis or theory. An exploratory factor analysis was run on the data in order to identify a set of variables (traits), after which hypotheses were formulated and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. The result was Cattell's sixteen bipolar personality factors (Jones, 1976; Neill, 2003). In 1949 he published his findings, which is now known as the Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire (16PF), according to which individuals' personality traits could be summarised by 16 bipolar personality factors or main traits (see Section 3.4.2) (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009; Heffner, 2002; Jones, 1976; Neill, 2003; Swartz et al., 2008).

Allport is often called the father of personality theory. He follows the idiographic trait perspective, which states that each individual has a different set of traits that are

fundamental to their personality (Boeree, 2006; Lin, 2010; Neill, 2004). He believes that much of personality is characterised by personal dispositions or traits that are unique to each individual and expressive of the self, which in effect also leads to the individual's behaviour (Boeree, 2006:4). Allport also believes in the individuality and uniqueness of individuals and argues that peoples' personalities are consistent (Bergh & Theron, 2006).

In summary, the trait-based approach characterises human behaviour as enduring and consistent patterns of behaviour that are described as dimensions, traits, factors or types (Bergh & Theron, 2006). The basis of the trait approach highlights the importance of traits in describing and observing individuals' behaviour, which includes their associations with and perceptions of a specific brand (Barrick & Ryan, 2003; Cascio, 2006; Guthrie et al., 1998; Hogan et al., 1996). As trait theory generally focuses on measuring and comparing individuals' personality traits (Rajagopal, 2010), it is concluded that the trait approach is best suited to investigate the relationship between brand personality and individual personality. The subsequent sections are derived from the trait-based approach to personality and will be discussed in more depth.

3.4 PERSONALITY TRAIT THEORY

As mentioned and discussed in Section 3.3, personality is a broad field of study comprising various personality approaches. This literature overview focuses primarily on personality trait theories, as traits can be measured and used to explain individuals' behaviour – specifically, the way in which these individuals think, feel and act – towards a specific brand (Barrick & Ryan, 2003; Bergh & Theron, 2006; Cascio, 2006; Corr & Matthews, 2009; Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009; Swartz et al., 2008). This study hopes to contribute to marketing literature by explaining human behaviour through the assessment of the relationship between brand personality and individual personality. Rajagopol (2010) believes that one known way to conceptualise and measure individuals' personality is

through the trait-based approach, which states that an individual's personality consists of a set of traits. The following section discusses personality traits in more detail.

3.4.1 Personality Traits

As mentioned in Chapter 1, Roberts et al. (2007) have confirmed the validity and use of personality traits over other factors in explaining and understanding consumers' behaviour – mainly the way in which individuals think, feel and ultimately act (Barrick & Ryan, 2003; Cascio, 2006; Guthrie et al., 1998; Hogan et al., 1996). According to Foxcroft and Roodt (2009), traits have distinctive qualities that characterise individuals as well as influence them to behave in particular ways.

Various academics have recognised that personality traits have two common features: they tend to influence individuals' behaviour (as already mentioned above) and they tend to be stable over time and across situations (Epstein, 1994; Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009; Matthews, Deary & Whiteman, 2003; Rajagopal, 2010; Robertson & Myers, 1969).

3.4.1.1 Behavioural influences

Personality traits have been found to enable summarising, predicting and explaining individuals' behaviour (Pervin et al., 2005). Traits have provided a relatively efficient way for researchers to realise and summarise how one individual differs from another, as well as how these individuals can be alike. In various studies (as cited in Robertson & Myers, 1969) it has been shown that individuals' personality (consisting of several traits) influences their behaviour. Sparks and Tucker (1971) indicated that there is a relationship between the usage of various products and the buyer's personality. This relationship is also suggested by Westfall's (1962) results, which indicate that an individual owning a convertible car is much more active, impulsive and sociable in comparison to an individual owning a standard or compact car, also emphasising Robertson and Myers's (1969) findings. Tucker and Painter's (1961) research also revealed certain distinguishable relationships between personality traits and the use or non-use of products.

According to Pervin et al. (2005), traits do not just enable researchers to summarise and explain behaviour, but also allow for the prediction of individuals' behaviour in the future, and what products and brands they are likely to prefer and ultimately purchase. As suggested by this research study, Alpert (1972) argues that if product attributes that determine individuals' choices are somehow related to their personality structures, specific appeals might be aimed at particular personality types. This will enable marketers to manipulate their marketing programmes (i.e. marketing mix) and target specific individuals with specific offerings corresponding to their wants.

3.4.1.2 Stability over time and across situations

The second common feature refers to stability over time and across situations. Personality theories address development in various ways. Longitudinal research indicates that trait stability from childhood to adulthood, while significant in some cases, is low enough to suggest that change occurs, especially before adulthood (Caspi, Roberts & Shiner, 2005; Corr & Matthews, 2009; McCrae et al., 2004). However, with respect to the enduring nature of traits over time, various studies have confirmed that personality traits are relatively stable during the adulthood phase (Hogan et al., 1996; Robbins & Judge, 2013). It was realised that individuals who were dominant in a particular personality trait at a specific age showed relative continuity of that same trait years later (Robbins & Judge, 2013; Wilks, 2009).

According to Hersen and Thomas (2006) the stability of traits during adulthood has even been seen with changes in roles, relationships, life circumstances and experiences, therefore supporting views that traits are relatively stable across various situations. Traits are seen as the differences in individuals' tendencies to show consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings and actions. Allport has recognised the influence of environmental factors on trait-related behaviour. He argues that, although traits are stable, the situation influences the extent to which a specific trait is displayed (Pervin et al., 2005). A personality trait expresses how an individual reacts in many situations, although the trait

is not always visible in every situation. The literature states that researchers attempt to classify individuals according to personality traits, particularly through the measurement of these traits (Arnold et al., 1995, Corr & Matthews, 2009; Theron & Bergh, 2006). Personality can be measured using various measurement instruments. For the purpose of the current study, the relationship between individuals' personality and brand personality was assessed. The main focus was placed on the FFM of personality, since the brand personality scale used in this study correlates best with the five personality dimensions of the FFM. This model is discussed in the subsequent section.

3.4.2 Personality measurement – the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality

There are numerous attributes with which to describe an individual, as well as a varying number of personality measurement scales. Examples of scales utilised include the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), Holland's Six Vocational Personality Types (RAISEC), 16PF and the FFM. The MBTI is based on Carl Jung's theory of psychological types (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2001) and consists of four dichotomous scales: Introversion-Extroversion (E-I), Thinking-Feeling (T-F), Sensing-Tuition (S-T) and Judgement-Perception (J-P), with each person belonging to one of sixteen possible types (e.g. ISTJ or ENTP) (Schaubhut et al., 2009). The MBTI has been used extensively in organisations to derive profiles of typical workers in occupations, rather than to attempt to understand consumers' behaviour (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). As with the use of the MBTI, RAISEC is used to categorise individuals into one of six personality types: Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E) and Conventional (C), in order to establish a match between an individual's personality and various occupations. Holland's theory also assumes that there are six types of environments that reflect the six personality types.

The third personality measurement scale listed above is the 16PF, developed by Raymond Cattell. As mentioned in Section 3.3.4, Cattell believes that an individual's personality can be measured and categorised by sixteen personality factors (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009; Hogan et al., 1996). These sixteen factors have been expressed as bi-polar

dimensions and are also referred to as basic traits (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2005). According to Pervin et al. (2005), the sixteen factors cover various aspects of personality, including temperament and attitudes, and they are commonly used for career counselling purposes in South Africa (De Bruin, 2002). In an attempt to further reduce the number of traits, Cattell ran another factor analysis, during which he derived five factors from the original sixteen: extroversion, anxiety, tough-mindedness, accommodation and self-control. These traits have been found to be similar to the Big Five traits (Cattell & Mead, 2008).

It is suggested that many personality researchers agree that the existing personality inventories all essentially measure the same five broad dimensions (Hogan et al., 1996). Since the above-mentioned personality inventories are to a large extent used to correlate individuals' personality with career environments, the FFM was better suited for the research at hand. The successful use of the FFM in the field of marketing, specifically branding and consumer behaviour, has been established by a number of studies (Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009; Mulyanegara, Tsarenko & Anderson, 2009). The FFM of personality was developed in order to provide a descriptive model for the organisation (taxonomy) of traits. This refers to a "systematic framework for distinguishing, ordering, and naming individual differences in people's behaviour and experience" (John, 1990:261). Such an organised framework allowed the researcher to study personality in a more meaningful way, whilst also facilitating communication and accumulating knowledge.

As mentioned, numerous personality researchers have come to the conclusion that personality traits may be accurately described and summarised in terms of five broad traits or dimensions (Hogan et al., 1996; Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009; Semeijn et al., 2005). This conclusion is based on the observation that a factor analysis of different personality scales mostly results in a five-factor solution, as first identified by McCrae and Costa (1990). These five factors are known as: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. According to Goldberg (1990), the FFM of

personality provides a consensual framework for classifying and organising the descriptors of personality.

There is little uncertainty that the FFM of McCrae and Costa (1990) is currently one of the primary benchmarks in the trait theory of personality, and one of the most influential models in all of psychology (Corr & Matthews, 2009:90). The emergence of the FFM has sparked an extensive amount of research in the domain of personality theory and assessment over the past twenty years. The FFM is also extensively used in studies concerning personality and consumer behaviour (e.g. Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009; Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009; Mulyanegara et al., 2009; Myszkowski & Storme, 2012; Robertson & Myers, 1969). As mentioned, the basis of the trait approach – the origin of the FFM – highlights the importance of traits describing and observing individuals' behaviour, which include their associations with and perceptions of a specific brand. For the purpose of this study, personality is viewed as the study of individuals' distinct characteristics or psychological traits that determine their differences in behaviour – the way in which these individuals' think, feel and act – towards a specific brand (Barrick & Ryan, 2003; Cascio, 2006; Guthrie et al., 1998; Hogan et al., 1996; Rajagopal, 2010). The FFM describes an individual's personality using emotional, cognitive and behavioural elements that are idiosyncratic in their particular combination. Each dimension consists of a set of correlated traits that are represented as bipolar traits (i.e. worried-calm), and are used in the measurement of an individual's personality (Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009; Zhao & Seibert, 2006).

The five dimensions have also emerged in empirical studies conducted within different cultures (Mount, Barrick & Strauss, 1994), as well as in studies in which the use of various other personality inventories, instruments and different theoretical frameworks were utilised (Mount & Barrick, 1998). The validity of the FFM was verified when studies were conducted with different demographic groups (age, race, gender and language) (Mount et al., 1994). Three advantages of using the FFM in assessing individuals' personality

were realised (McCrae & John, 1992). Firstly, the model integrates a wide array of personality constructs, allowing for communication between different fields of study. Secondly, the model is comprehensive, providing a means to assess various relationships between personality and other phenomena. And lastly, the model is efficient, as it offers a relatively global description of personality.

The FFM is described as being a simple way to classify the vast number of personality characteristics that are embedded within individuals. Each personality dimension of the Big Five construct possesses unique characteristics that can be reflected in consumers' behaviour, such as their preference for a brand possessing a particular personality (Mulyanegara et al., 2009). Therefore it is expected that, when a particular dimension of the Big Five is dominant in an individual, he/she would be more likely to prefer a specific brand personality (according to Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) refined brand personality dimensions) that reflects that dominant personality dimension. Table 3.5 illustrates the proposed linkage between individuals' personality and a brand's perceived personality.

Table 3.5: Individuals' personalities and corresponding brand personalities

BIG FIVE PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS		CORRESPONDING BRAND PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS	
DIMENSION	**CHARACTERISTICS**	**DIMENSION**	**CHARACTERISTICS**
Openness to experience	Fantasy, Aesthetics, Feelings, Actions, Ideas, Values	Sociable brand	Creative, Friendly, Outgoing, Emotional
		Exciting brand	Active, Adventurous, Cool
Conscientious-ness	Competence, Order, Dutifulness, Achievement striving, Self-discipline, Deliberation	Trusted brand	Trustful, Reliable, Persevering, Traditional
Extroversion	Warmth, Gregariousness, Assertiveness, Activity, Excitement-seeking, Positive emotions	Sociable brand	Creative, Friendly, Outgoing, Emotional
		Exciting brand	Active, Adventurous, Cool
Agreeableness	Trust, Straightforwardness, Altruism, Compliance, Modesty, Tender-mindedness	Sincere brand	Simple, Caring
Neuroticism	Anxiety, Angry hostility, Depression, Self-consciousness, Impulsiveness, Vulnerability	Trusted brand	Trustful, Reliable, Persevering

Source: Adapted from Mulyanegara et al. (2009)

3.4.2.1 Openness to experience and brand personality

Openness to experience is one of the most disputed dimensions of the Big Five (McCrae & John, 1992). In the past it has been given multiple labels, all of which are deemed unsuitable for encompassing the entirety of such a diverse dimension (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Openness to experience assesses the extent of proactive seeking and appreciation of experience, open-mindedness and exploration of the unfamiliar (McCrae & Costa, 1990). According to Szalma and Taylor (2011) and Judge, Higging, Thoresen and Barrick (1999), this dimension is characterised by intellectual curiosity, imagination and

autonomous behaviour. Individuals who are likely to be more open to experience actively seek out novel experiences, tend to have a wide range of interests, and to be open-minded, expressive, original and imaginative (Judge et al., 1999; Zhao & Seibert, 2006). In contrast, individuals who are less open to experience tend to be conventional and conservative. They seem to have a narrower scope and intensity of interests (McCrae & Costa, 1990).

It is suggested that these individuals would be more likely to show preference towards a brand that is perceived as being more sociable (see Table 3.5). According to Mulyanegara and Tsarenko (2009:360), the characteristics of a sociable brand are friendly, creative and outgoing (see Table 2.2). It is also proposed that an individual who is open to experience may be likely to prefer a brand that is perceived as exciting because of these individuals' tendencies to be adventurous and open to experiences, exploration and a wide range of interests. Malyanegara and Tsarenko (2009:360) characterise an exciting brand as one that is active, adventurous and cool. A sociable and adventurous brand would be less likely to appeal to individuals low in openness to experience.

3.4.2.2 Conscientiousness and brand personality

There has been debate on the definition of this dimension, namely on whether conscientiousness is a characteristic that holds impulsive behaviour intact, or whether it rather organises and directs individuals' behaviour. It was concluded that conscientiousness incorporates both these aspects, as it can mean either to be governed or overseen by one's conscious or to be diligent and thorough (McCrae & John, 1992).

Kaplan and Saccuzzo (2001:438) defined conscientiousness as the "degree to which a person is persevering, responsible, and organised, as opposed to lazy, irresponsible, and impulsive". According to Robbins and Judge (2013), this dimension is a measure of reliability, which corresponds with Kaplan and Saccuzzo's (2001) definition. An individual who scores highly on this dimension is likely to be responsible, organised, dependable,

thorough in decision making, persistent, purposeful and determined (Costa & McCrae, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1990; Robbins & Judge, 2013; Zhao & Seibert, 2006). Lower scorers on this dimension tend to be more apathetic in working towards their goals, and may be more hedonistic than individuals who are more conscientious (McCrae & Costa, 1989). These individuals are also easily distracted, disorganised and unreliable (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Conscientiousness involves characteristics that would typically be used to evaluate the manner in which an individual approaches a task (decision making). The evaluation includes: the amount of effort invested, how much planning and order goes into the task, whether the individual is able to complete the task on time and, lastly, the level at which he/she feels bound by duty to complete the task. It is therefore suggested that more conscientious individuals would be more likely to put in more effort and time to plan a specific task and would prefer a brand that is perceived as being a trusted brand (see Table 3.5). Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) results support this notion. According to Mulyanegara and Tsarenko's (2009:360) brand personality scale, the characteristics of a trusted brand are trustful, reliable and persevering. This proposition postulates that individuals who are conscientious are responsible, organised and thorough and therefore would be likely to apply these characteristics when making a decision regarding a specific brand – therefore would be more likely to prefer a brand that is trustful, reliable and persevering.

3.4.2.3 Extroversion and brand personality

This dimension captures the quantity and intensity of interpersonal interaction, in other words individuals' comfort levels with relationships (McCrae & Costa, 1990; Robbins & Judge, 2013:170; Zhao & Seibert, 2006). Costa and McCrae (1992) characterised individuals scoring high on the extroversion dimension as those who enjoy being around people, especially in large gatherings, and who tend to be assertive, active, gregarious

and talkative (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Pervin et al., 2005; Robbins & Judge, 2013; Zhao & Seibert, 2006). They like excitement and are generally cheerful and optimistic, and are also referred to as extroverts. Individuals scoring low on the extroversion dimension are classified as introverts but are not the polar opposites of extroverts. These individuals are not necessarily unhappy, pessimistic or shy, but rather tend to prefer their own company, are more reserved and independent, and choose to do things at their own pace (Costa & McCrae, 1990; Robbins & Judge, 2013).

As mentioned, it is expected that individuals who are dominant in a particular dimension of the Big Five may prefer a brand with a personality that reflects that particular dimension or is close to it. It is suggested that individuals who are cheerful, optimistic, assertive, gregarious and talkative may be more likely to prefer a brand that is exciting and sociable (see Table 3.5). Mulyanegara and Tsarenko (2009:360) have characterised an exciting brand as one that is active, adventurous and cool, and a sociable brand as one that is creative, friendly and outgoing (see Table 3.5). Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) results support the postulate that individuals who are more extroverted and who enjoy being around people may be more likely to prefer a brand that is sociable so as to express their friendly, active, talkative and adventurous personality.

3.4.2.4 Agreeableness and brand personality

Agreeableness presents a dimension embedded in human interest, where individuals put the needs of others before their own, and are friendly, docile, humble, honest and straightforward. According to Zhao and Seibert (2006), this dimension assesses one's interpersonal orientation. Digman (1990:422) succinctly summarises agreeableness when he states that agreeableness "seems tepid for a dimension that appears to involve the more humane aspects of humanity – characteristics such as altruism, nurturance, caring, and emotional support at the one end … and hostility … spitefulness, and jealousy at the other". McCrae and Costa (1990) define agreeableness as an assessment of the quality

of an individual's orientation along a continuum from compassion to antagonism. Individuals high in agreeableness tend to be more sympathetic towards others, sincere, considerate, gentle and selfless, and believe that others will be as helpful in return (Judge et al., 1999; Robbins & Judge, 2013; Stukalina, 2008). In contrast, individuals low in agreeableness tend to be sceptical, cold, manipulative, competitive and self-centred (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Robbins & Judge, 2013).

It is suggested that individuals who score high on agreeableness tend to be caring, altruistic, gentle and considerate, and will prefer a brand that possesses similar characteristics and reflects their own personality. It is proposed that the brand personality corresponding with the agreeableness dimension is a brand portraying characteristics of sincerity (see Table 3.5). Mulyanegara et al. (2009:247) characterise a sincere brand as being simple and caring. Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009:247) results indicate that there is no significant relationship between agreeableness and a sincere brand. This might be due to their limited student sample. For the purpose of the current study, it is still suggested that those individuals who are dominant in a particular dimension of the Big Five may prefer a brand with a personality that reflects that particular dimension or is close to it, thus agreeable individuals prefer a brand that is perceived as sincere.

3.4.2.5 Neuroticism and brand personality

The neuroticism dimension is also known as emotional stability and taps into individuals' ability to withstand stress (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1990; Robbins & Judge, 2013). This dimension is perhaps the oldest and most pervasive trait found in the existing personality literature. The core of the neuroticism domain is the general lack of positive psychological adjustment and emotional stability (Judge et al., 1999; Zhao & Seibert, 2006). Individuals high in neuroticism tend to be prone to irrational ideas, are less able to control their impulses, cope poorly with stress and are insecure. These individuals also tend to experience negative emotions and feelings, such as fear, sadness, anger and guilt. Individuals scoring low on the neuroticism dimension are

emotionally stable and characterised as calm, even-tempered and generally unflappable (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Research indicates that neuroticism is linked to brand personality (Mulyanegara et al., 2009). It is suggested that individuals scoring high on the neuroticism dimension are more prone to experiencing anxiety and worry and would therefore show preference for a brand that is perceived as being trusted, defined by Mulyanegara et al. (2009) as being trustful, reliable and persevering (see Table 3.5).

3.5 CONCLUSION

The main aim of this chapter was to provide theoretical background on the subject of an individual's personality and its position within the marketing domain. The aim was achieved by examining the personality construct, which included an overview of the conceptualisation of personality. Following the discussion of personality's conceptualisation, the four main personality approaches were examined, which included a discussion of the psychodynamic, the humanistic/existential, behavioural and the trait-based approaches. Special attention was paid to the trait approach, since it was regarded as the best-suited approach to investigate the relationship between individuals' personalities and brand personality. Based on the objective of this study it was concluded that the Five Factor Model of personality and its dimensions were best suited for use in this study, hence the special attention being paid to the Big Five dimensions and their association with brand personality. The subsequent chapter will focus on the research design and methodology used in the current study.

CHAPTER 4 | RESEARCH METHOD

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary research objective of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. The secondary research objectives specifically assessed whether there is a relationship between each of the Big Five personality dimensions and specific brand personalities. It is suggested that individuals with a specific personality type will be more likely to show preference for and purchase a brand with a corresponding personality. The preceding chapters addressed the branding construct, including brand personality, as well as the domain of personality in order to gain a broader perspective of the topic of the research study at hand.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research method followed in this study. In order to formulate the design and methodology of this study, the marketing research process was investigated and applied to the study at hand. The marketing research process is defined first, followed by the definition of the problem, the research objectives and the hypotheses. The following sections describe the collection of secondary research, the primary data collection method, the sampling method and size, in what manner the primary data was collected and the procedures used to analyse the data. Since the research methodology depends on the research problem and objectives (Mouton, 1996:38), it is deemed appropriate to reiterate the research problem and objectives as stated in Section 1.5.

4.2 THE MARKETING RESEARCH PROCESS

Roberts-Lombard (2002:2) and Malhotra (2004) define marketing research as the systematic and objective identification, collection, analysis and dissemination of data to ultimately assist management in decision making related to the identification and solution

of problems and opportunities in marketing. According to Zikmund et al. (2010:61), marketing research involves a series of highly related activities named the marketing research process. Figure 4.1 illustrates this process, together with the stages involved in the marketing research process. In subsequent sections these stages will be discussed and applied to the current study.

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│         ┌───────────────────────────────────────┐         │
│         │   Identify and formulate the problem   │         │
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│                          ↓                                 │
│         ┌───────────────────────────────────────┐         │
│         │ Determine research objectives/hypotheses│        │
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│         │      Conduct secondary research        │         │
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│         │      Select primary research method    │         │
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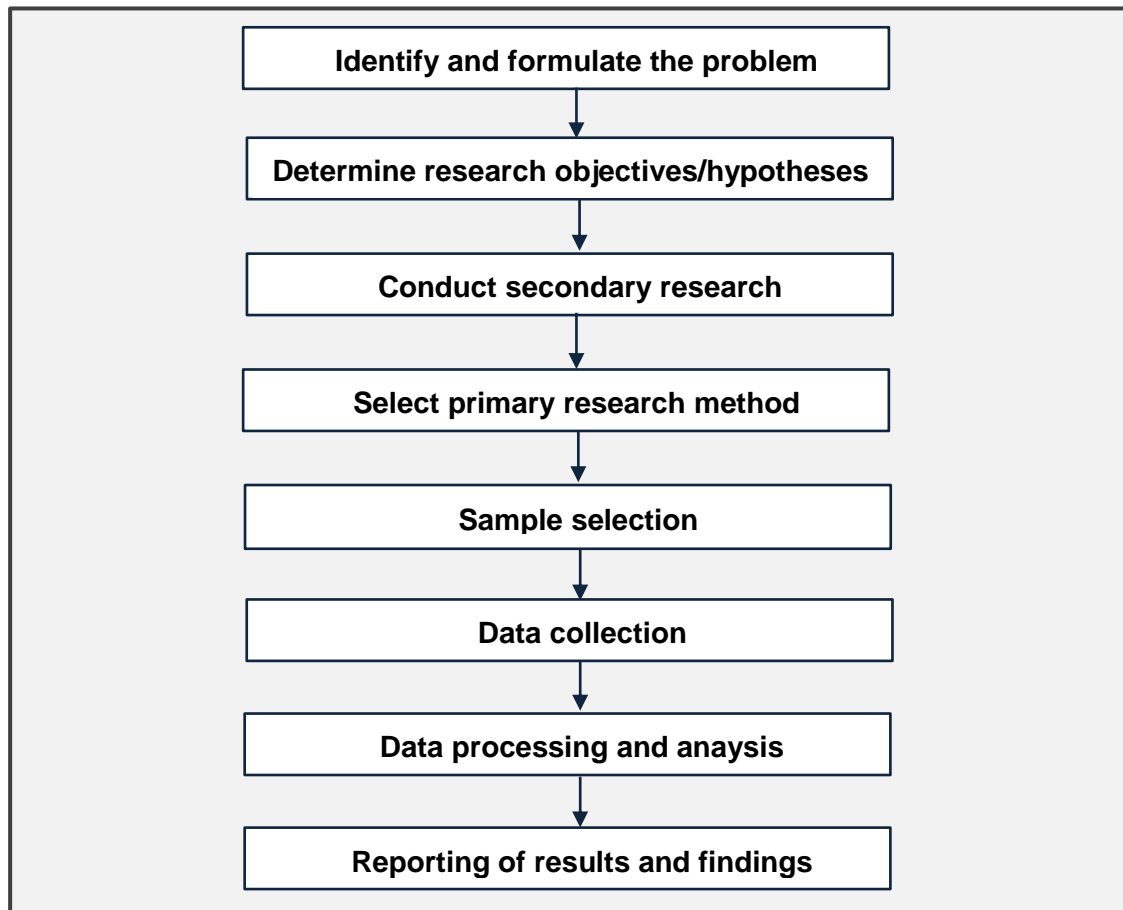
Figure 4.1: The marketing research process

Source: Adapted from Blumberg et al. (2011:46) and Zikmund et al. (2010:61)

4.3 IDENTIFY AND FORMULATE THE PROBLEM

The first and most important step in any marketing research study is to identify and formulate a marketing problem (Blumberg et al., 2011:46). Blumberg et al. (2011:55) also believe that good research starts with a good formulation of the research problem that is to be solved through conducting marketing research. Zikmund and Babin (2010:106) define problem definition as "(t)he process of defining and developing a decision

statement and the steps involved in translating it into more precise research terminology, including a set of research objectives".

In marketing, every decision-making situation can be represented either as a marketing problem or a marketing opportunity (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:61). A situation in which a competitive advantage is possible is referred to as a market opportunity, whereas a situation in which negative outcomes are possible is referred to as a marketing problem (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:47). The identification of a marketing problem or opportunity is an indication of a specific market-related decision area that could be explained in the process of answering some research questions (Zikmund, 2003).

As postulated in Chapter 1, the research objective of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. In order to properly define the research problem of this study, exploratory research was conducted by using various secondary data sources. Ample research in the domain of brands (including brand personality) has been conducted, as well as in the domain of personality. However, little research with empirical evidence was found on the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities, particularly in South Africa.

As a result of the lack of empirical research regarding this topic, the researcher found the need to address a problem not yet addressed by various previous studies. The objectives and hypotheses of this study are discussed in the next section.

4.4 DETERMINE THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

According to Churchill (1983:21), part of the process of identifying and formulating a marketing research problem is to specify the objectives of the research problem. Research objectives were derived from the initial problem statement discussed in Chapter 1 of this study, after which the researcher formulated research questions (Zikmund & Babin, 2007). The hypotheses are a means of providing answers to the study's research questions and objectives (Kumar, Aaker & Day, 1998:50). In order to meet the specified objectives, it is

necessary to proceed to the next stages of the marketing research process and, assuming the research to be valuable, it is critical to first define the problem correctly and accurately (Burns & Bush, 2003:86; Kumar et al., 1998:44).

Research objectives can be described as the deliverables to be met by the researcher through conducting the planned research (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:59). At this stage in the study, the researcher is able to envision what needs to be measured and how it will be measured, thus what type of study will be needed to address the objectives (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:115). A primary objective, as well as secondary objectives, were established. By conducting this research study, the researcher hoped to solve the research problem identified in Chapter 1.

The primary objective of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. The secondary research objectives were:

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on openness to experience and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on conscientiousness and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on extroversion and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on agreeableness and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on neuroticism and specific brand personalities

The research design, which includes a discussion of the secondary research conducted, as well as the method followed to conduct primary research, is discussed in the following sections.

4.5 CONDUCT SECONDARY RESEARCH

The data collection process can be divided into two sub-divisions, namely the collection of secondary research and the collection of primary research. The collection of data always starts with secondary research, which can be defined as data that is already in existence and that was recorded by someone else before this research study was undertaken (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:163).

Secondary data collection has many advantages, but also holds some disadvantages. Secondary research is more easily and readily available to the researcher, it is much faster and less expensive than conducting primary research, and it is more appropriate in instances where a research project is still in the exploratory phase (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:163). These are some of the advantages of conducting secondary research prior to primary research. Disadvantages include inaccuracy of data, timeliness of data and data that is not specific to the researcher's needs (Sparrow, 2015).

Secondary research was conducted to gain an overview of the two main areas of focus in this study, namely branding and personality. Studying previous research helps in determining the gap that might be filled by designing a new and unique research study. The external data sources consulted and investigated were journal articles, the Internet, books and other research papers written by professionals familiar with the field of marketing and psychology. As mentioned in Section 4.3, there is a scarcity of research concerning specific personality types and brands with a perceived corresponding personality, therefore the researcher had to depend on primary research to address the stated research problem (Churchill, 1983:21). Once the decision to conduct primary research was made, a primary research method was chosen.

4.6 SELECT PRIMARY RESEARCH METHOD

With insufficient secondary data available to adequately satisfy the objectives of this research, primary research was employed to collect relevant and reliable data that most closely represents consumers' dominant personality type and their perception of brands and brand personality (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins & Van Wyk, 2005). Primary research is research that has been collected to specifically address the problem at hand (Blumberg et al., 2011:499; Churchill, 1983:21; Zikmund et al, 2010) and can either be qualitative or quantitative, each with its own method or different techniques applicable according to the specific research requirements.

Qualitative research focuses mainly on induction, exploration and theory/hypotheses development, where the researcher is viewed as the primary data collection instrument (Bergman, 2008; Given, 2008; Zikmund & Babin, 2010). In contrast, quantitative research is mostly characterised by deduction, confirmation, explanation, prediction, theory/hypothesis testing, standardised data collection and statistical analysis (Bergman, 2008; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Zikmund et al, 2010). For the purpose of this study, a mixed method research approach was followed in which both qualitative and quantitative research methods were combined and implemented. Although mixed methods research has received little coverage in the marketing domain (Harrison & Reilly, 2011), rationales for implementing such an approach indicate it to be beneficial in certain research instances. Hunt (1994) suggests that the lack of mixed method designs in marketing is due to a number of factors, including the general trend of favouring quantitative research in marketing, the general lack of attention to varied methodological approaches in graduate education, as well as the effort involved in learning both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The mixed methods approach is discussed in more detail in the following section so as to supply some background to this method.

4.6.1 Mixed methods research

Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998:17-18) define a mixed methods research approach as studies "that combine the qualitative and quantitative approaches into the research methodology of a single study or multi-phased study". This concept has come to be described as the third methodological movement, following those of quantitative and qualitative research methodologies (Cresswell, 2010; Johnson, Onwuegbuzi & Turner, 2007). This statement is founded on the increased popularity of mixed methods approaches, as determined by the increased numbers of publications on the topic as well as research projects employing the mixed methods approach (Harrison & Reilly, 2011), the recent establishment of the *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* and the increase in conferences and workshops promoting the topic (Bergman, 2008; Harrison & Reilly, 2011).

The increased popularity ultimately emerged from the ability of a mixed methods approach to combine elements of both qualitative and quantitative research, whilst at the same time alleviating the criticism against, and weaknesses of, each (Bergman, 2008; Cresswell, 2010; Greene, 2005; Harrison & Reilly, 2011; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Östlund, Kidd, Wengström & Rowa-Dewar, 2010). Despite the relative rarity of mixed methods studies in marketing, Harrison and Reilly (2011) are of the opinion that the marketing discipline indirectly encourages mixed methods research because of the emphasis on rigorous research and the potential of research using qualitative methods to usefully complement quantitative analysis (Hunt, 1994).

Harrison and Reilly (2011) went so far as to use content analysis to track recent trends in mixed methods research in terms of the types of mixed methods designs employed in marketing research. Table 4.1 lists the four dominant mixed methods designs identified by researchers. A discussion of each design type follows the table.

Table 4.1: Mixed methods design types

Design type	Timing	Mixing	Notation
1. Concurrent	Concurrent: quantitative and qualitative at the same time	Merging of data during the interpretation or analysis phase	QUANT + QUAL (Equal weighting)
2. Embedded	Concurrent or sequential	Embedding one type of data within a larger design using the other type of data	QUANT (qual) or QUAL (quan) (Unequal weighting)
3. Explanatory	Sequential: quantitative followed by qualitative	Data connected between the two phases	QUAN $\rightarrow$ qual
4. Exploratory	Sequential: qualitative followed by quantitative	Data connected between the two phases	QUAL $\rightarrow$ quan

Source: Adapted from Cresswell and Plano Clark (2007) and Harrison and Reilly (2011)

4.6.1.1 Concurrent

As indicated in Table 4.1, in concurrent designs, researchers collect both qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously, analyse both data strands and then mix and merge the databases. Researchers mostly employ concurrent designs to agglomerate the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative research in order to compare results or to validate or corroborate quantitative results with qualitative findings. A typical research question employing a concurrent design type might be, "To what extent do the qualitative [or quantitative] results confirm the quantitative [or qualitative] results?" (Harrison & Reilly, 2011:18).

4.6.1.2 Embedded

The second mixed methods design type refers to an embedded design, which means that researchers collect both qualitative and quantitative data either sequentially or concurrently (see Table 4.1). In this design type, a supporting role is assigned to one form of data, or both forms of data (qualitative and quantitative) play a supporting role in a larger design. In the former design mentioned, the qualitative data may play a supporting

role within an experiment, whereas in the latter design, both qualitative and quantitative data play a supporting role in a case study, for example, or other qualitative designs.

Researchers mostly employ embedded designs in instances where there are different research questions that require different data, therefore both qualitative and quantitative data is collected but embedded within one another. The two embedded design alternatives include experimental models and correlational models. The former refer to an embedded design in which qualitative data is embedded in an experimental design, whereas the latter refers to a design in which qualitative data is used to explain how mechanisms work in a correlational model (Cresswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann & Hanson, 2003). An example of a research question in this particular design type might read, "How do the qualitative findings enhance the interpretation of the experiments, or correlational outcomes?" (Harrison & Reilly, 2011:18).

4.6.1.3 Explanatory

A third mixed methods approach discussed by Harrison and Reilly (2011:16) is explanatory designs. This research approach is characterised by the collection and analysis of quantitative data, after which these findings are built on in a qualitative follow up in order to provide a better understanding of the quantitative results. From the above definition it is clear that quantitative results are collected and followed by qualitative data and that unequal priority is given to quantitative data (see Table 4.1). As implied by the title, this design is useful in explaining relationships or findings, and therefore is useful in research situations where qualitative data is needed to help explain or build on initial quantitative data. An example of a research question employing this design type might read, "How do qualitative data explain the quantitative results?" (Harrison & Reilly, 2011:18).

4.6.1.4 Exploratory

The last mixed methods approach identified by Harrison and Reilly (2011:15) and listed in Table 4.1 is the exploratory design. These designs are characterised by the collection, analysis and building on qualitative data for the quantitative follow-up. The building usually involves identifying the types of questions that might be asked, the determination of the variables/items/scales for instrument design and the generation of a typology. According to the trends in mixed methods, it was realised that these designs are the most common design type used in research. They are useful for exploring relationships when a research study's variables are unknown, for developing new instruments and for refining and testing a developing theory. The results from both the qualitative and quantitative data are presented separately and merged or mixed in the interpretation or discussion section.

It was found that exploratory research designs are most often implemented when qualitative data are only an initial exploration to identify variables, constructs, taxonomies or instruments for quantitative research (Creswell et al., 2003). Two variants of this design type are the instrument design model and the taxonomy development model (Harrison & Reilly, 2011). The former variant refers to a design in which the qualitative findings are used to develop scale items for a quantitative survey instrument, whereas the latter variant refers to a design where the qualitative results are used to develop a taxonomy or classification system, or develop an emergent theory where the quantitative phase tests the emergent theory (Creswell et al., 2003).

The majority of studies employing a mixed methods approach place emphasis on the quantitative component (Harrison & Reilly, 2011). The reason for this was established to be the aptness of quantitative data for answering questions concerning relationships between specific variables, as well as questions of "who, where, how many and how much". In contrast to quantitative research, the objective of qualitative research is rather to establish the "why" and "how".

In the current study, it was necessary for the researcher to establish the "why" and "how" of specific variables, as well as to find answers to certain "who, where, how many" and "how much" questions. Therefore a mixed methods approach was followed, as both sets of questions require the gathering of different types of data gathered by different techniques. As derived from the design typology discussed above, it was concluded that an exploratory mixed methods design was most appropriate for use in this study. As previously mentioned, the process of primary data collection therefore was divided into two phases, where the first phase aimed to collect, analyse and build on the qualitative data in preparation for the second phase, the collection of quantitative data. As suggested by the design typology, the objective of the qualitative data was to help in the development of scale items relating to brand personality for the quantitative survey instrument (Harrison & Reilly, 2011:15).

The first phase as divided into two stages, both collecting qualitative data using two different techniques. The first stage concerned a direct approach (focus group interviews) and the second a more indirect approach (projective technique). During the second phase of primary data collection, quantitative data was collected by means of the survey research method. This was done in order to collect the data needed from a sample of respondents by using a structured web-based questionnaire – developed on the basis of the qualitative findings.

Figure 4.2 provides an overview of the multi-phase and stage, mixed methods research design utilised in this study, as well as the specific research objectives and instruments used in each phase. Each phase is discussed in separate sections (see Section 4.7 and Section 4.8).
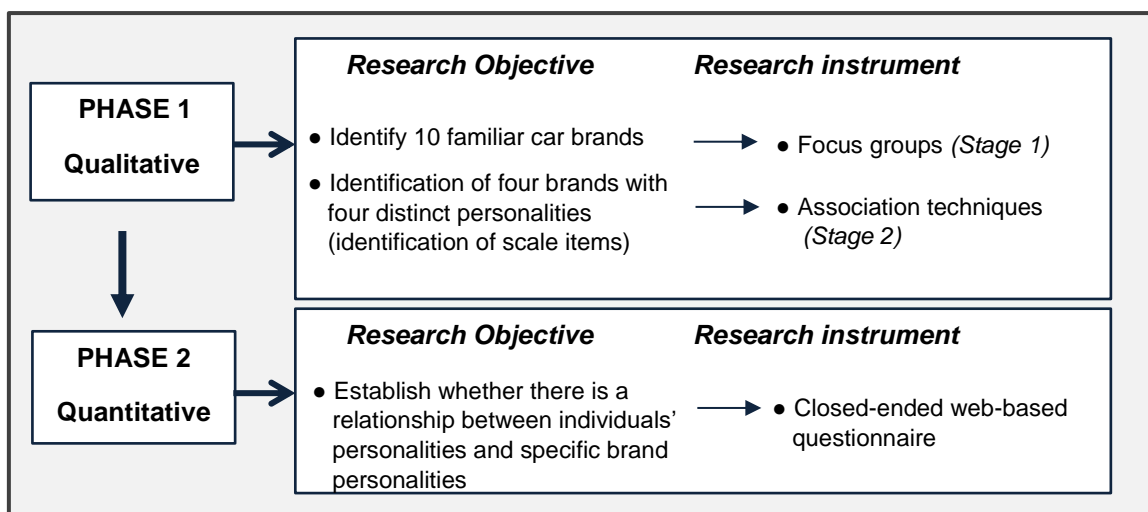
Figure 4.2: Primary research design

Source: Adapted from Zikmund et al. (2010)

4.7 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN (PHASE 1)

Qualitative research addresses marketing objectives through "techniques that allow the researcher to provide elaborate interpretations of market phenomena without depending on numerical measurement …" and includes techniques such as focus group interviews, conversations, in-depth interviews, projective techniques and observation (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:131). Qualitative research is an unstructured method and researcher dependent, relying on the subjective interpretation of the researcher (Blumberg et al., 2011:144; Malhotra, 2007:145; Zikmund et al., 2010:133). Qualitative research is often viewed as a "soft approach" and is most often utilised when structured research is not possible in the specific research situation, when true responses may not be available (usually when conducting research on sensitive topics) and, as per the discussion on mixed methods above, to build on or explain quantitative research results (Harrison & Reilly, 2011; Zikmund et al., 2010).

Figure 4.3 below illustrates the taxonomy of the various qualitative research approaches. The researcher has a choice to either take a direct (non-disguised) or an indirect (disguised) approach. The former approach refers to a situation where the researcher is

observing the participant's behaviour as it occurs, thus openly being a part of the process (Blumberg et al., 2011; Zikmund & Babin, 2010; Zikmund et al., 2010). As illustrated in the taxonomy (see Figure 4.3), direct approaches include research techniques such as focus groups and in-depth interviews. In contrast to the researcher being actively involved in the process, an indirect approach refers to a situation in which the effect of the respondent's behaviour, rather than actual behaviour, is observed. This approach is disguised and includes projective research techniques.
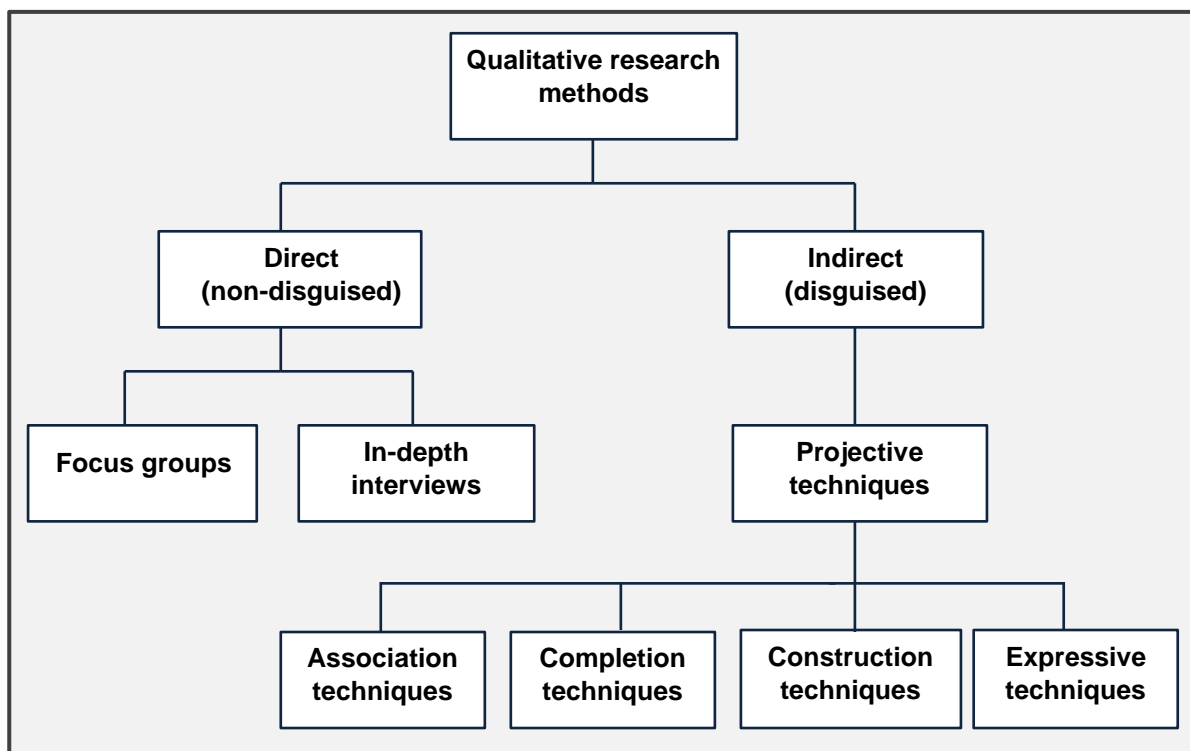
Figure 4.3: Qualitative research classification

Source: Adapted from Donoghue (2000)

A projective technique is an indirect, vague, ambiguous and unstructured means of questioning and involves situations in which participants are placed in simulated activities in the hope that they will divulge or "project" information about themselves that is unlikely to be revealed under direct questioning (Donoghue, 2000; Zikmund & Babin, 2010; Zikmund et al., 2010). The researcher sets up a situation for the respondents and asks them to express their own views, or to complete/interpret some ambiguous stimulus presented to them.

The qualitative research design (Phase 1) was divided into two separate stages, involving separate research procedures (see Figure 4.2). This research study utilised both a direct (focus group) and indirect (association technique) research approach. Both approaches are discussed in subsequent sections.

4.7.1 Research design: Stage 1 - Focus group

A focus group is defined as an "unstructured, free-flowing interview with a small group of people …" (Zikmund et al., 2010:141), "focused around a particular topic or set of issues" (Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Leech & Zoran, 2009:2). Focus groups usually include between six and ten participants (Kumar et al., 2002; Morgan, 1988; Zikmund et al., 2010) with eight being a common target according to Belk, Fischer and Kozinets (2013). In summary, a focus group discussion is the process of obtaining possible ideas on or solutions to a marketing problem from participants by discussing it (Kitzinger, 1994; Kumar et al., 2002; Morgan, 1988). It is argued that a focus group usually contains the following two core elements: first, a trained moderator, who sets the stage with a prepared interview guide containing questions on the specified subject and, second, prompting participants' feelings, attitudes and perceptions about the specified subject (Cowley, 1999; Puchata & Potter, 2004). In the case of this study, the focus group included both of the above-mentioned core elements.

The two most widely used and well-known means of collecting qualitative data in the social sciences are focus group and individual/in-depth interviews, both adding value to research but utilised in accordance with a research study's stated research objectives (Morgan, 1988; Zikmund et al., 2010). A comparison between focus group interviews and in-depth interviews is drawn in Table 4.2, which provides researchers with a good outline of and valid justifications for which method will be the more appropriate one to utilise in a specified study.

Table 4.2: Comparison of focus group interviews and in-depth interviews

	Focus Groups	In-depth Interviews
Group interactions	Group interaction – stimulate new ideas from respondents	No group interaction – ideas come from interviewer
Group/peer pressure	Group pressure may clarify and challenge participants' thinking	No group/peer pressure – the thinking of respondents not challenged
Respondent competition	More competition among respondents for time to talk; less time available for in-depth detail	Respondents can express thoughts in a non-competitive environment; more time to obtain detailed information
Influence	Responses of group may be influenced by other group members' opinions	No potential for influence from other respondents
Subject sensitivity	If subject is sensitive, respondents might be hesitant to share in the presence of other people	If subject is sensitive, respondents may be more likely to share because no other people are present
Interviewer fatigue	One interviewer can conduct several sessions without becoming bored or fatigued	Interviewer fatigue and boredom are possible when many individual interviews are needed
Amount of information	A relatively large amount of information can be obtained in a short period of time	A large amount of detailed information can be obtained, but over a longer period of time
Stimuli	Stimulus materials are limited	Stimulus material can be used
Interviewer schedule	It may be difficult to assemble eight to ten respondents to meet at the same time	Individual interviews are easier to schedule

Source: Adapted from Kumar et al. (2002)

The first qualitative research objective was to identify ten car brands that are perceived as familiar to consumers (see Figure 4.2). In order to reach this objective, it was decided that a more direct approach was necessary to obtain the needed information from the participants. Further, it was decided that a focus group interview – as opposed to in-depth

interviews – would be the best suited direct approach to reach the stated objective because of this technique's ability to allow participants to discuss their feelings and attitudes regarding the subject in a group setting. During focus group sessions, the interplay between respondents allows them to piggyback off each other's ideas, which means that one respondent stimulates thought among the other respondents (Belk et al., 2013; Kumar et al. 2002; Zikmund & Babin, 2010; Zikmund et al., 2010). As this process continues, creative insights from all respondents increase (Kitzinger, 1994).

Respondent competition is present when conducting a focus group interview because of each participant's drive or will to contribute an opinion. In this case, less time is available for the interviewer to collect more detailed information from the respondents, as opposed to in-depth interviews, during which participants can express their thoughts in a non-competitive environment. In the case of the present study, in-depth detail was not required and combined group opinions were sufficient. When conducting focus group interviews, the participants' responses may be influenced by other participants in the group. The influence can be regarded as either positive or negative. Influence is seen as negative when participants form opinions that are untruthful based on other participants' opinions – in order to be seen as more desirable by other group members (Zikmund et al., 2010).

When the subject discussed during an interview is sensitive (i.e. drug or alcohol abuse), participants might be hesitant to share their opinions, in which case an in-depth individual interview approach would be more suitable. In the case of this study, car brands were the subject of interest, something that is not regarded as a sensitive subject. Therefore it was presumed that the participants would be more likely to share their opinions and express their attitudes towards and feeling about various car brands. Often, interviewer fatigue and/or boredom is associated with group and individual interviews. As pointed out in Table 4.2, one interviewer can often conduct several focus group sessions without becoming bored or fatigued, as opposed to in-depth interviews, for which sessions often last more than an hour (Kumar et al., 2002; Zikmund et al., 2010). In the case of in-depth interviews

lasting more than an hour at a time, it is possible for participants also to become bored or fatigued, which leads to them answering questions less accurately. In a group setting, the chance of fatigue and boredom might be much less, since participants can interact with and have informal conversations among one another.

A large amount of information is obtainable with both direct methods. When conducting focus groups, information can be obtained in a relatively short amount of time. Due to some time constraints placed on the current research study, a focus group interview allowed the researcher to collect as much information as possible in a short amount of time. According to Kumar et al. (2002), the stimulus materials that can be used are somewhat limited when conducting a focus group and less limited when conducting in-depth interviews. In terms of this study's focus group interview, the stimulus required was enough to prompt the participants' responses (see Section 4.7.3).

Puchata and Potter (2004) state that focus groups can be distinguished according to the desired outcome and the type of research question. The latter refers to whether the focus group interviews will be self-contained in a research study or whether they will be used as an adjunct to other research methods, such as in-depth interviews, observation, surveys or experiments. As mentioned, the focus group interview conducted by the researcher served as an adjunct to the second stage of the qualitative phase as well as the quantitative research, which, according to Wilkinson (1998), is the more commonly used research design that involves focus groups. The stimuli used in the execution of the focus group interview are discussed in more detail in Section 4.7.3.

4.7.2 Research design: Stage 2 - Projective technique

In certain situations it is impossible to obtain accurate information about what people think and feel by asking them to communicate their thoughts and feelings with direct questioning (i.e. in-depth interviewing). The subjects/participants are frequently unaware of their underlying motives, aspirations and attitudes when buying a product or choosing one

brand over another (Donoghue, 2000). In these situations, projective techniques have the ability to uncover the innermost thoughts and feelings of a person (Donoghue, 2000; Kline, 1983). Instead of questioning participants directly, they may be asked to respond indirectly by rather talking about a third party or object (Donoghue, 2000; Webb, 1992). As there are no right or wrong answers, it is hoped that the subjects/participants will project their own unconscious feelings in their answers (Donoghue, 2000). According to researchers, projective techniques are based on the principle that unconscious desires and feelings can be inferred by presenting participants with an ambiguous situation in which they have to use the ego or personality defence mechanism of projection (Churchill, 1991; Kassarjian, 1974).

As mentioned in Section 4.7 above, projective techniques involve the use of vague, ambiguous, unstructured stimulus objects or situations in which the participant "projects" his or her personality, attitude, opinions and self-concept (Burns & Lennon, 1993). According to Donoghue (2000), the stimuli range from structured (clear and definite) at one end of the continuum to unstructured (very ambiguous) at the other end. The structure of a stimulus determines the degree of choice available to participants. A questionnaire requiring participants to read a list of statements and answer each of them is an example of a highly structured stimulus. The participant has an unambiguous choice among clear alternatives and the stimuli will probably be interpreted among all participants. Ambiguous stimuli, in turn, present the participants with a wide range of alternative choices and the participants are free to make their own interpretations. An intermediate position on the stimulus continuum can be defined as techniques using semi-ambiguous stimuli, such as pictures and sentence completion techniques – as in the case of this study (Donoghue, 2000).

It is suggested that projective techniques should constitute relatively ambiguous stimuli to permit participants to interpret the stimuli in terms of their own perceptions and in their own words or actions (Donoghue, 2000). However, according to Churchill (1991), the

nature of the stimuli should offer enough direction to evoke some association with the concept of interest.

As illustrated in Figure 4.3, projective techniques are more of an indirect approach to collecting data and are divided into four categories in terms of the response types required from the participants: association, completion, construction and, finally, a type termed expressive (Burns & Lennon, 1993). The first mentioned category, association, refers to a situation in which participants are presented with a stimulus and they respond by indicating the first word, image or thought elicited by the stimulus. Word association and the pictures-and-words technique are just two association methods that can be utilised in a research study. In the case of word association, participants are asked to read a list of words and to then indicate the first word that comes to mind. In the latter association technique, the participants are provided with a number of words and pictures and are asked to make an association between the words and the pictures, as well as to explain their choice (Green, 1984).

In the second category of projective techniques, completion, the participants are given an incomplete sentence, story, argument or conversation and are then asked to complete it (Burns & Lennon, 1993; Zikmund & Babin, 2010). This technique is often useful when time is limited but the research still requires some depth of feeling from the participants. Gordon and Langmaid (cited in Donoghue, 2000) say that brand mapping is a completion technique for which a variety of competing brands are displayed. Participants are asked to group given brands according to some subject-stipulated characteristic.

When utilising construction as projective technique, participants are asked to construct a story or a picture from a stimulus concept (Burns & Lennon, 1993; Zikmund et al., 2010). This technique requires a more controlled and complex intellectual activity on the part of the participants. An example of this technique includes participants being handed a picture or series of pictures and then being asked to constitute a story around each picture, what

led to it and what might happen in the future. Third-person techniques are also included in this category, where participants are required to give opinions of other people's feelings, attitudes and actions (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). The last projective technique discussed is termed expressive. Participants are asked to role play, act, paint or draw a specific concept or situation (Burns & Lennon, 1988). This technique focuses mainly on the manner in which the participants construct something, rather on what it actually represents.

The second qualitative research objective was to assign a brand personality to each of the ten car brands identified in Stage 1 of qualitative data gathering (see Figure 4.2). Assigning a human personality to a brand (brand personification) requires participants to associate a brand with a person or certain personality type. It was decided that the best-suited projective technique to reach the objective stated above would be an association technique using pictures and words. As discussed in detail in Chapter 2, Mulyanegara et al. (2009) identify four distinct brand personalities, each one reflecting a dimension of the FFM. For the purposes of this study, Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) brand personality dimensions and traits were used to link each of the ten car brands to a brand personality (using the traits of each brand personality dimension). This technique allowed the researcher to discover participants' emotional responses to brands (Green, 1984). The instruments/stimuli used for the qualitative phase are discussed in more depth in the following section.

4.7.3 Research instruments/stimuli

As discussed, the first stage of the qualitative research phase consisted of a focus group interview. In line with utilising such a technique, a focus group interview guide (see Appendix A) that detailed the content and set of topics to be covered during the interview was developed before the focus group took place (Morgan, 1988). The interview guide was structured to include a foreword and six questions that had to be answered on

completion of the focus group. The foreword began by welcoming the participants and thanking them for making time to participate. The moderator then introduced herself and the assistant moderator. The foreword also included a partial explanation of the premise of the research being undertaken, and then informing participants that the session was being recorded for the purpose of data analysis. Verbal consent was received from the participants before the start of the session. The interview guide contained the six questions, which were automatically converted to a set of topics discussed during the focus group.

The aim of the focus group was to identify ten car brands (among 26 other brands) perceived as familiar to consumers. The more exclusive and unfamiliar brands, such as Infiniti, McLaren, DFSK, MG, Aston Martin and Ferrari, were not included in the study, as they are more likely to be seen as status symbols than the average car bought by consumers. These brands were also least likely to have a SUV model in their product range. Stimulus materials were included in the focus group in order to stimulate participants' thoughts about various car brands currently in the market, as well as encourage the participants' physical engagement. The logo of each of the 26 chosen brands was colour printed on a square piece of paper (11 cm by 11 cm), which was then laminated to make handling easier and minimise possible damage. These logos were packed out in no particular order during the focus group interview, with the aim to remind participants of all the possible brands.

The second stage of qualitative gathering, as mentioned, involved a projective technique approach – picture and word association. Consistent with the focus group interview stage, an interviewer guide (see Appendix B) was developed that detailed the content and instructions to be given to the participants before the association sessions took place. The interviewer guide was structured to include a prelude and instructions for the picture- and word-association sessions – in both Afrikaans and English. The prelude began by welcoming the participant and thanking him/her for taking the time to participate. The

prelude also included a partial explanation of the premise of the research being undertaken, and the participants were informed that the session was being recorded for the purpose of data analysis. Again, verbal consent was received from the participants before these sessions began. The participants had the option to opt out of the session at any point in time. Clear instructions of how to proceed were read to the participant, after which the participant could begin the picture- and word-association task.

The picture- and word-association task entailed linking a brand personality dimension to the ten car brands (see Section 4.7.1). For the purpose of this study, SUV models were used (from each brand's available SUV product range) to represent each brand. The SUV models were chosen according to the random selection function using Microsoft Excel 2010. Table 4.3 lists the ten brands, together with the corresponding randomly selected SUV models used in this study.

Table 4.3: Car brands and SUV model

Car brand	SUV model
Audi	Q3
Volvo	XC60
Toyota	RAV4
Jeep	Grand Cherokee
Mercedes	GL-Class
Land Rover	Evoque
Mini Cooper	Countryman
Honda	CR-V
BMW	X1
Volkswagen	Tiguan

An image of each standard SUV model was printed and laminated – using white SUV models to standardise and eliminate any possible bias. The image of the SUV included two angles: the front and left-hand side. By doing this, the researcher hoped to provide a

clear depiction of the SUV brand being displayed. As mentioned before, Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) four brand personality dimensions were used in the study, as well as the traits comprising each dimension. The aim of this stage was to assign a distinct brand personality to each of the car brands listed in Table 4.3, according to the respondents' perceptions. Fifty words (traits) were printed and laminated (all in the same font and size) and supplied to the participants to associate with the ten SUV car brands. The selection of 50 words comprised the four brand personalities, their traits or characteristics, as well as synonyms for each of those brand personalities and traits (see Table 4.4). The synonyms were chosen by using the "synonym" function in Microsoft Word 2010.

Table 4.4: Dimensions, traits and synonyms

Dimensions	Traits	Synonyms
Trusted	• Reliable • Persevering	• Dependable • Tenacious • Resolute • Determined • Stubborn • Consistent • Steadfast
Sociable	• Creative • Friendly • Outgoing	• Approachable • Gregarious • Artistic • Inspired • Innovative • Inventive • Imaginative • Original • Responsive
Exciting	• Adventurous • Cool • Active	• Exhilarating • Bold • Daring • Courageous • Audacious • Thrilling • Calm • Casual • Vigorous • Energetic • Dynamic • Lively
Sincere	• Simple • Caring	• Genuine • Earnest • Humble • Modest • Unpretentious

	• Kind
	• Gentle
	• Open

The printed and laminated pictures and words were placed on a white surface (two A5 white cardboard posters). The white surface was used to eliminate possible extraneous variables and biases that might influence the participants. For each of the sessions, the pictures were placed in the same order on the left. On the right, four columns were created, into which each of the dimensions, their traits and all synonyms were placed. The order of the words in each column was not specific. Sorting the words into four columns made it easier for the participants to acquaint themselves with the available word options. A document with all the words and their definitions in alphabetical order was supplied to each participant to ensure that they understood the meaning of each word. All definitions were extracted from *The South African Pocket Oxford Dictionary* (1994). The sample selection for the qualitative research phase is discussed next.

4.7.4 Sample selection

Zikmund and Babin (2010:694) define a sampling plan as decisions made regarding the target population, the method used to select the sample, the determination of the sample size, procedures that are related to the ultimate selection of the sampling element used in a study, as well as how and by whom the sampling units will be reached. By selecting a sample or a subset drawn from the larger population, a researcher is enabled to draw conclusions about the stipulated population pertaining to the research conducted (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:65). Figure 4.4 illustrates the sampling selection stages when conducting research.
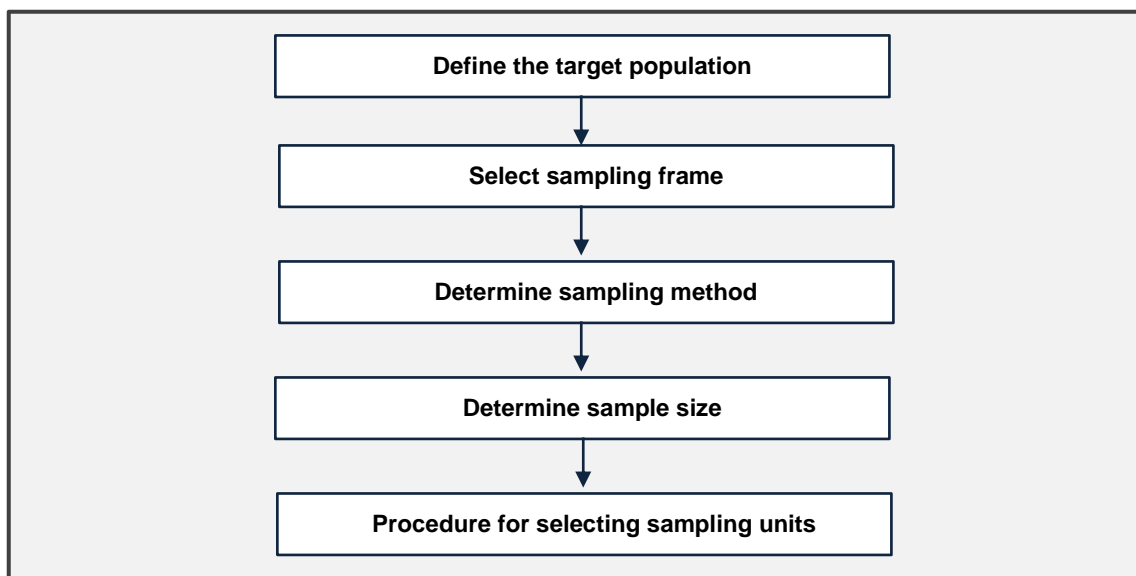
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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
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│        ┌───────────────────────────────────────┐         │
│        │      Define the target population     │         │
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│                          │                                │
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│        ┌───────────────────────────────────────┐         │
│        │         Select sampling frame         │         │
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│                          ▼                                │
│        ┌───────────────────────────────────────┐         │
│        │      Determine sampling method        │         │
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│        │        Determine sample size          │         │
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│        ┌───────────────────────────────────────┐         │
│        │   Procedure for selecting sampling units │      │
│        └───────────────────────────────────────┘         │
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Figure 4.4: Stages in selecting a sample

Source: Adapted from Zikmund and Babin (2010:415) and Churchill (1999:498)

4.7.4.1 Target population

The first stage in a sampling design is to define the target population of the research study – in other words, the individuals that need to be reached (Tustin et al., 2005:337; Zikmund & Babin, 2010:694). The target population refers to the larger group from which a sample is drawn (Blumberg et al., 2011; Churchill, 1999:496; Zikmund & Babin, 2010:415). In turn, a census can also be used to obtain information from a larger population that involves an investigation of "the entire population" (Tustin et al., 2005:337). Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:450) say that it is important to state exactly who is and who is not included in the sample used, as this will facilitate the process of achieving reliable and generalisable results, despite the target population being restricted to only a sample.

For both stages 1 and 2 of the qualitative research phase, the target population included any male or females, of all races, between the ages of 24 and 65, who fell into the employed category or who were in the process of completing a postgraduate degree, had an understanding of the English language and lived in South Africa.

4.7.4.2 Sampling frame

The second stage in a sampling design is to select the sampling frame that is used to select sampling elements (Zikmund et al., 2010:391). A sampling frame refers to "a list of elements from which a sample may be drawn" (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:417). Tustin et al. (2005) state that certain requirements should first be met for a sampling frame to be considered reliable. Firstly, the sampling frame should include all population members, secondly, it should not include duplicate elements and, finally, it should be accurate as possible as well as free from foreign elements.

The broad target population identified makes it difficult and even impossible to obtain a sampling frame. As discussed in the next section, the sample was drawn by using a non-probability method. The next section discusses the sampling method, sampling size and procedure for selecting sampling units used in this study.

4.7.4.3 Sampling method, size and procedure for selecting sampling units

There are two basic sampling methods: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, each element in the stipulated population has a known non-zero chance of being selected – in other words, population elements are chosen randomly (Blumberg et al., 2011:175). Simple random, systematic stratified and multistage sampling are examples of probability sampling techniques (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:432). In contrast, each population element in non-probability sampling is chosen non-randomly and has a non-zero chance of being selected (Blumberg et al., 2011:175). Techniques include convenience, judgement, quota, snowball and multistage sampling (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:432).

Due to the broadly defined target population, largely fragmented and informal, the researcher had no access to a reliable sampling frame. As a result, a non-probability sampling method was used to select sampling units in the first phase of this study's

primary research. The population elements had a non-zero chance of being selected. (Blumberg et al., 2011:177; Zikmund et al., 2010:395).

Determining the sample size of a research project is important for two reasons: firstly, because it has an impact on the level of measurement error and, secondly, it influences the power of the statistical tests performed (Boshoff, 2012; Zikmund et al., 2010). The sample size of any research study also has a significant effect on the reliability and accuracy of the data collected, as well as the accuracy of the interpretations made (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). According to the literature on the determination of sample size, there are various ways of and statistical methods for calculating the most effective and representative sample size (Zikmund et al., 2010:459).

As discussed in Section 4.7.1, focus groups usually include between six and ten participants (Kumar et al., 2002; Morgan, 1988; Zikmund et al., 2010), enabling the researcher to draw reliable and viable conclusions. The number of focus group interviews conducted depends on the research goals set for the study (Morgan, 1988:42). It is suggested that, if the moderator can anticipate the outcome of the next session, follow-up focus group interviews are not needed. Also, when the research conducted is exploratory in nature or aimed at getting individual perspectives, multiple focus group interviews are not necessary. Morgan (1988:42) also states that the more homogeneous the groups are in terms of "background and role-based perspectives, the fewer" groups are needed. Only one focus group interview, comprising five participants (chosen from the appropriate target population) was conducted. It was decided that the information extracted from this focus group was sufficient for this research study's purposes.

The second stage, as discussed in Section 4.7.2, employed a projective technique approach – picture and word association. Each participant completed the assignment individually. In order to establish a pattern in the data and draw reliable and generalisable conclusions, an extensive number of picture- and word-association sessions were

required. Research indicates that between 20 and 30 sessions are the optimal number to achieve the above-stated aims (Marshall, Cardon, Poddar & Fontenot, 2013). Due to time constraints, only 25 sessions were completed, which is still in line with Marshall et al.'s (2013) suggested optimal sample size, after which a clear pattern was recognised in the data. Table 4.5 is a summary of all the steps followed and discussed in previous sections.

Table 4.5: Summary of qualitative sampling selection process

Sampling process	Qualitative phase	
	Focus group	**Picture/word association**
Target population		● Males and females; ● all races; ● employed or postgraduate degree in progress; ● understanding of the English language; ● SA citizen
Sampling frame	None	None
Sampling method	Non-probability	Non-probability
Sample size	5 participants (one focus group session)	25 participants
Procedure for selecting units	Convenience sampling	Convenience sampling

4.7.5 Data collection and fieldwork

The collection of data is also referred to as fieldwork. This takes place when a fieldworker (person who is responsible for data assembly in the field) records the answers to the questions asked in a survey or personal interview, or observes situations such as in focus group interviews or any other qualitative or quantitative data collection instances. This stage of the marketing research process is when contact is made with the potential respondents or participants, personal interviews are conducted, the data from the respondents is recorded and the data us collected for the processing and analysing thereof (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:471). Zikmund et al. (2010:444) also state that the data

collection process is rarely executed by the researcher who designs the research study, but rather by professional fieldworkers.

As discussed in Section 4.7, the qualitative phase of the primary research design was divided into two stages. First, a focus group interview (with five participants) was conducted, followed by 25 picture- and word-association sessions conducted with 25 individuals on separate occasions (see Section 4.7.3).

Participants were selected to participate in the current study on the basis of the sampling method, size and procedure described in the section above, as well as the research method and techniques utilised. For the focus group interview, multiple individuals fitting the target population were selected and contacted personally. Only seven individuals had the time and agreed to participate in the focus group interview, and only five people arrived at the given time and location. The selection was made on the basis of convenience, as discussed in Section 4.7.4.

The focus group was not conducted in a typical focus group setting (containing one-way mirrors) due to a lack of resources. It was conducted at a venue, sufficient for the purpose, located at Stellenbosch University. The focus group was led by the researcher, who acted as the moderator and was assisted by a professional in the field of qualitative research (assistant moderator). The goal of the focus group was to prompt participants' attitudes to and perceptions of the various car brands. The moderator led the focus group by referring back to the focus group interview guide, consisting of an introduction welcoming respondents to the focus group and introducing the purpose of the focus group, and six questions that had to be answered on completion of the group (see Appendix A).

The participants were informed that the focus group would be recorded to assist the researcher in data analysis. They were asked for their permission and were allowed to leave the session if not comfortable with the process. Participation in the focus group was entirely voluntary. The duration of the focus group was 42 minutes, and all the needed

information was collected during that time period. After assessing the information retrieved from the focus group, it was concluded that no follow-up focus groups were needed, since the objective had been reached (ten car brands perceived as familiar were identified). The participants were provided with refreshments during the focus group in order to prevent fatigue and boredom. The focus group was concluded by the researcher thanking the participants for their time and participation.

During the second stage, 25 individuals fitting the target population were approached at different times during the qualitative research phase. Again, these individuals were selected on the basis of convenience. The picture- and word-association sessions were conducted at different locations in the Stellenbosch and Somerset West area. These locations were identified as appropriate to accommodate the stimulus materials used.

Each picture- and word-association session started off with a formal introduction of the fieldworker (the researcher), the participant was thanked for making available his/her time to participate in the research study, permission was asked to record the session to assist in data analysis, and the participant was informed that he/she was not obliged to participate and was welcome to conclude the session at any point. The five instructions were then read to the participant. The preceding welcoming and instructions were read to the respondents from an instruction manual, composed by the researcher, in their preferred language (English or Afrikaans). The aim of the instruction manual being in both English and Afrikaans was twofold; firstly, to ensure participants understood the task and, secondly, to ensure consistency throughout all sessions conducted (see Appendix B). A list of 50 words/traits and each of their Oxford Dictionary definitions was supplied to the participants in the case they did not know/understand the words.

After each participant completed the task, the outcome was captured by camera and stored in a safe location for reviewing purposes. No time limit was set for participants to complete the picture- and word-association task, although each session never lasted

longer than twenty minutes. The researcher was present at all the sessions in case assistance was needed. The data processing and analysis of this study's qualitative data are discussed in the following section.

4.7.6 Data processing and analysis

The second-last step of the marketing research process is the processing and analysis of the primary data collected from the respondents (Blumberg et al., 2011:46). The qualitative data analysis stage aimed to understand the various elements that make up the collected data by inspecting the concepts, constructs or variables so as to identify any trends and patterns, or to establish themes in the data. For the purpose of the current study, the analysed qualitative data of both stages (focus groups and projective technique approach) enabled the researcher to extract valuable information that was used in the quantitative research phase.

4.7.6.1 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis requires more involvement and interpretation by the researcher and is defined as a "method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This method allows the researcher to segment, categorise, summarise and reconstruct data in a way that captures the important concepts within the data set (Ayres, 2008; Lapadat, 2010). Braun and Clarke (2006:6) mention that thematic analysis is widely used in qualitative research scenarios, but "there is no clear agreement about what (it) is and how you go about doing it". Ayres (2008) suggests that the process of thematically analysing a data set begins with the development of a coding list to segment and categorise the data. This process of coding the data allows for grouping various data segments together and creating descriptions of themes (Lapadat, 2010). These descriptions are then analysed to create a holistic understanding of themes extracted from the data. For the purpose of this study, thematic analysis was used in both stages one and two of the qualitative research phase.

As mentioned, stage one involved a focus group interview with six questions/topics that had to be answered/addressed on completion of the interview, with the most relevant one being identifying ten car brands perceived as being familiar to consumers; these brands were then used in the second stage of the research design. In order to address the objective, the last question the participants were asked was to group car brands according to their familiarity. As this question was staged as an activity, the printed brand logos (see Section 4.7.3) were placed and shuffled around on a surface until the participants reached a mutual decision. As mentioned previously, a SUV model of each brand (for further use in the study) was selected using randomisation. Table 4.6 lists the ten brands that the respondents perceived as being the most familiar brands in general. Another focus group was not deemed necessary, since the objective for this stage of the research design was addressed, and continuation to stage two of the research design could begin.

Table 4.6: Ten car brands perceived as being familiar

Car brands
Audi
BMW
Honda
Jeep
Land Rover
Mercedes
Mini Cooper
Toyota
Volkswagen
Volvo

To reiterate, stage two of the research design involved assigning one of four brand personalities to the ten car brands and models identified in stage one by using a projective technique – picture and word association (see Sections 4.7.2 and 4.7.3). The projected outcome of this stage was to identify four brands that distinctively portray one of the four

brand personality dimensions for use in phase two (quantitative research phase). On completion of each picture and word association, each participant's response to the task was captured photographically for the purpose of processing and analysis.

Each brand was treated as a separate group or theme, with a list of traits developed in conjunction with the literature compiled from the picture- and word-association sessions. After all 25 sessions were completed, the traits assigned to each car in each session were grouped in order to establish whether there was a general trend in assigned traits and whether the traits assigned were largely represented one of the four brand personalities. Table 4.7 illustrates the final four car brands and models selected for further use in this study. Each of these brands clearly portrays one of Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) four brand personalities.

Table 4.7: Perceived brand personalities

Car brand and model	Perceived brand personality
Mini Cooper Countryman	**Sociable brand**
Volkswagen Tiguan	**Sincere brand**
Land Rover Evoque	**Exciting brand**
Toyota Rav4	**Trusted brand**

4.7.6.2 Reliability and validity

While reliability and validity are concepts used for testing and evaluating quantitative research, these elements are used in all kinds of research (Golafshani, 2003). Therefore, the technique by which a qualitative study can be evaluated or regarded as reliable is to check to what extent consistent methods and procedures were used. Various advocates are of the opinion that the concept of reliability is counter-intuitive to qualitative methodologies, given its interpretative and subjective nature, and that it rather should be addressed through other concepts (Brown, Burton, Marshall and Miller, 2008).

According to Golafshani (2003), the examination of trustworthiness is crucial to ensure reliability in qualitative research and consists of four criteria: credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability, all of which were addressed in the qualitative phase of this research study (Shenton, 2004). The use of well-recognised research methods (focus group interviews and projective techniques), pilot testing (verbal opinions from professionals in the field) as well as making use of recording devices (tape recorder and camera) in both stages one and two of the qualitative research phase supplied credibility and dependability. To ensure the transferability of the study, interview guides and instruction manuals were developed, and background data was provided to establish the context of the study, along with a detailed description of the phenomenon in question. Confirmability was catered for through a detailed methodological description of the research phase that enables readers to determine how far the data and constructs emerging from it can be accepted. According to Shenton (2004), this process helps in creating an "audit trail", which allows any observer to trace the course of the research step by step.

While a measure may be reliable (consistent) in its results, the measure is worthless if the results themselves cannot be shown to be valid (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Accordingly, validity, broadly describing the extent to which a measure can be shown to measure what it intends to measure, is crucial for any study (Cramer & Howitt, 2004; Brown et al.,, 2008). According to Winter (2000), the concept of validity is described by a wide range of terms in qualitative studies. This concept is not a single, fixed or universal concept, but "rather a contingent construct, inescapably grounded in the processes and intentions of particular research methodologies and projects" (Winter, 2000:1).

It is suggested that validity is affected by the researcher's perception of validity in the study and, as a result, many researchers have developed their own concepts of the term or adopted what they consider to be more appropriate terms, such as quality, trustworthiness and rigor (Brown etc al., 2008). The selected group of individuals in both

stages of the qualitative research phase largely represented the target population, so that their responses represented a credible selection of car brands and perceived brand personalities. It is important, however, to note that the sample sizes for both qualitative research stages were limited due to the nature and purpose and therefore it would not be plausible to generalise the findings. Also, the qualitative research phase was undertaken for the exploration and identification of variables for the purpose of the quantitative research phase. See Table 4.8 below for a summary of the qualitative findings and the suggested relationship between the brands' personalities and individuals' personalities.

Table 4.8: Summary of specific brand personalities and individuals' personalities

Brand	Perceived brand personality	Personality dimension
Mini Cooper	Sociable brand	Suggested to appeal to individuals scoring high on openness to experience and extroversion
Volkswagen	Sincere brand	Suggested to appeal to individuals scoring high on agreeableness
Land Rover	Exciting brand	Suggested to appeal to individuals scoring high on openness to experience and extroversion
Toyota	Trusted brand	Suggested to appeal to individuals scoring high on neuroticism

4.8 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN (PHASE 2)

Quantitative research refers to research that is assigned numbers in a meaningful and ordered manner and that makes statistical analysis possible (Zikmund et al., 2010:681). There are three methods or techniques available to researchers following a quantitative research approach: observation, experiments and survey research (McGown, 1979; Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Figure 4.5 illustrates the quantitative research methods most often utilised in primary research.
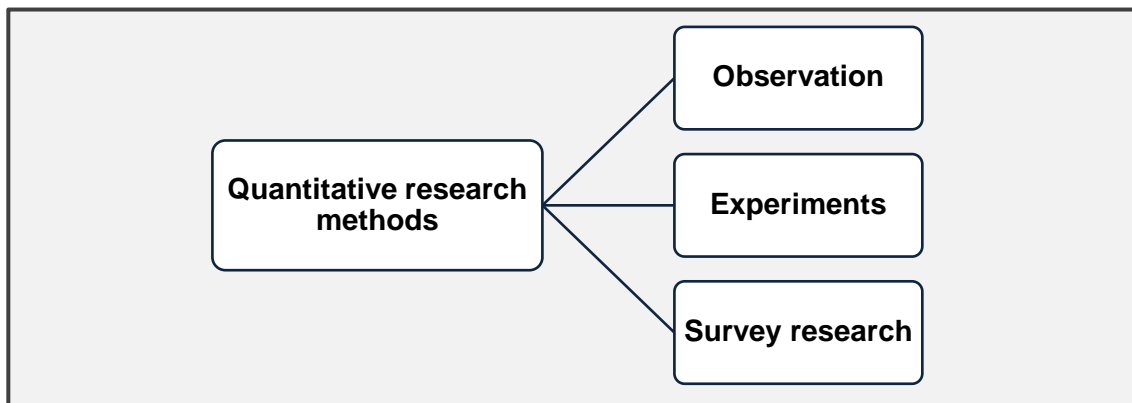
Figure 4.5: Quantitative research methods

Source: Adapted from Churchill et al. (2010) and Malhotra (2004:137)

Observation is the process of recording the behavioural patterns of humans, objects and happenings as they are witnessed, and no questioning or communication is needed (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:691). Observation can either be done by mechanical instruments or humans (Burns & Bush, 2003:208). Observation can also be obtrusive or unobtrusive, which refers to the extent to which the person being observed is aware that he or she is an object in a research study (Boote & Mathews, 1999; Cooper & Schindler, 2006; Zikmund & Babin, 2010:246).

Experiments are research designs that are able to provide evidence of causal relationships amongst variables. Churchill (1999:148) explains an experimental design as "one in which the investigator manipulates at least one independent variable". When independent variables are manipulated, their effect on another variable is measured, while

other variables (not relevant to the situation of manipulation) may be eliminated, thus it is hypothesised that the independent variable in some way "causes" the dependent variable to occur. According to Cooper and Schindler (2006) there is at least one independent variable and one dependant variable in a causal relationship. Experiments can take place either in the field (a realistic and natural situation) or in a laboratory (researcher creates a situation with desired conditions, manipulating some variables whilst controlling others) (Churchill, 1999:148; Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

According to Malhotra (2007:183), survey research is when researchers obtain the necessary information from respondents by questioning them. Survey questioning is structured, in other words a formal questionnaire is developed and the questions are asked in a prearranged order. The respondents are asked a variety of questions about their behaviour, intentions, awareness, attitudes, motivations, demographics and lifestyle characteristics. Survey research can be either interactive (allows for two-way communication between the researcher and the respondent) or non-interactive, which means the surveys used are solely a vehicle by which respondents give answers to static questions (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:211). Personal interviews, telephone interviews, mall-intercept interviews, mail surveys and web-based surveys are the vehicles available for researchers to collect data from respondents (Zikmund et al., 2010:209-231).

The data collection method used in primary research depends largely on the desired types of data (nominal, ordinal, interval or ratio) the researcher desires (Blumberg et al., 2011:206). The chosen method for this study was selected by taking into account the available data sources, the urgency of the decision, the cost of obtaining the data needed, as well as the objectives of the research method. For the purpose of this study, quantitative data was collected by means of the survey research method using a questionnaire. In accordance with the research objectives, the survey method was deemed to be the best for this study. The survey method is also a less costly and time-consuming technique to perform than both observation and experiments.

With the consideration of time and money constraints, it was decided that a web-based survey method would be best suited to the purpose of this study. The reason was that the set-up, distribution and extraction of raw data are more simplistic and time-saving. The survey was distributed via the Internet (email and the social media platform Facebook) to the intended target population (see Section 4.8.3 for a detailed discussion on the distribution of the survey). The web-based survey was designed using Qualtrics, a platform that allows researchers to develop and distribute online electronic surveys. This survey tool also assists the researcher in the data analysis process, as the processing and coding is done automatically by Qualtrics. The questionnaire could be accessed via a website link, enabling consumers to complete the survey. The next section focuses on the development of the measurement instrument (questionnaire) used in this study.

4.8.1 Measurement instrument

This section discusses the development and implementation of the measurement instrument used in the quantitative phase of this study. As mentioned above, data was collected by means of a web-based questionnaire. The design of the questionnaire was influenced by various factors, including the type of research being conducted, the data needed (nominal, ordinal, interval or ratio) to reach the study's objectives and the method used to collect the data. During the design stage of the questionnaire, factors such as the correct phrasing of the questions, the sequence in which the questions are arranged as well as the layout of the questionnaire were considered carefully (Malhotra & Birks, 1999; Zikmund & Babin, 2010). The data needed to reach the objectives required that the questionnaire design consist of three main focus areas.

The first focus area in the questionnaire consisted of scales measuring brand personality, purchase intent and brand importance. The scale measuring brand personality aimed to re-establish the personality assigned to the specific car brand and model in stage 2 of the qualitative research phase. The purchase intent scale aimed to measure individuals' preferences and purchase intent towards the specified car brand and model and, lastly,

psychographic items were added to measure a product and brand's importance in terms of having and reflecting status.

The second focus area included the Ten-Item Personality Measure (TIPI), which is an adapted and shortened version of the FFM personality scale that measured individuals' personality types (Gosling et al., 2003; McCrae, 2000). The third and last focus area of the structured questionnaire consisted of questions aimed at asking respondents to provide their demographic information, including age, race, income and gender. These questions were placed randomly within the questionnaire to reduce potential order bias and respondent fatigue, which could have skewed the data collected. Each of the three constructs are addressed separately.

4.8.1.1 Brand personality, purchase intent and product/brand status

The objective of this construct was two-fold. The first objective was to measure each brand's personality as perceived by the respondents. A ranking scale was used to measure each of the four car brands' dominant brand personality, split into four separate questions – measuring each car's personality independently. Each question consisted of a two-angled image (front and left side) of the car (the same image used as in the second stage of the qualitative research phase – see Section 4.7.3), a list containing all thirteen dimensions and a scale that allowed respondents to rank four of the thirteen provided brand personality traits from 1 to 4 (where 1 indicates "best description" and 4 indicates "fourth best description"). The list of dimensions supplied was randomised with each question to minimise possible selection bias from the respondents. The respondents were first requested to look carefully at the image of the car provided, as well as the list of words, before ranking the provided traits.

The second objective was to determine the respondents' purchase intent. Following each of the above-mentioned ranking scale questions, the purchase intent towards each relevant car brand and model was measured, giving an indication of the respondent's

brand preferences. The scale items in this section consisted of structured question items, therefore each question item had a pre-specified set of response alternatives and response format. The respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they, firstly, would buy the displayed car model and, secondly, buy the displayed car brand. A seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used as fixed response alternatives to measure this construct. Table 4.9 is a summary of the purchase intent items used to measure the respondents' purchase intent toward each of the four car brands.

Table 4.9: Summary of purchase intent questionnaire items

Purchase intent items		Source
PIMOD	I would buy this car model	Self-generated
PIB	I would buy this car brand	

Consumers' attitudes toward brand and product status were measured for the purpose of added insights only and did not directly relate to the research objective. The scale items in this section also consisted of structured question items; therefore each question item had a pre-specified set of response alternatives and response format. A seven-point Likert scale was used. The respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they strongly disagreed or strongly agreed with the statement provided, with 1 indicating that the respondents strongly disagree and 7 that they strongly agree. Table 4.10 summarises the construct measuring product and brand importance among the respondents.

Table 4.10: Summary of brand and product importance questionnaire items

Brand and product importance		Source	Cronbach's α
BI-1	The status of a product is relevant to me		
BI-2	I would pay more for a product if it has status	Self-generated	0.824
BI-3	I would buy a product just because it has status		
BI-4	In general, when making the decision to purchase a new car, the brand of the car is a big consideration		

4.8.1.2 The TIPI personality measurement scale

The TIPI scale is a shortened, brief measure of the Big Five personality dimensions developed by Gosling et al. (2003) (refer to Chapter 3). To address the research objectives, it was necessary to measure individuals' personality – which was done by using existing personality measurement instruments. Choosing the most appropriate measurement instrument depends on the context of the measure. An example includes industrial psychologists frequently using the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator scale to determine employees' personality types to place them in a job position that would be best suited to their personality type (Coe, 1992; Robbins & Judge, 2010; Wheeler, 2001). For the purpose of this study, it was decided to measure the Big Five personality traits of individuals (see Section 3.4.2). The FFM enjoys significant support and has become one of the most widely used models of personality (Gosling et al., 2003). As mentioned in Chapter 3, the FFM is a hierarchical model of personality traits with five broad factors, representing personality at the broadest level of abstraction.

Researchers are often faced with the need to assess complex psychological constructs in a very short space of time. This might occur when researchers have limited time with respondents or want to avoid factors such as respondent fatigue or acquiescence bias (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Asking respondents to complete a long survey with seemingly

repetitive items can lead to boredom, fatigue and annoyance and therefore reduces the likelihood that respondents will attend to item content with care or even agree to participate and complete the survey (Credé, Harms, Niehorster & Gaye-Valentine, 2012; Robbins, Hendin & Trzesniewski, 2001). The ideal would be to have sufficient time and resources to exploit the superior content validity and reliability of well-established multi-item instruments (Churchill, 1979). Circumstances are often not perfect and researchers may be faced with a choice of using a brief instrument to measure individuals' personality or not measure personality at all.

Several personality measurement instruments have been developed to measure the Big Five dimensions. The most comprehensive personality measurement instrument is Costa and McCrae's (1992) 240-item NEO Personality Inventory and the revised (NEO-PI-R) personality instrument (six specific facets within each dimension). These instruments are too extensive for many research purposes and therefore a number of shorter instruments are commonly used. Three well-established shorter instruments are the 44-item Big Five Inventory (BFI) (John & Srivastava, 1999), the 60-item NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) (Costa & McCrae, 1992) and Goldberg's (1992) instrument comprised of 100 trait descriptive adjectives (TDA). Recognising the need for an even briefer measure of the Big Five, Gosling et al. (2012) developed the 10-item instrument (TIPI) derived from John and Srivastava's (1999) BFI, Costa and McCrae's (1992) NEO-FFI and Goldberg's TDA – as was used in this research study to accommodate time constraints. Single-item and two-item scales are usually psychometrically inferior to multi-item scales (Churchill, 1979; (Credé et al., 2012), although shorter scales do have some advantages. Credé et al. (2012:875) divided reasons for the use of short inventories of personality into two broad categories. The first category relates to their practical nature and the second category to their psychometric nature.

The first of these reasons are, as mentioned, largely practical in nature. Shorter measurement instruments of personality take less time to complete and are therefore less

likely to result in feelings of boredom or fatigue in respondents and fieldworkers. As such, negative participant reactions (refusal or tendency to respond to items in a careless or random fashion) are less likely to occur than might be case when respondents are required to respond to a 240-item personality inventory (NEO Personality Inventory). According to Wanous, Reichers and Hudy (1997), a higher level of face validity is another advantage of using a short personality measurement instrument. Perceived face validity will increase because short inventories do not contain multiple items that might appear to be similar.

The second category of reasons for using shortened personality measures is largely psychometric in nature. Evidence indicating that psychometric sacrifices involved in short personality inventories may not be as significant as generally assumed. Research conducted in this regard has concluded that short scales are no worse than longer scales of the same construct in terms of criterion validity (Burisch, 1984). Evidence also indicates that other psychometric properties, such as test-retest reliability and convergent validity, can also be highly satisfactory. It was concluded that a shorter measurement instrument would be satisfactory for the purpose of this study. Although somewhat inferior to the standard Big Five measurement instrument, the TIPI reached adequate levels in each criterion against which it was evaluated in Gosling et al.'s. (2012:523) study. The TIPI reached satisfying levels of convergent and discriminant validity, test-retest reliability as well as patterns of external correlates.

The scale items in this section consisted of structured questions only, therefore each question had a pre-specified set of response alternatives and response format. The TIPI scale consisted of a 10-item self-report questionnaire. Each item consists of two descriptors/adjectives, separated by a comma, using the general stem, "I see myself as:" The adjectives relate to each of the Big Five dimensions (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness and neuroticism). Respondents were

asked to rank themselves on a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Table 4.11 is a summary of the TIPI personality items.

Table 4.11: Summary of TIPI scale items

Personality dimension items		Source
	Openness to experience	
OE1	I see myself as: Open to new experiences, complex	Gosling et al. (2012)
OE2	I see myself as: Conventional, uncreative	
	Conscientiousness	
CO1	I see myself as: Dependable, self-disciplined	Gosling et al. (2012)
CO2	I see myself as: Disorganised, careless	
	Extroversion	
EX1	I see myself as: Extraverted, enthusiastic	Gosling et al. (2012)
EX2	I see myself as: Reserved, quiet	
	Agreeableness	
AG1	I see myself as: Critical, quarrelsome	Gosling et al. (2012)
AG2	I see myself as: Sympathetic, warm	
	Neuroticism	
NE1	I see myself as: Anxious, easily upset	Gosling et al. (2012)
NE2	I see myself as: Calm, emotionally stable	

4.8.1.3 Demographic information

Basic demographic data was included and placed between the other questionnaire items to reduce respondent fatigue and to encourage respondent engagement throughout the questionnaire. The demographic information required from the respondents included LSM level (a screening question), education, employment status, income level and age. The demographic information allowed the researcher to validate the sample and gain further insight into the respondents' lifestyle. Table 4.12 is a summary of the questions asked, available options supplied as well as the level of scale measurement. The relevant sampling plan is discussed in the subsequent sections.

Table 4.12: Summary of demographic items

Question ID	Questions	Available options	Scale level
LSM Measurement (Screening Criteria)	1. Do you own a laptop and/or desktop computer? 2. Do you own a television? 3. Do you own a motor vehicle? 4. Do you own a vacuum cleaner? 5. Do you have hot running water/geyser?	Yes/No	Nominal
Education	Which of these options best describes your highest level of education received?	Grade 12 Undergraduate degree Postgraduate degree Diploma Other	Interval
Employment	Which of these options best describes your current employment status?	Yes, I have a full-time job Yes, I have a part-time job No, I do not have a job at the moment	Nominal
Age	What is your age in years?	Open-ended	Ratio
Income	Which one of the following income brackets best describes your current personal disposable income?	R5 000 – R9 000 R 10 000 – R14 999 R15 000 – R19 999 R20 000 – R24 999 R25 000 or more	Interval
Gender	What is your gender?	Male Female	Nominal
Population group	Please indicate your population group.	Black White Coloured Asian Other	Nominal

4.8.2 Sample selection

As mentioned in the qualitative research phase, a sampling plan refers to decisions made regarding the target population, the method used to select the sample, the sample size

determination, procedures that are related to the ultimate selection of the sampling element used in a study, as well as how and by whom the sampling units will be reached (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:694).

4.8.2.1 Target population

The target population for the quantitative phase of this study was defined as any male or female individuals who were of all races, between the ages of 24 and 65, fell into the LSM (Living Standard Measures) categories 8 to 10 as outlined by the All Media and Product Survey (AMPS), have an understanding of the English language and live in South Africa. Although included in the questionnaire for data analysis and reporting purposes, no specific income or education level was required of the respondents for this study. As mentioned in Chapter 1, LSM categories are an established and popular means of segmenting the South African population into socio-economic levels (Ungerer & Joubert, 2011). Individuals segmented into LSM categories 8 to 10 are suggested to represent the higher income brackets of the South African population, and this was therefore used as a screening question (SAARF, 2012). It was concluded that these individuals are more likely to have an understanding of the car market and own a car themselves. Respondents not fitting the LSM criteria were redirected to the end of the survey. The age specification included individuals who possibly fall under the category of "first-time car buyers" – in other words consumers who might have been thinking about buying a car.

4.8.2.2 Sampling frame

As already mentioned, a sampling frame refers to a list of elements from which a sample can be selected (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:417). As in the case of the qualitative research phase, the broad target population identified makes it difficult and even impossible to obtain a sampling frame, therefore the sample for this study was selected by using a non-probability method. The next section discusses the sampling method, sampling size and the procedure followed.

4.8.2.3 Sampling method, size and procedure for selecting sampling units

As mentioned before, the researcher had no access to a reliable sampling frame and a non-probability sampling method therefore also was implemented in this phase of the primary research. The population elements had a non-zero chance of being selected. This was as a result of the target population being largely fragmented and informal (Blumberg et al., 2011:177; Zikmund et al., 2010:395).

To reiterate, determining the sample size of a research project is important because it has an impact on the level of measurement error, and it influences the power of the statistical test performed (see Section 4.7.4.3) (Zikmund et al., 2010). The sample size of any research study also has a significant effect on the reliability and accuracy of the data collected, as well as the accuracy of the interpretations of the data (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Owing to the limitations of time and resources, a sample size of at least 200 respondents was selected for the quantitative phase of the research study. These respondents were selected from the appropriate target population, consistent with the sampling method already discussed.

Respondents (sampling elements) could be reached directly, and it therefore was not necessary to make use of multistage sampling in which smaller areas are progressively selected in each stage by utilising a combination of non-probability sampling methods. As mentioned in Section 4.6.3, the web-based survey was distributed via the Internet (email and the social media platform Facebook) (see Section 4.8.3 for a detailed discussion of the distribution of the survey) using snowball sampling. This technique involves selecting initial respondents on the basis of probability or non-probability methods, after which additional respondents are reached by referral from the initial respondents (Blumberg et al., 2011:196). For the purpose of this study, initial respondents were selected using a non-probability method and were chosen on the basis of convenience. Table 4.13 provides a summary of all the steps in selecting a sample and applied to the study at hand.

Table 4.13: Summary of quantitative sampling selection process

Sampling process	Quantitative phase
	Web-based survey
Target population	- Males and females - All races - Age 24 to 65 - LSM categories 8-10 - Understanding of the English language - SA citizen
Sampling frame	None
Sampling method	Non-probability
Sample size	204 respondents
Procedure for selecting units	Snowball sampling (convenience sampling to select initial respondents)

4.8.3 Data collection and fieldwork

As mentioned in Section 4.7.5, the data collection phase is also referred to as fieldwork. This takes place when a fieldworker (person who is responsible for data assembly in the field) records the answers to the questions asked in a survey or personal interview, or observes situations such as focus group interviews or any other qualitative or quantitative data collection instances.

As already discussed, this study deployed a web-based survey method, using Qualtrics to develop the measurement instrument. The questionnaire link was shared with respondents by using the social networking platform Facebook and a traditional communication medium, email. In a short invitation message, respondents were encouraged to follow the link, complete the questionnaire and share it with their friends. Participation was completely voluntary and also incentivised by a cash prize of R1 000.

The winner of the R1 000 cash prize was selected at random from the pool of respondents who provided their contact details at the end of the study. A reminder (the same message as initial invitation message) was continuously posted on Facebook and shared with friends and their friends until the sampling target was reached. Facebook was a valid means of questionnaire distribution as it could circumvent the limitations of overreliance on relatively small samples as well as of self-reporting. Instead, respondents could complete the web-based questionnaire in their natural environment (Kosinski et al., 2016).

The respondents' answers were automatically recorded and saved on the Qualtrics website after the questionnaire was completed. The questionnaire was self-administered, which allowed respondents to complete the questionnaire in their own time and anonymously, which eliminated possible response bias, including interviewer and social desirability bias (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:196). Response bias was a definite possibility, since the respondents were asked to answer questions aimed at characterising themselves. When dealing with these types of questions, it could lead to respondents providing answers that are more "socially acceptable", rather than providing answers that are based on "true feelings" (Steenkamp, De Jong & Baumgartner, 2010; Zikmund & Babin, 2010:196). The target population was also identified as individuals with high literacy skills, which enabled them to complete the questionnaire without assistance.

The data collected from the completed questionnaires was stored in a safe place and kept completely confidential until it was to be exported to Microsoft Excel 2013 and SPSS 22 – a statistical computer software program that assisted the researcher in statistically analysing the data – for further statistical analysis. Data analysis is discussed in the following sections.

4.8.4 Data processing and analysis

As mentioned in the section discussing the qualitative data processing and analysis, this is the second last step in the marketing research process (Blumberg et al., 2011:46). This

step enables the researcher to process the raw data into data that can statistically be analysed, after which meaning can be generated (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:92).

This step of the research process commences with the editing and coding of the collected quantitative primary data. Descriptive statistics allow for the basic "transformation of raw data in a way that describes the basic characteristics" of the sample, followed by inferential statistics, allowing for hypothesis testing (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:516). Reliability, validity and sensitivity are vital in ensuring accurate and relevant generalisations.

4.8.4.1 Editing and coding

Editing is described as "the process of checking the completeness, consistency, and legibility of data and making the data ready for coding" (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:493). Zikmund et al. (2010:468) define the coding of data as the "process of assigning a numerical score or other character symbol" to the edited data in order to translate information elicited from respondents into useable data. In the case of this study, Qualtrics automatically edited and coded the data into an Excel spreadsheet, forming a database. The data was then exported to SPSS version 22 to allow for descriptive analysis and statistical testing. The use of a web-based questionnaire avoided potential legibility and incompleteness problems. The respondents who did not complete the entire questionnaire were removed from the base size.

4.8.4.2 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive analysis of data involves the "fundamental transformation of raw data in a way that describes the basic characteristics of the sample, such as central tendency distribution and variability" (Vogt, 2005; Zikmund & Babin, 2010:516). Besides the TIPI and brand preference scale items present in the questionnaire, respondents were asked to provide demographic information, including gender, age, monthly income, education and occupation. Frequency tables, maximum and minimum scores, standard deviations

as well as weighted mean scores were used. The nominal and ordinal data was also converted to charts in order to present the data in a more plausible manner.

4.8.4.3 Inferential analysis

According to Malhotra (2004:416), inferential analysis draws inferences among two or more phenomena, focusing on the degree of a relationship or difference as well as testing hypotheses by means of various analytical test statistics. Selecting the most appropriate test depends on the type of question being addressed, the number of variables involved and the level of scale measurement involved in each variable (Cramer & Howitt, 2004; Vogt, 2005; Zikmund & Babin, 2010:547).

This study aimed to assess the relationship between individuals' personality and specific brand personalities. The appropriate test statistic to test the stated hypotheses was identified as a Pearson's correlation coefficient. This test statistic is typically performed when assessing a relationship between two variables (Zikmund et al., 2010).

4.8.4.4 Reliability, validity and sensitivity

According to Zikmund and Babin (2010:334), there are three criteria for good measurement, namely reliability, validity and sensitivity. In order for any social science research to be both precise and of practical use, the abovementioned criteria needs to be considered.

Reliability is an indicator of a measure's dependability, repeatability and consistency. In assessing reliability, one assesses that, if a construct (consisting of multiple items) is measured at in different attempts, the result will remain unchanged (Drucker-Godard, Ehlinger & Grenier, 2001). There are four existing measures for testing the reliability of a measurement instrument: the reset method, the alternative form method, the split-halves method and the internal consistency method (Zikmund et al., 2010).

Validity broadly describes the accuracy of a measure or the extent to which the measurement items truthfully represent the concept (Cramer & Howitt, 2004; Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002:37; Zikmund et al., 2010:335). Face validity, content validity, criterion validity and construct validity are four basic approaches to establishing validity as a measure. Face validity refers to the degree to which a scale's content logically appears to reflect what was intended to be measured, whereas content validity refers to the degree that a measure covers a broad range of the field of interest. Criterion validity measures the degree to which a predictor is satisfactory in capturing the relevant aspects of the criterion (Drucker-Godard et al., 2001). Lastly, construct validity measures the extent to which a particular measure relates to other measures, consistent with derived hypotheses regarding the concepts being measured. Construct validity consists of several components, including the three validity approaches mentioned above (Drucker-Godard et al., 2001; Zikmund et al, 2010).

For this study, the reliability and validity of the scale measuring individuals' personality was established by the creators of the scale. Gosling et al. (2003) state that the goal of the TIPI scale was to create a short instrument measuring individual differences that optimised validity (including content validity), and not to create an instrument with high alphas and good confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) fits. They reason that it is nearly impossible to derive high alphas and good fit indices from instruments like the TIPI, which are designed to measure very broad domains, with only two items per dimension and items at both positive and negative poles. According to research by Jonason, Teicher and Schmitt (2011), the TIPI measure is reasonably valid. On the basis of Gosling et al. (2003) and Jonason et al. (2011), the TIPI scale was considered relatively reliable and valid for the purpose of this study.

The second construct measuring brand personality also utilised existing scale items. As mentioned in Section 4.6.3.1, Mulyanegara et al.'s. (2009) refined brand personality scale

was used to assign a personality to the four selected car brands used in this study. To reiterate, their brand personality scale consists of four dimensions that are characterised by thirteen traits (see Chapter 2). In their study, Mulyanegara et al. (2009) documented the validity of the brand personality scale, which was concluded to be sufficient for the purpose of this study. The internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha method) of the four dimensions varies between 0.51 and 0.70, where below 0.60 is considered poor reliability. As stated by Gosling et al. (2003), when measuring very broad domains with only a few items (i.e. two or three) per dimension, reliability is sure to be poor. For the purpose of this study, the reliability and validity of the brand personality scale was deemed sufficient.

Lastly, sensitivity refers to a measurement instrument's "ability to accurately measure variability in stimuli and responses" (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:337). In other words, it is the extent to which the scale used allows for the recording of subtle changes in attitudes. Zikmund and Babin (2010:337) suggest that sensitivity is generally increased by adding more response points – hence the use of a seven-point scale. All Likert-scale items used in this study were on seven-point scale – thus being able to more accurately measure variability.

4.9 REPORTING OF RESULTS AND FINDINGS

The last stage of the marketing research process is when the researcher communicates the findings discovered in the previous stage of the process (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:640). The previous stages of the marketing research process (especially data analysis) must be presented in an understandable, formal research report. The results and findings are discussed in the following chapter – Chapter 5.

4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This research study was classified as holding minimal risk for the respondents. In line with the framework provided by Stellenbosch University, "the probability or magnitude of harm

or discomfort anticipated in the research is not greater in itself than that ordinarily encountered in daily life". During the qualitative research phase, verbal informed consent was received from the participants – they were informed about the nature of the research and proceedings and had a choice to continue or conclude their participation at any given point. Before any research proceedings, the participants' anonymity was guaranteed.

The questionnaire used in the quantitative research phase, however, required respondents to disclose information about aspects of the self, therefore anonymity was regarded as a priority. The respondents were informed about the nature of the questionnaire, they were guaranteed anonymity and emphasis was placed on voluntary participation. By clicking the questionnaire link and deciding to participate, the respondents provided their informed consent. Data collected in both qualitative and quantitative phases was stored in a safe place where only the researcher could access it.

4.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter dealt with the research design and methodology followed in this study. It comprised an in-depth theoretical discussion of the stages comprising the marketing research process. The marketing research process started with the identification and formulation of the problem. Then the objectives of the study were discussed, together with the hypotheses developed from these objectives. Secondary research sources, the primary data collection method, the sampling plan, the data gathering method as well as the data processing and analysis of the study were discussed. This chapter ended with a quick overview of the reporting and results stage of the research process. The data analysis, results and findings will be discussed in the following chapter – Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5 | RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary objective of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. The secondary research objectives specifically assessed whether there is a relationship between each of the Big Five personality dimensions and specific brand personalities. It is suggested that individuals with a specific personality type will be more likely to show preference for and purchase a brand with a corresponding personality. Since it was established that secondary research (Chapters 2 and 3) alone would not suffice to reach the objectives of this study, primary research in the form of qualitative and quantitative techniques were utilised. Chapter 4 outlined the research method followed to collect the primary data. In this chapter, data analysis is addressed and the stated hypotheses derived from the research objectives are tested.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics generally refer to procedures for summarising, organising, graphing and describing quantitative information (Cramer & Howitt, 2004; Vogt, 2005), revealing trends and frequencies in the form of means, standard deviations, minimums and maximums within the realised sample (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). For the purposes of this study, descriptive statistics were used to gain insight into the demographic information of the realised sample, and to explore the central tendency, shape and spread of the interval-scaled data. A discussion of psychographic information also provides insights into the respondents' attitudes towards specific brands and car models (purchase intent), as well as the importance of a product's status. The personality measurement outcomes of both individuals (measured by the TIPI scale) and the brands (measured by a ranking scale using

Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) brand personality dimensions) are also analysed in this section, building upon the examination of the realised sample.

5.2.1 Profile of the realised sample

The realised sample is discussed in the light of key demographic factors that could possibly influence high-income consumers' (LSM 8 to 10) perceptions of brands and their perceived personalities. Demographic information regarding age, gender, race, education, employment status and income is discussed. All the above-mentioned information built a profile of the respondents, providing insight into the behaviour and perceptions of the targeted market segment. A realised sample size of 204 respondents completed the web-based survey, in line with the intended sample size of 200 as discussed in Chapter 4. In order to ensure that respondents were chosen aptly, the realised sample was compared to the sampling selection criteria outlined in Chapter 4 (see Section 4.8.2).

The target population for this study was identified as male and female individuals who are of all races, between the ages of 23 and 65, fall into the LSM categories 8 to 10, as outlined by the "All Media and Product Survey" (AMPS), have an understanding of the English language and live in South Africa. No specific income or education level was specified for this study, but these are reported on as they provide insightful information regarding the target population's behaviour and perceptions, as mentioned above.

Individuals segmented into LSM categories 8 to 10 are suggested to represent the higher income brackets of the South African population (du Plessis, Girdhari, Higgs & Swanepoel, 2014). It has been concluded that these individuals are more likely, firstly, to have an understanding of the car market, secondly, to own a car themselves and, lastly, to be able to form specific brand perceptions about cars (SAARF, 2013). A short-form version of the LSM classification (du Plessis et al., 2014) was used to reduce time and questionnaire-spacing difficulties. The questionnaire was specifically designed to eliminate respondents falling outside the designated LSM categories – serving as a screening question. As a result,

all 204 individuals of the realised sample fall into the LSM categories 8 to 10. The demographic data on the realised sample is discussed in the following sections.

5.2.1.1 Age

As depicted in Table 5.1, the average age of the respondents was 31 years, while the majority of the realised sample was 24 years old. The minimum age documented was 19, whereas the maximum age was 65. As discussed in Chapter 4 (see Section 4.8.2), the target population was described as individuals between the ages of 23 and 65, mostly consistent with the realised sample.

Table 5.1: Age distribution – descriptors (n = 204)

Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Mode
19	65	31	24

As illustrated in Figure 5.1, respondents aged between 23 and 26 accounted for 41.2% of the realised sample, and respondents aged between 27 and 30 accounted for 22.5%, together accounting for more than half (63.7%) of the total realised sample. The ages of the respondents were deemed suitable for this study, especially with the largest portion of the realised sample being potential first-time car buyers.
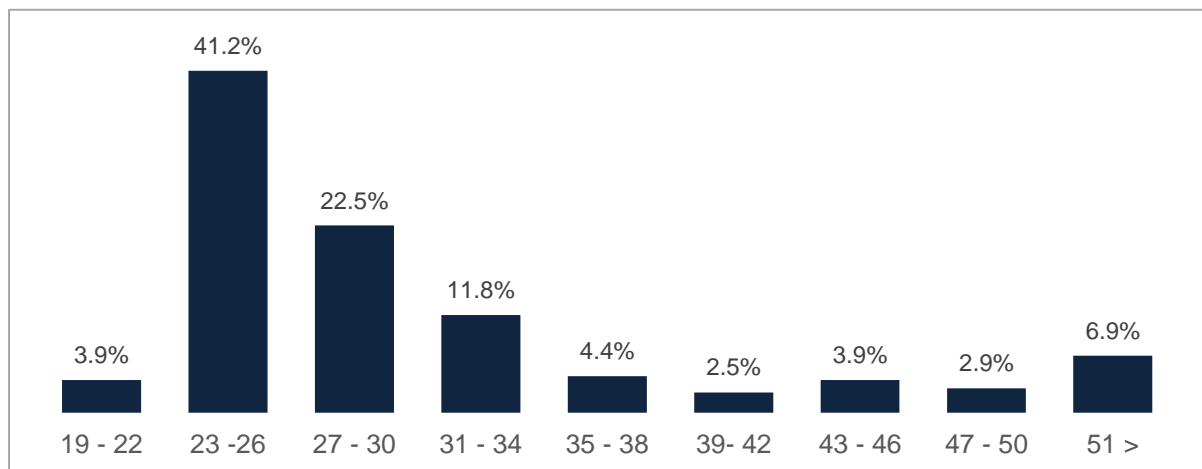
Figure 5.1: Age distribution (n = 204)

5.2.1.2 Gender

No specific gender specifications or quotas were established for the target population, which could include both male and female respondents. The realised sample included both males and females, with the gender distribution being fairly equal. This allowed for possible gender differences to be observed with regard to brand personality perceptions and consumer personalities. Females accounted for the slightly larger portion of the realised sample (53%), while the male respondents accounted for 47% (see Figure 5.2). This study's gender distribution is also consistent with the Census data weighting, which states that, in general, females account for a larger portion of the entire population (Statistics South Africa, 2011).
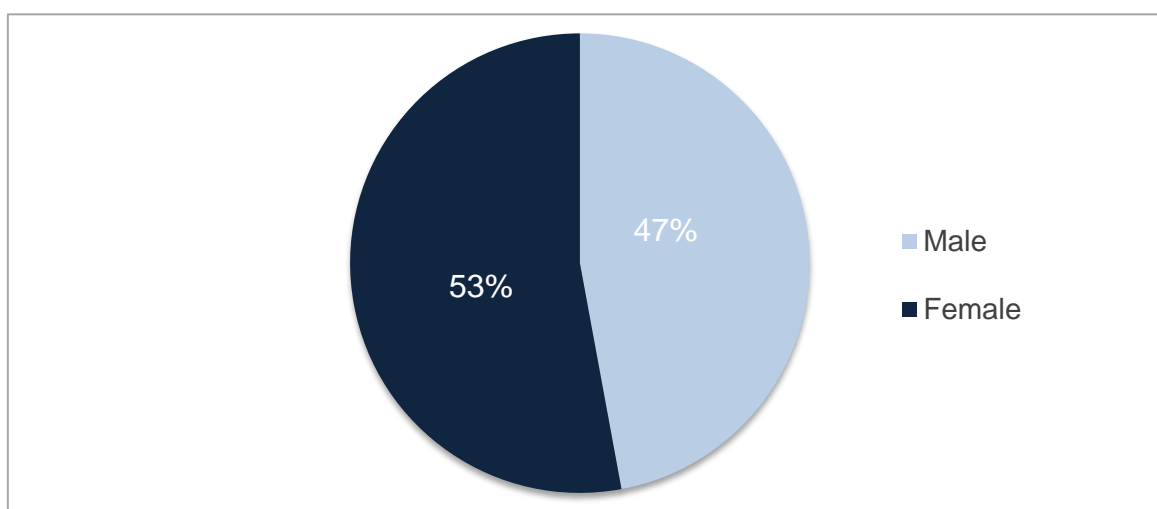
Figure 5.2: Gender distribution (n = 204)

5.2.1.3 Education level

No specific educational requirements were set, but this aspect was included in the questionnaire as it provides insightful information about respondents. Figure 5.3 shows that an insignificant portion (0.5%) of the realised sample was literate but had received no formal education, consistent with the realised sample's LSM group classification. According to SAARF (2013), individuals classified in LSM groups 8 to 10 are predominantly literate and have received some kind of formal education – as evidently portrayed by this study's realised sample. The majority of the realised sample had either completed college or university

(41.2%) or completed a postgraduate degree (40.7%), indicating that more than half of the realised sample had received some form of higher education.
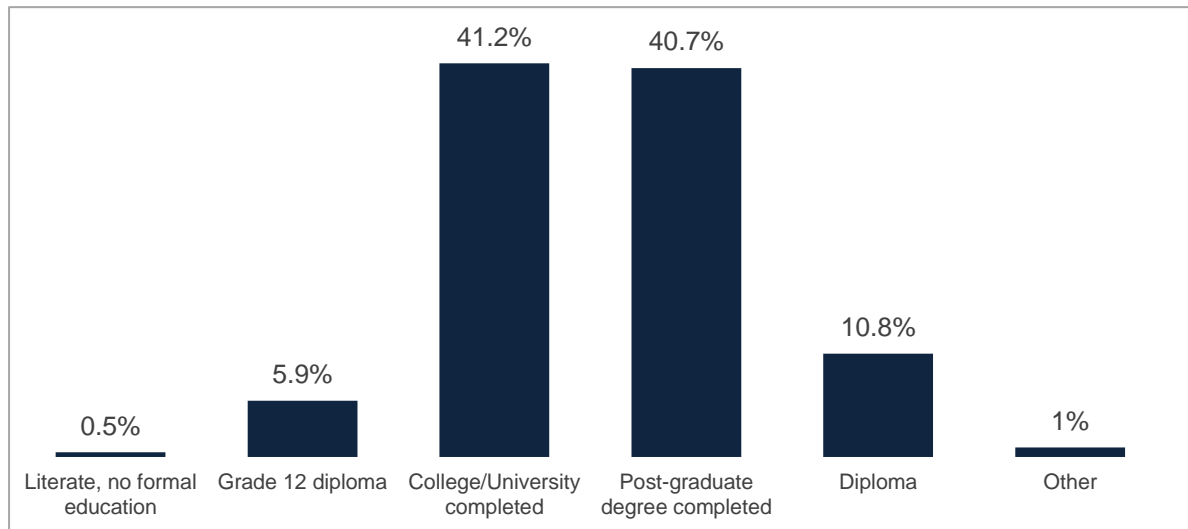
Note: due to rounding the total does not add up to a 100%

Figure 5.3: Distribution of education (n = 204)

5.2.1.4 Employment status

The majority of the realised sample (76.5%) had a full time job, consistent with SAARF's (2013) findings and supported by this study's level of education results (see Section 5.2.1.3). According to SAARF (2013), individuals with a tertiary education are more likely to be employed than those with lower levels of education. Respondents with a part-time job accounted for 9.8% of the realised sample, and those who said they did not have a job at the moment accounted for 10.8%, as indicated in Figure 5.4. This statistic can be attributed to the age distribution, as some of the respondents aged between 19 and 24 are possibly students. This could mean that some of them either did not have a job at the time, or were working as part-time employees whilst completing their studies.
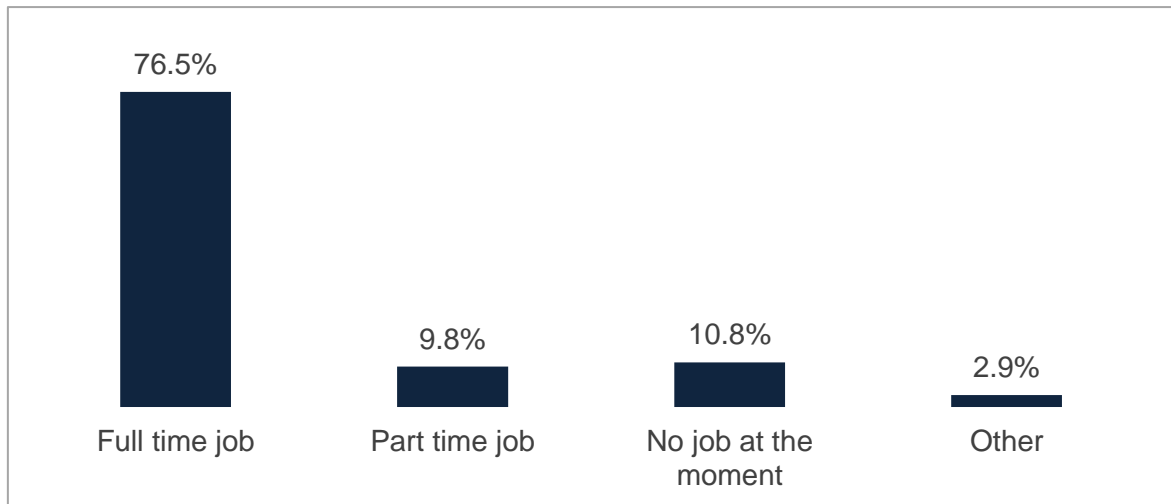
Figure 5.4: Employment status (n = 204)

5.2.1.5 Personal disposable income

According to Table 5.5, the largest portion of the realised sample falls within the R5 000 to R9 999 (28.4%) and R25 000 or more (28.4%) income brackets. The second largest portion (18.6%) of the realised sample indicated having a disposable income of between R10 000 and R14 999, while the remainder of the respondents fell into income brackets R15 000 to R19 999 (14.3%) and R20 000 to R24 999 (10.3%). This result is supported by the realised samples' age distribution (Section 5.2.1.1) and employment status (Section 5.2.1.4), in other words possibly individuals who have recently entered the job market and receive a constant monthly salary. The following section addresses the psychographic data collected.
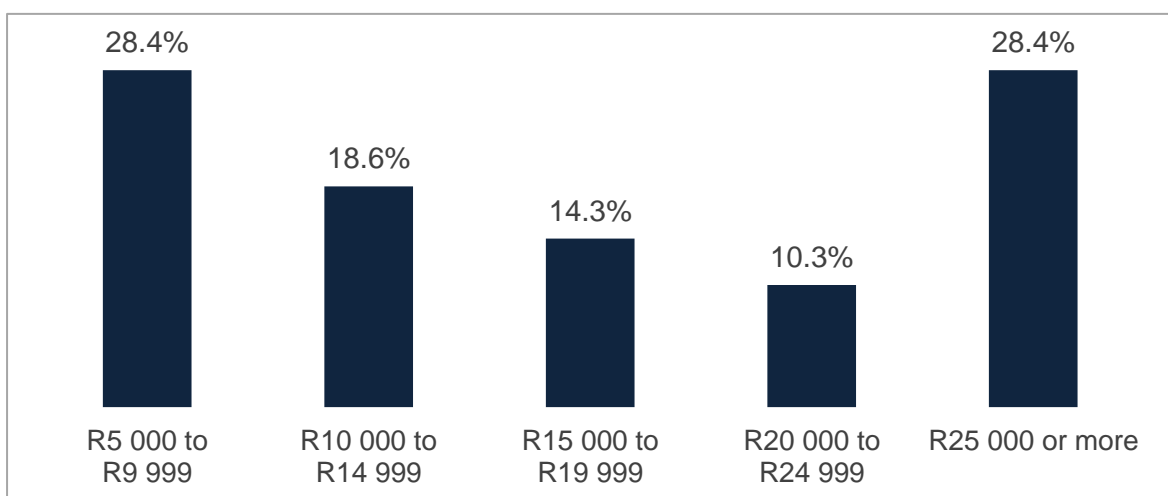
Figure 5.5: Income distribution (n = 204)

5.2.2 Purchase intent

Purchase intent in relation to each car brand and model was measured using a seven-point Likert scale. The respondents had to indicate to what extent they strongly disagreed (1) or strongly agreed (7) with each question statement provided (see Appendix C). The statements used to measure purchase intent were: "I would purchase this car model" and "I would purchase this brand".

The responses were collapsed into a dichotomous scale: "yes", I will buy (scale responses 5 to 7) and "no", I will not buy (scale responses 1 to 4), portraying the respondents' purchase intent toward each car model and brand. In the following sections, the purchase intent results of each brand and model are discussed.

5.2.2.1 Mini Cooper – Countryman

The results depicted in Figure 5.6 suggest that the majority of the realised sample, 71.5% and 64.7%, indicated that they would not buy this specific car model (Countryman) or car brand (Mini Cooper) respectively.
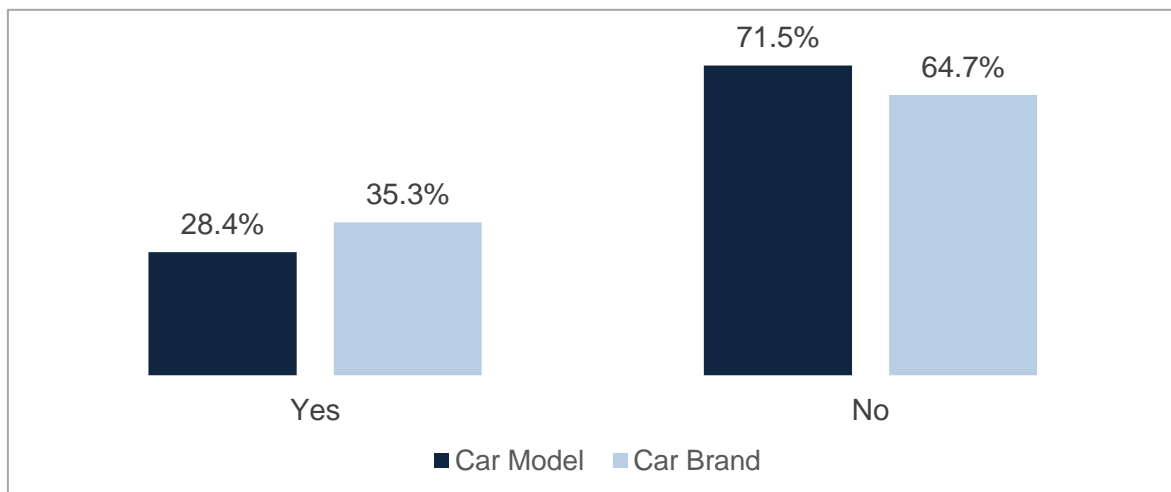
Note: due to rounding all totals does not add up to a 100%

Figure 5.6: Purchase intent – Mini Cooper (n = 204)

It would appear that consumers regard the Mini Cooper Countryman as a spacious car in which four adults could travel comfortably (The truth about cars, 2011). The Mini Cooper is

a relatively expensive and new car on the market. Both these factors are possible explanations for the realised sample's low purchase intent toward this car and brand. As discussed in Section 5.2.1.1, the majority of the realised sample's ages varied between 23 and 30 years, suggesting individuals who are still relatively young with less disposable income, as illustrated by the personal disposable income levels of the realised sample (see Section 5.2.1.5).

5.2.2.2 Volkswagen – Tiguan

Purchase intent toward the Volkswagen Tiguan is illustrated in Figure 5.7. The majority (82.3%) of the respondents indicated that that they would buy a Volkswagen. When asked whether they would buy this specific model (Tiguan), three quarters of the realised sample indicated that they would. From this result one can conclude that Volkswagen is a popular brand that the respondents were likely to prefer buying. This conclusion is supported by NAAMSA (NAAMSA, 2016). The data indicate that the Volkswagen brand is the third most owned, used and maintained brand in South Africa. In August 2014, the Volkswagen Tiguan was also ranked 38th of the top 50 best-selling cars according to Lightstone Auto (Woosey, 2014).
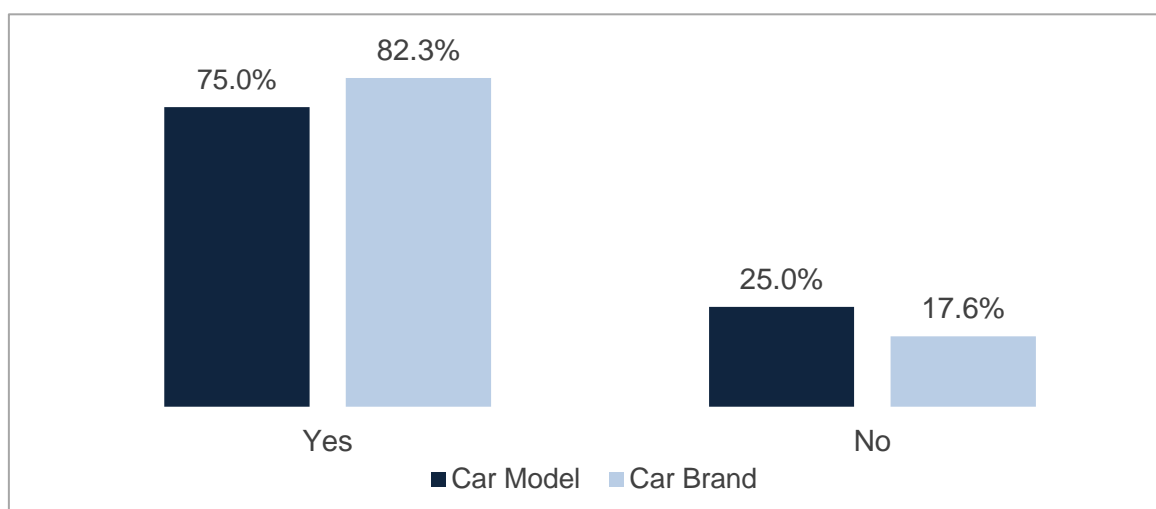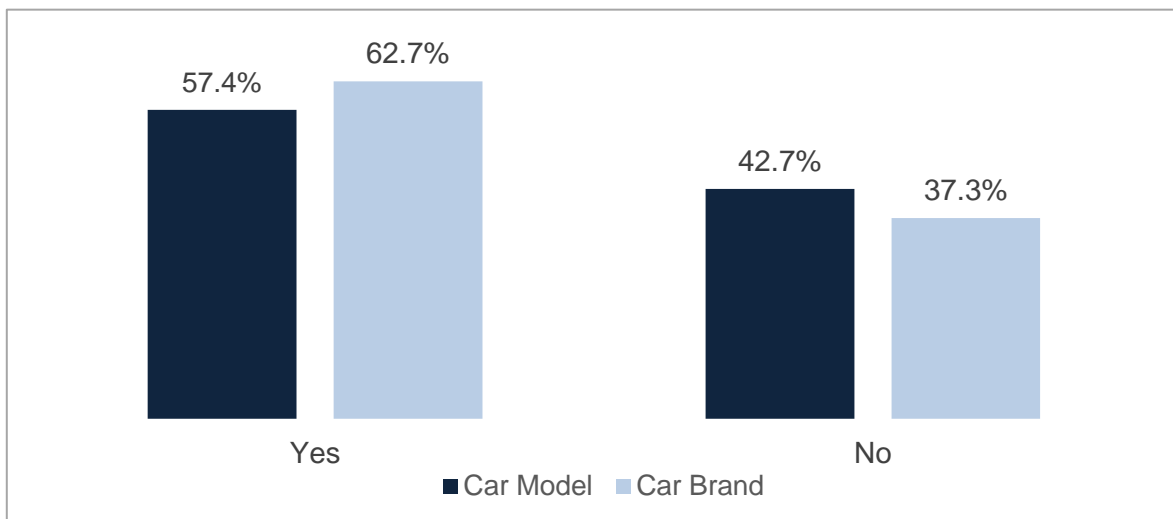

Note: due to rounding all totals does not add up to a 100%

Figure 5.7: Purchase intent – Volkswagen (n = 204)

5.2.2.3 Land Rover – Evoque

The third car for which purchase intent was measured was the Land Rover Evoque. Figure 5.8 depicts that more than 50% of the realised sample indicated that they would buy a Land Rover (62.7%). The respondents indicating that they would purchase this specific model (Evoque) accounted for 57.4% of the total realised sample. This result suggests that consumers will possibly purchase or consider purchasing the brand and the model – Land Rover Evoque, suggesting it to be a general favourite among consumers.

Note: due to rounding all totals does not add up to a 100%

Figure 5.8: Purchase intent – Land Rover (n = 204)

Although the majority of consumers indicated that they would purchase an Evoque, the distribution of consumers' indicating they would buy the car model versus those that would not buy it was close to evenly spread (see Figure 5.8). The Land Rover Evoque is a modern and sophisticated SUV that falls within a higher price range (Smith, 2014). The purchase intent toward the Land Rover Evoque could possibly be explained by the realised sample's age (majority between 23 and 30, which can be classified as young and modern) and disposable income brackets (higher end of the income bracket).

5.2.2.4 Toyota – Rav4

The fourth car used in this study was the Toyota Rav4. As illustrated in Figure 5.9, the majority of respondents indicated that they would buy the brand (64.3% of the realised

sample). The remaining 35.8% indicated that they would not buy a Toyota. The positive purchase intent toward the brand emphasises Toyota's popularity in the car market (Consumer report.org, 2014; NAAMSA, 2016; SAARF, 2012). Consumers tend to show preference for Toyota, following the brand's perceived image of a trusted brand.
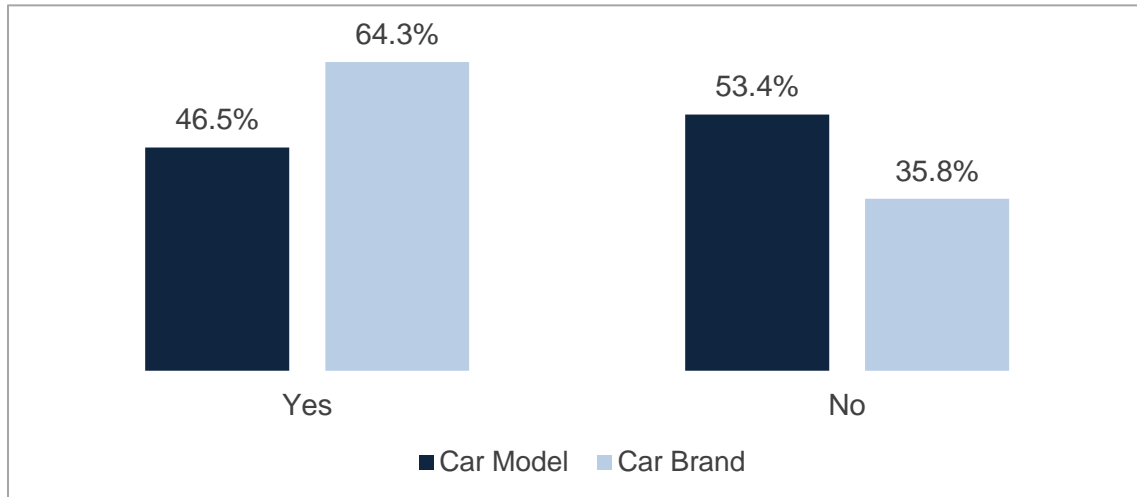
Note: due to rounding all totals does not add up to a 100%

Figure 5.9: Purchase intent – Toyota (n = 204)

Considering the consumers' purchase intent towards the model, the majority of respondents (53.4%) indicated that they would not purchase a Rav4. As illustrated in Figure 5.9, purchase intent towards the Rav4 was also close to evenly spread, with 46.5% of the respondents indicating that they would purchase this model. It was concluded that, although the likability of Toyota is relatively high, consumers' interests and purchase intent across specific models may differ.

Table 5.2 is a summary of consumers' purchase intent towards all four brands and car models. Purchase intent towards all brands was positive (above 50%), as depicted above, except for Mini Cooper. It was also concluded that, although the respondents' purchase intent towards the given brands might be high, their intent towards the given car model could differ, as demonstrated by the results for a Toyota Rav4. In order to acquire deeper insights into the respondents' profiles, four items measuring the relative importance of the

status of a product were included (See Appendix C). The results are discussed in the following section (see Section 5.2.3).

Table 5.2: Purchase intent summary (n = 204)

CAR BRAND & MODEL	PURCHASE INTENT	
	Brand	**Model**
Mini Cooper - Countryman	✘	✘
Volkswagen – Tiguan	✓	✓
Land Rover – Evoque	✓	✓
Toyota – Rav4	✓	✘

5.2.3 Importance of product and brand status

As mentioned above, items measuring the importance of product and brand status were included to provide additional insight into the respondents' psychographic background. This was done specifically to understand whether consumers would purchase a specific product because of the status or brand reputation attached to it, or rather for reasons related to basic product functionality and external buying factors, such as price and quality.

Included in this construct was an item specifically measuring the importance of a brand when buying a new car. This construct was measured on a seven-point Likert scale (see Chapter 4 for detailed discussion). Responses were collapsed into a dichotomous scale: "yes, the brand is a big consideration" (scale responses 5 to 7) and "no, the brand is not a big consideration" (scale responses 1 to 4), portraying the respondents' consideration of a brand before buying a car.

This result is illustrated in Figure 5.10, showing that the majority of consumers indicated that they deemed the brand of a car to be a big consideration when buying a new car. The results from the personality construct are discussed in the following section.
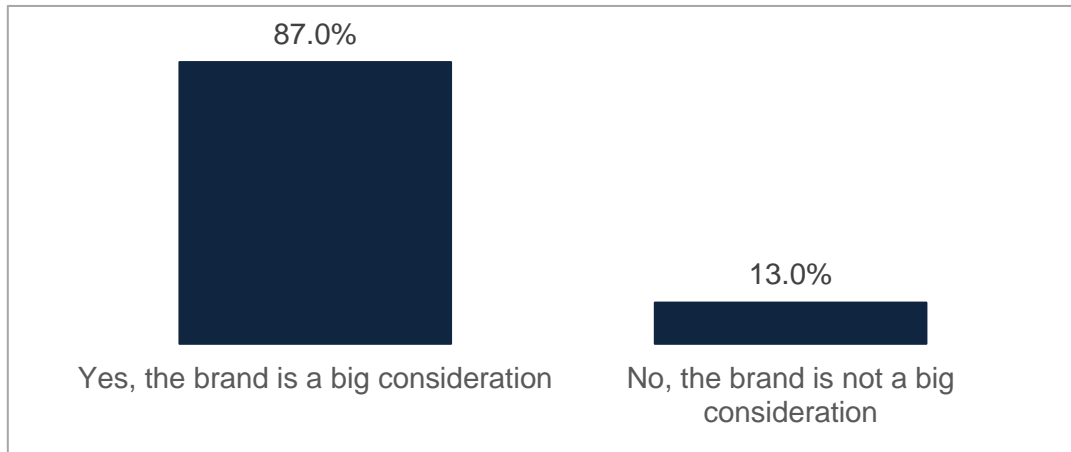
Figure 5.10: Brand status importance (n = 203)

5.2.4 Personality construct (TIPI -scale)

As discussed in Chapter 3 of this research study, it was suggested that the Big Five personality dimensions to a large extent cover personality in its entirety (Semeijn et al., 2005), and thus were used to measure consumer personalities. As time was limited, and personality is a significant variable in this study, the researcher decided to use a brief 10-item instrument (TIPI scale) to measure these five dimensions. Although somewhat inferior to multi-item instruments, the scale was developed and tested meeting the reliability and validity criteria (see Chapter 4, Section 4.8.4.4) (Gosling et al., 2003).

As depicted in Figure 5.11, the mean scores for the five dimensions vary between 4.74 and 5.79, which is consistent with Gosling et al.'s (2003) self-reported normative data for the Ten-Item Personality Inventory (TIPI) across all ethnicities. The maximum difference is no more than 0.49 between Gosling et al.'s (2009) normative data and the current study's data. The highest response rate frequency for each of the five dimensions is also indicated by the mode, presented in Table 5.3.
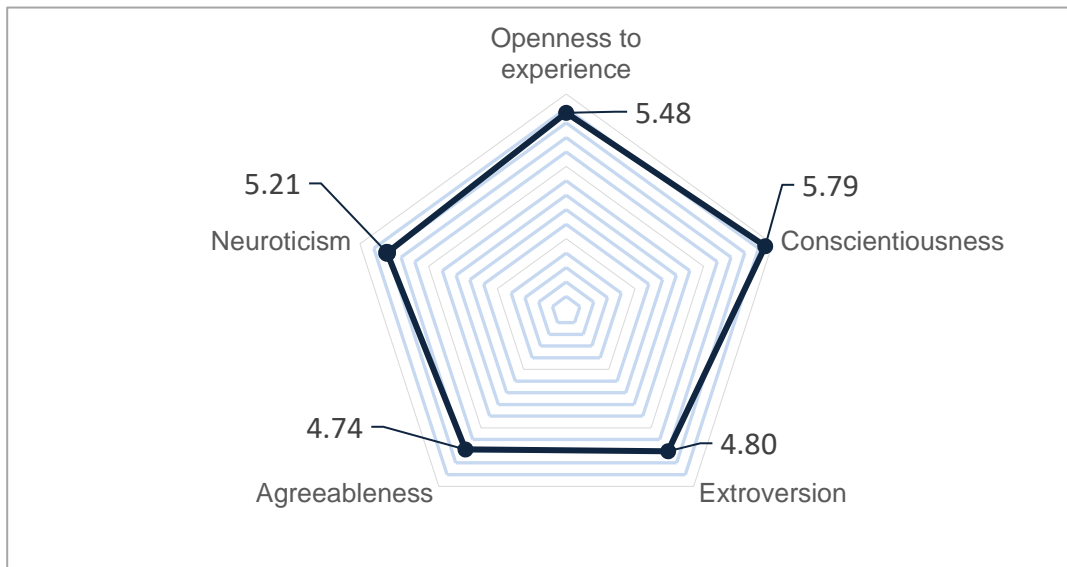
Figure 5.11: Five Factor Model of personality ($\bar{x}$)

This result suggests that, for personality dimensions Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness and Neuroticism, the majority of respondents indicated that they agreed (selecting a six on the seven-point Likert scale) with the corresponding statements provided. This score is an indication of dominance of those personality dimensions. The mode for personality dimensions Extroversion and Agreeableness was four (neutral option on seven-point Likert scale) and five (somewhat agree option on seven-point Likert scale) respectively. According to the standard deviation statistic, all respondents consistently interpreted the items measuring the five personality dimensions. The following section addresses the brand personality scale results.

Table 5.3: Big Five personality dimensions - descriptors (n = 204)

| PERSONALITY TRAITS	CENTRAL TENDENCY		
Dimensions	$\bar{x}$	Mode	SD
Openness to experience	5.48	6	0.970
Conscientiousness	5.79	6	0.974
Extroversion	4.80	4	1.358
Agreeableness	4.74	5	1.128
Neuroticism	5.21	6	1.180

5.2.5 Brand personality scales

In this section of the chapter, the outcome of brand personality is discussed as measured by a ranking scale. As discussed in Chapter 4 (see Section 4.8.1.1), Mulyanegara et al. (2009) developed a four-dimension brand personality scale that is reflective of the Big Five personality scale used in this study to measure personality (see Chapter 3, Section 3.4.2). As discussed in Chapter 4, a ranking scale was used to assign a brand personality to each car (see Section 4.8.1). Respondents were asked to rank four of thirteen brand traits/characteristics (from best to fourth best description) according to which they believed best described the car. Each of the traits fall into one of the four brand personality dimensions as identified by Mulyanegara et al. (2009). In order to determine each car brand and model's dominant personality, a weighted share for each dimension was calculated according to how it was ranked by the respondents. The following sections address the outcome of each car's personality.

5.2.5.1 Mini Cooper Countryman

According to Figure 5.12, the Mini Cooper Countryman ranked relatively high on two brand personality dimensions, namely exciting and sociable, with exciting being the dominant trait. A share of 58.38% and 38.90% respectively was assigned to these two personality traits. Trusted and sincere were the two traits, which ranked the lowest with a share of 5.64% and 1.08% respectively.

It was concluded that the Mini Cooper Countryman is associated with characteristics such as active, adventurous and cool. These characteristics translate into the car being perceived as an exciting brand by the majority of the realised sample.
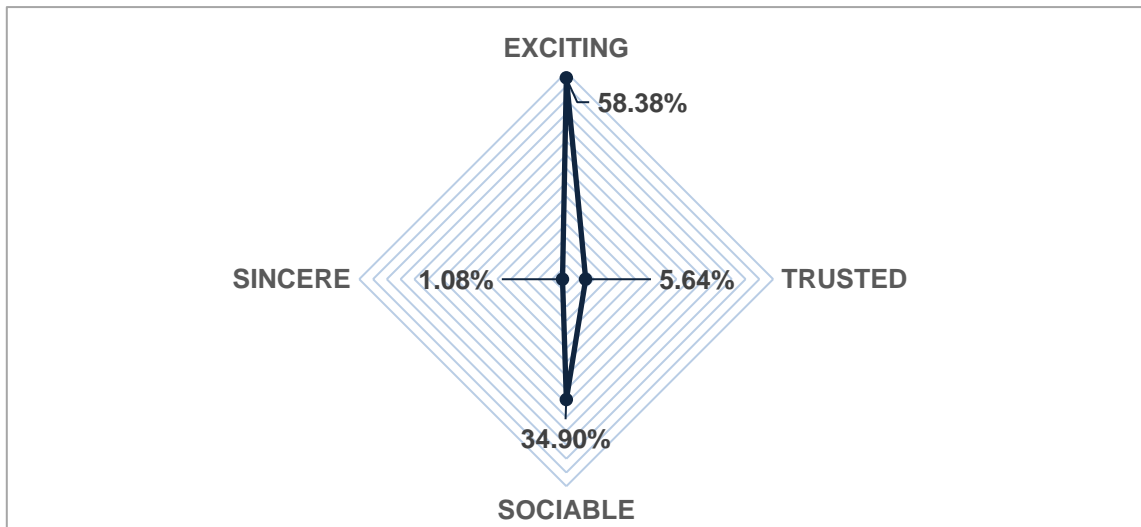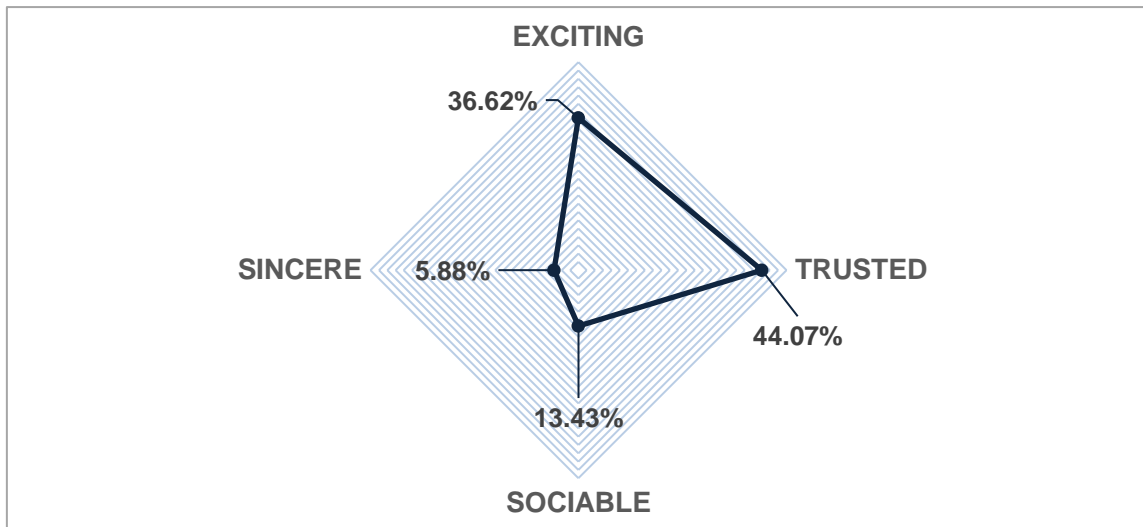
Note: percentages were weighted averages according to rank

Figure 5.12: Brand personality score (x̄) – Mini Cooper (n = 204)

5.2.5.2 Volkswagen Tiguan

As discussed in Chapter 4, the Tiguan was selected as the Volkswagen SUV model for the purpose of this research study. Figure 5.13 below shows the weighted share of associations for each of the four brand personality dimensions. The highest share (44.07%) was assigned to the trusted personality dimension, suggesting that the majority of the realised sample perceived the Volkswagen Tiguan as being a trustful, reliable, traditional and persevering car. The second highest share (36.62%) was assigned to exciting, which suggests that a large number of respondents also perceived the Volkswagen Tiguan as being an active, adventurous and cool car.

Note: percentages are weighted averages according to rank

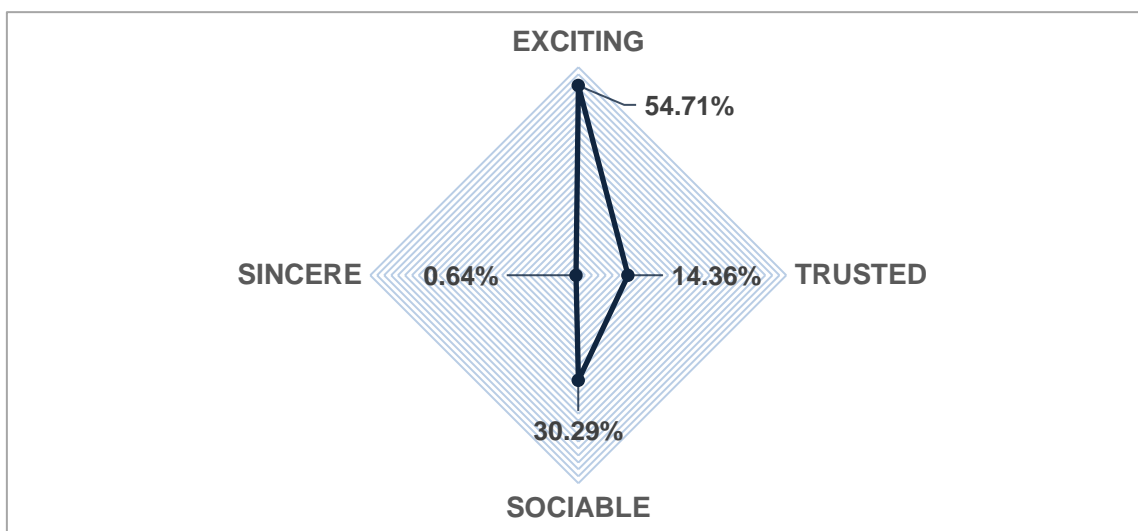**Figure 5.13: Brand personality score ($\bar{x}$) – Volkswagen (n = 204)**

The lowest shares of association were assigned to the brand personality dimensions sociable (13.43%) and sincere (5.88%). For the purpose of this research study, it was concluded that a Volkswagen Tiguan is perceived as a trusted car.

5.2.5.3 Land Rover Evoque

As mentioned, the Land Rover model selected for the purpose of this study was the Evoque. As in the sections above, the respondents were asked to rank four personality traits that best describe the Land Rover Evoque. A weighted share of associations was attributed to traits according to their rank. Considering Figure 5.14, it was concluded that Land Rover is perceived as an exciting car, portraying active, adventurous and cool characteristics. A 54.7% share was assigned to this brand personality dimension.

A number of respondents also perceived a Land Rover Evoque to be a sociable car, representing 30.29% of the total share. According to the realised sample, characteristics comprising trustworthy (14.36%) and sincerity (0.64%) were least descriptive of the Land

Rover Evoque. The low share assigned to the sincere dimension can possibly be explained by the appearance and image of this car not portraying simple and caring characteristics.
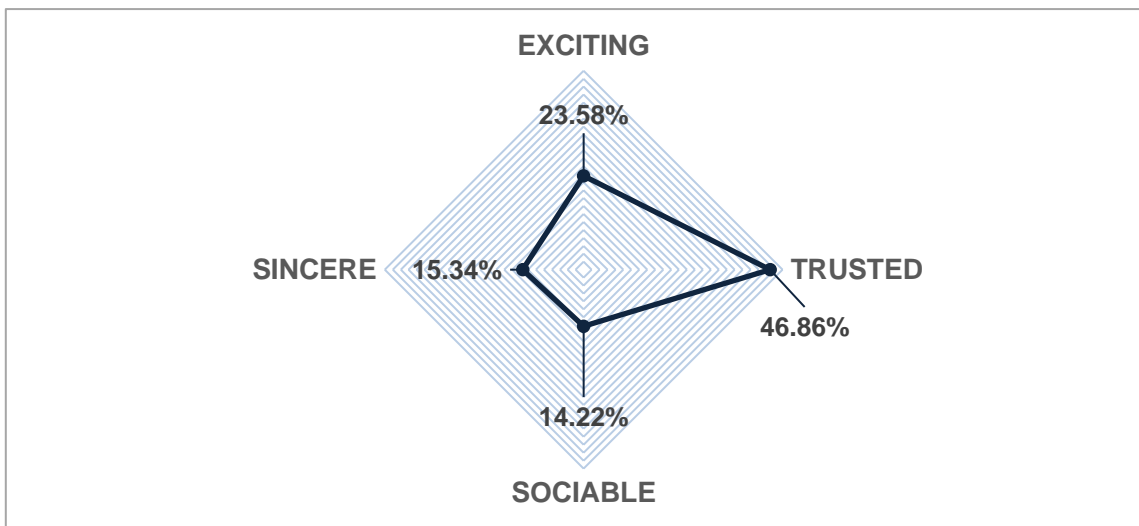

Note: percentages are weighted averages according to rank

Figure 5.14: Brand personality score ($\bar{x}$) – Land Rover (n = 204)

5.2.5.4 Toyota Rav4

As selected by chance, the Rav4 was the SUV model used for the purpose of this study. According to the results depicted in Figure 5.15, the largest share of association (46.86%) was assigned to the trusted dimension of brand personality. This statistic suggests that a large portion of the realised sample perceived the Toyota Rav4 as being a trustful, reliable, traditional and persevering car. In the case of this result, it is useful to know that the trait persevering was the trait contributing the least to the overall trusted personality dimension. Reliable, trustful and traditional were the three traits with the highest shares assigned.

Exciting (23.58%), sincere (15.34%) and sociable (14.22%) were the three brand personality dimensions with the lowest assigned shares. This is indicative that traits such as adventurous, creative and simple were the least descriptive of the car. For the purpose of this research study, it was concluded that a Toyota Rav4 is perceived as a trusted car.

Note: percentages are weighted averages according to rank

Figure 5.15: Brand personality score ($\bar{x}$) – Toyota (n = 204)

As in the case with individuals' personality measurement, it is possible that not only one specific dimension of brand personality applies to a given car. The cars portrayed might reflect multiple personality dimensions, but are typically more dominant towards one of the four. Table 5.4 summarises the four car brands and models selected for the purpose of this research study, as well as the two most dominant (highest ranked dimension and 2nd highest ranked dimension) personalities as determined by the weighted mean scores.

To summarise, only two of the four brand personality dimensions were identified as dominant brand personalities among the four selected cars. As the same thirteen traits, but in different orders (to avoid order bias), were displayed for all four cars, this was a possible outcome.

Table 5.4: Dominant brand personalities (n = 204)

Car brand and model	Highest ranked dimension	2nd highest ranked dimension
Mini Cooper: Countryman	Exciting	Sociable
Volkswagen: Tiguan	Trusted	Exciting
Land Rover: Evoque	Exciting	Sociable
Toyota: Rav4	Trusted	Exciting

5.3 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INDIVIDUALS' PERSONALITIES AND SPECIFIC BRAND PERSONALITIES

As mentioned and discussed in previous chapters of this study, it is expected that individuals who are dominant in particular dimensions of the FFM of personality may favour a brand with a personality that reflects that particular dimension or is close to it (see Chapter 3, Table 3.5) (Mulyanegara et al., 2009). To reiterate, it was suggested that individuals who are more dominant in the "openness to experience" or "extroversion" personality dimensions would be more likely to demonstrate preference towards brands that are perceived as sociable and/or exciting. In contrast, individuals more dominant in the "conscientiousness" or "neuroticism" personality dimensions will be more likely to show preference for brands perceived as trusted. Lastly, brands perceived as being sincere are more likely to be preferred by individuals who are dominant in the "agreeableness" dimension.

Therefore, the primary objective of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. The following secondary research objectives were formulated:

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on openness to experience and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on conscientiousness and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on extroversion and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on agreeableness and specific brand personalities

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on neuroticism and specific brand personalities

For the purpose of this study, a Pearson's correlation coefficient test statistic was performed to assess the relationship between individuals' personality and specific brand personalities. The results of this test statistic is depicted in Table 5.5 below and discussed in the following sections.

Table 5.5: Pearson's correlation coefficient test statistic (n = 204)

Brand & perceived personality (intent to purchase)	FFM Personality Dimension	p-value (α = 0.05)	Pearson (r)
Mini Cooper *(Exciting and Sociable)*	**Openness to experience**	**0.03***	**0.15**
	Conscientiousness	0.79	-0.02
	Extroversion	0.22	0.09
	Agreeableness	0.20	0.09
	Neuroticism	0.58	-0.04
Volkswagen *(Trusted and Exciting)*	Openness to experience	0.91	0.01
	Conscientiousness	**0.03***	**0.15**
	Extroversion	0.38	0.06
	Agreeableness	0.25	0.08
	Neuroticism	0.31	0.07
Land Rover *(Exciting and Sociable)*	Openness to experience	0.81	0.02
	Conscientiousness	0.57	0.04
	Extroversion	0.34	0.07
	Agreeableness	**0.01****	**0.18**
	Neuroticism	0.21	0.09
Toyota *(Trusted and Exciting)*	Openness to experience	0.22	-0.09
	Conscientiousness	**0.05***	**0.14**
	Extroversion	0.33	0.07
	Agreeableness	0.38	-0.06
	Neuroticism	0.66	-0.03

Note: * Significant at the 0.05 level | ** Significant at the 0.01 level

5.3.1 Openness to experience and brand personality

H1$_{2a}$:	*There is a significant relationship between individuals scoring high on openness to experience and an (i) **exciting** and (ii) **sociable** brand (i.e. Mini Cooper or Land Rover)*

From the results in Table 5.5, the findings from the Pearson's correlation coefficient provide enough support that there is a significant positive statistical relationship between individuals scoring high on the openness to experience personality dimension and the Mini Cooper brand – perceived as an exciting and sociable brand ($r = 0.15$; $p < 0.05$). According to Zikmund and Babin (2010), although there is statistical evidence of a relationship, the relationship is weak ($0.09 > r < 0.29$).

This outcome is also in line with Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) findings, suggesting that there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on the openness to experience personality dimension and brands perceived as exciting and sociable (see Table 3.5). In other words, individuals who are likely to be more open-minded, appreciative of experiences and enjoy exploration of the unfamiliar (openness to experience) are more likely to show preference for (and possibly purchase) a brand perceived as active, adventurous and cool (exciting) and friendly, creative and outgoing (sociable). Therefore, one could conclude that car brands that position themselves as having an exciting and/or sociable brand personality, would naturally draw the attention of individuals scoring higher on the openness to experience personality dimension.

5.3.2 Conscientiousness and brand personality

H1$_{2b}$:	*There is a significant relationship between individuals scoring high on conscientiousness and a **trusted** brand (i.e. Toyota or Volkswagen)*

As presented in Table 5.5, there is sufficient evidence of a statistically significant positive relationship between individuals scoring high on the conscientiousness personality dimension and purchase intent towards Volkswagen ($r = 0.15$; $p < 0.05$) and Toyota ($r =$

0.14; p < 0.05). The Pearson's r-value for both these relationships was between 0.09 and 0.29, indicating that the relationship is relatively weak. According to the descriptive results of this study, both these car brands were perceived as trusted and/or exciting.

As suggested by this study's literature (see Section 3.4.2.2), there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on the conscientiousness dimension and brands with a corresponding personality, specifically brands perceived as trusted (see Table 3.1). In other words, individuals who tend to be more responsible, organised and thorough in decision making, persistent, purposeful and determined are probably likely to demonstrate preference for (and possibly purchase) brands perceived as being trustful or reliable. Therefore, one could conclude that car brands that position themselves as being trustful, reliable, persevering and traditional, could draw the attention of individuals with a corresponding personality - in this case individuals more dominant in the conscientiousness dimension.

5.3.3 Extroversion and brand personality

$H1_{2c}$:	*There is a significant relationship between individuals scoring high on extroversion and an (i) **exciting** and (ii) **sociable** brand (i.e. Mini Cooper or Land Rover)*

According to the results from the Pearson's correlation coefficient test statistic in Table 5.5, there is no evidence of a statistically significant relationship between individuals scoring high on the extroversion personality dimension and their purchase intent toward any of the four brands (p>0.05). As suggested by this study's literature overview (see Table 3.1), individuals scoring high on the extroversion dimension will be more likely to show preference for brands perceived as exciting and sociable. In the case there was no evidence to support the relationship as the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

5.3.4 Agreeableness and brand personality

H1$_{2d}$:	*There is a significant relationship between individuals scoring high on agreeableness and a **sincere** brand*

As shown in Table 5.5, there is no statically significant relationship between individuals scoring high on the agreeableness personality dimension and purchase intent towards a sincere brand as suggested by the hypothesis. As suggested by Mulyanegara et al. (2009), that individuals who are characterised by altruism, nurturance, caring and being emotionally supportive are more likely to prefer brands that are perceived as simple and caring (sincere).

The results in Table 5.5 indicate that there is a statically significant positive relationship between individuals scoring high on the agreeableness personality dimension and purchase intent towards a Land Rover, perceived as an exciting and sociable brand ($r = 0.18$; $p < 0.05$). This result suggests that altruistic, nurturing and caring individuals are more likely to purchase brands perceived as exciting and sociable.

5.3.5 Neuroticism and brand personality

H1$_{2e}$:	*There is a significant relationship between individuals scoring high on neuroticism and a **trusted** brand (i.e. Toyota or Volkswagen)*

According to the Pearson's correlation coefficient's significance value, there is no statistically significant relationship between individuals scoring high on the neuroticism personality dimension and purchase intent toward any of the four brands and personalities ($p>0.05$). The literature indicated that individuals scoring high on the neuroticism dimension might possibly be more likely to show preference for brands perceived as trusted, such as Volkswagen and Toyota, as these individuals are prone to cope poorly with stress, are insecure and tend to experience a variety of negative emotions and seek brands that are reliable, trustful, persevering and traditional (see Table 3.5). This

statement could not be supported as there was no sufficient statistically significant evidence of a relationship and the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

5.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the results obtained from the primary data collected using both descriptive and inferential analysis. The discussion commenced by outlining the realised sample of the study, which included a discussion of the general demographic information of the respondents. A discussion of the psychographic information was also included in this chapter, as it sheds light on the respondents' attitudes towards specific brands and car models by way of purchase intent, as well as the importance of a product's status. The individuals' personality and their perceptions of a brand's personality within the sample was also analysed in this section. Finally, the inferential test statistics employed to test the hypotheses of both research objectives were discussed. These results guided the discussion of the research conclusions and recommendations in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6 | SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Formulating conclusions and managerial recommendations is the final step in the marketing research process and consolidates the research objectives of this study into practical strategies. This study was undertaken to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities.

In order to build upon this study's research conclusions, managerial recommendations are made that provide key guidelines and general strategies for firms with regard to their brands. Limitations of this study are also identified, together with suggestions for future research. This chapter concludes with the reconciliation of the objectives.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL RESULTS

This section reiterates the results of the empirical research conducted, as discussed in detail in Chapter 5. Each finding is relevant to achieving the primary objective of this study, which was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities.

6.2.1 Realised sample

The results show that the realised sample comprised young male and female consumers, aged mostly between 23 and 34, who had an understanding of the English language and fell within LSM groups 8 to 10. Consumers in the realised sample were also identified as consumers who were educated or in the process of completing their tertiary education, and had entered the job market and earned some form of disposable income. Considering

the demographic results, it was concluded that a majority of the sample was likely to have an understanding of the car market and could be categorised as first-time car buyers.

From the descriptive results, it was also deduced that consumers' stated purchase intent towards Volkswagen was the highest and towards Mini Cooper the lowest, with its stated purchase intent being below 50%. Also demonstrated by the results was that, although consumers' purchase intent of a brand might be high, their purchase intent toward a given car model associated with the brand could differ. The majority of consumers (86.8%) also indicated that, when purchasing a car, the brand of the car in consideration is of high importance. This result is an indication that consumers are brand conscious and that their purchasing decision depends on it to some extent – for whatever reason.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher wanted to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. The following sections give a quick overview of the results arising from this investigation.

6.2.2 The relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities

The primary objective of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. The secondary objectives formulated assessed whether there is a relationship between each of the Big Five personality dimensions and its corresponding brand personality, as suggested by Mulyanegara et al. (2009). A Pearson's correlation coefficient test statistic was performed to measure these relationships. The results of the empirical research are presented in the following section, together with the points of identity between the results of the study and relevant previous studies.

- *The relationship between individuals scoring high on openness to experience and an exciting brand and/or sociable brand*

  The empirical results reveal that there is a statistically significant relationship between individuals scoring high on the openness to experience personality dimension and an exciting and/or sociable brand (Mini Cooper). This result suggests that these individuals will be more likely to show preference for and purchase a brand portraying characteristics true to exciting and sociable.

  This finding is also in line with Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) research suggestions. In other words, consumers holding traits of an "open to experience" personality type will be more likely to prefer and/or buy a car brand that is perceived as an exciting brand.

- *The relationship between individuals scoring high on conscientiousness and a trusted brand*

  There was evidence of a statistically significant relationship between individuals scoring high on the conscientiousness personality dimension and their preference/likelihood to purchase a trusted brand (Volkswagen Tiguan).

  This result is in line with previous studies, which have suggested that consumers who tend to be more responsible, organised and thorough naturally would be more likely to prefer and buy brands that portray characteristics of trust, reliability and perseverance (Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009; Mulyanegara et al., 2009).

- *The relationship between individuals scoring high on extroversion and an exciting brand and/or sociable brand*

  No evidence of a statistically significant relationship was found between individuals scoring high on the extroversion personality dimension and an exciting and/or sociable brand. According to the Pearson's correlation coefficient test statistic performed, the extroversion personality dimension did not show any significance across all four car

- 156 -

brands. No definitive conclusion could be made to support Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) research, which found that consumers scoring high on the extroversion dimension will most likely prefer brands that are perceived as sociable.

- ***The relationship between individuals scoring high on agreeableness and a sincere brand***

  As suggested by Mulyanegara et al.'s (2009) research and this study's literature, it was suggested that individuals scoring high on the agreeable dimension of the Big Five personality scale will be more likely to prefer brands that are perceived as sincere. According to the Pearson's correlation coefficient test statistic performed, there is no statically significant relationship between individuals scoring high on the agreeableness personality dimension and purchase intent towards a sincere brand as suggested by the hypothesis. Instead, the result suggested that individuals scoring high on the agreeableness personality dimension are more likely to prefer brands that are perceived as Exciting and Sociable.

- ***The relationship between individuals scoring high on neuroticism and a trusted brand***

  No statistically significant relationship was found between individuals scoring high on the neuroticism personality dimension and a trusted brand. The null hypothesis therefore was not rejected. This personality dimension appeared not to be statically related to any of the four car brands used in this study.

6.3 RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

Various research studies have illustrated that marketers started implementing various branding strategies in order to differentiate them from other brands. These strategies often include emphasising specific personality traits to influence consumers' perceptions, associations and preferences (Aaker, 1997; Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990), which highlights the

important link between people and brands (Gronlund, 2013:3). As suggested by Govers and Schoorman's (2005) research findings, consumers favour brands that best reflect their own personality. Mulyanegara et al.'s. (2009:234) research shared this viewpoint, proving that some dimensions of the Big Five constructs are significantly related to consumer preferences for specific dimensions of brand personality.

As such, the brand personality literature has evolved beyond the point of simply recognising the existence of brand personality to one where marketers and researchers alike are now invested and interested in its practical implications in the marketing domain (Freling et al., 2011). Depending on the relationship between individuals' personalities and brand personalities, marketers can adapt their marketing and positioning strategies of their brand/s so as to appeal to the intended target market. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2004), the key assumption underlying the marketing function is that, to be successful, an organisation must identify the needs and wants of specific target markets and deliver the desired satisfaction better than its competitors. In response to this statement, the results of this study revealed some significant relationships between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities.

This study aimed to corroborate these findings and supply marketers with practical implications so as to adapt their marketing strategy. Although not all of the null hypotheses for this study could be rejected, some relationships were supported statistically. Emphasis with regard to final conclusions and practical implications was placed on those relationships that were empirically supported by the results of this study.

The first statistically significant hypothesis assessed the relationship between individuals scoring high on openness to experience and an exciting and/or sociable brand. In this study, consumers scoring higher on the **Openness to Experience** personality dimension claimed higher intent to purchase the **Mini Cooper Countryman**. As mentioned before, the Mini Cooper was perceived as a brand portraying traits resembling an **exciting**

(highest ranked dimension) and ***sociable*** *brand* (2nd highest ranked dimension), allowing the researcher to reject the null hypothesis. It therefore was concluded that consumers who tend to be more likely to actively seek out novel experiences, who have a wide variety of interests, who are more open-minded and somewhat imaginative would naturally be more drawn to brands that augment and reflect these traits. Examples of the latter are specifically brands that appear to be adventurous, active, creative and friendly to them – all traits that would complement an individual more open to experiences.

The second statistically significant hypothesis assessed the relationship between individuals scoring high on conscientiousness and a trusted and/or exciting brand. Consumers therefore scoring higher on the ***Conscientiousness*** personality dimension claimed higher intent to purchase both the ***Toyota Rav4*** and the ***Volkswagen Tiguan***. Both these cars and brands are perceived as portraying traits resembling a ***trusted*** (highest ranked dimension) and an ***exciting*** (2nd highest ranked dimension) brand. The conclusion was drawn that consumers who strive toward achievement, appreciate order, have self-discipline and are dependable, are thorough in decision making, persistent, purposeful and determined would naturally be drawn to car brands that match and support these characteristics. As hypothesised, conscientious consumers therefore will be drawn to brands that display and communicate a sense of reliability, perseverance, traditionalism and trustfulness.

In conclusion, the findings of this this study indicate that personality variables are not strong enough to be reliable predictors of brand preferences. The significant findings on the relationship between specific personality dimensions and brand personalities, as just discussed, do however offer useful insights for managers. This is discussed briefly in the following section.

6.4 THEORETICAL AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Based on this study's empirical tests and results, personality-based segmentation can be implemented by devising and promoting different types of brand personalities to target different consumers. For example, if marketers position a company's brand as an "exciting" brand (active, adventurous and cool), it is suggested to attract people with "open to experience" tendencies or who are more extroverted in nature. Similarly, managers can design and promote a brand as trusted, portraying traits of reliability, trustfulness and perseverance. This type of brand should then appeal to people who appreciate order, competence and self-discipline – dominant on the "conscientious" personality dimension. To appeal to specific groups of consumers dominant in a specific personality dimension of the Big Five, marketers can influence brand personality perceptions by incorporating these brands' core characteristics into their communication and positioning strategies. There are three key elements marketers should consider when planning communication strategies to promote, reinforce and/or emphasise a brand's personality. Firstly, the **user imagery**, in other words, the image/person used in communications should be relatable. More specifically, it should appeal to and promote the personality of the target audience. User imagery aims to portray the type of person that uses a particular brand/product, which in some cases, as seen from this study's results, will naturally appeal to consumers portraying corresponding personality characteristics. According to Monger (2012), the image does not even have to be human, as a variety of brands have used animals effectively as the "face" of the brand. For example, if marketers want to communicate a car brand's personality (i.e. Toyota Rav4 or Volkswagen Tiguan) as an exciting brand, they should use a presenter who portrays active, adventurous and cool personality characteristics. As suggested by this study's results, this would be more likely to capture the attention of consumers who are more "open to experience" than consumers who are more dominant in the conscientiousness personality dimension.

Secondly, marketers should carefully consider a wide variety of **executional elements**. These elements generally include choice of music, visual appeal, colour schemes, the layout used, and typography. All elements should be implemented to complement the others in order to best portray the brand's personality. Using exciting music and/or voice in a television advert with an active beat would better fit communication for an exciting brand than a trusted or sincere brand, for example. As such, a softer and firm voice would sound more trusting. Similarly, a softer and more neutral typography would give a more trusted and sincere feeling than a bolder and larger typography.

The last element that marketers should consider in brand personality communication strategies is **consistency**. According to Monger (2012), predictability and consistency in advertising are very important when executing a brand personality strategy. In order to avoid diluting brands' intended/perceived personalities, important symbolic aspects of the brand should remain consistent over time. Executional elements therefore should be fixed over time and campaigns – this will also help in creating a lasting brand personality effect in the minds of consumers. For example, consistency can be achieved by using the same presenter across a communications campaign. This will enable consumers to easily make a brand linkage and possibly avoid confusion. Similar to keeping user imagery consistent, marketers should also focus on consistency when considering their executional elements, as discussed above. Typography, colours and content should be the same and also communicate the same main message.

All these elements help augment brand communication that appeals to and attracts the attention of consumers with similar and corresponding personality traits. Once a brand personality is envisioned and established for a car and brand being advertised, marketers can implement these advertising elements to best portray the inherent brand personality characteristics, aiming to appeal to a specific group of consumers. Below are some examples to influence consumers by building certain brand personality perceptions through implementing main advertising elements in marketing strategies.

*Marketers can utilise media in the form of **television commercials** that visually and aurally incorporate a brand and/or product's personality and characteristics, also bearing in mind the key advertising elements discussed previously. Derived from the results of this study, it is suggested that marketers of car brands in general decide on an intended brand personality for the specific car and/or brand and incorporate the various advertising elements to best communicate that personality. An example could be that Mini Cooper shoot a commercial and using young, fun and exciting individuals maybe going on a road trip. This could possibly emphasise the "exciting" as well as the "sociable" (with friends) element of Mini Cooper's personality.*

*In parallel to the television commercials, media in the form of **print adverts** can also be utilised, keeping consistency across advertising mediums. The print advertisements should be consistent and complement the television commercials, aiming to reach and target the same audience. The print communications should visually incorporate the brands' personality and shape a specific picture in the minds of consumers, using certain colour schemes, typography and layout options. In relation to this study, Mini Cooper and Land Rover could specifically incorporate a mixture of advertising elements to create an exciting and sociable personality. Volkswagen and Toyota could similarly utilise advertising elements to create a more trusted personality.*

*Companies could also use **social media** such as Facebook, Twitter and Instagram to communicate an intended brand personality. Sharing pictures, news feeds and stories fitting the brand's personality could also help promote a car and/or brand's personality. Sharing pictures of a Mini Cooper Countryman or Land Rover Evoque on an outdoor adventure could instil the picture of an active, adventurous and cool brand, potentially attracting the attention of consumers who are "open to experience". Running online competitions with active, outgoing and adventurous prizes, for example a weekend away in the Cederberg, could have the same effect.*

*Another way that car companies can promote and incorporate brand personality strategies is **retail marketing campaigns** in consumption environments, for example showrooms. The same atmosphere could be created to promote the car and/or brand's intended personality. Land Rover can for example create a showroom where the vehicles are standing on a rocky mountain creation to demonstrate its exciting personality.*

*Companies can also create a closer bond between the consumer and the brand by immersing them in a fun and memorable experience through **experiential marketing campaigns**. Experiential campaigns allow for the creation of a more face-to-face, interactive experience, rather than messages being pushed to the target audience. If a brand event stirs positive emotions within consumers, they are more likely to associate those emotions with the brand, which will possibly also increase brand linkage. This is often more effective than just relying on other media channels, such as television commercials, print advertisements or social media.*

Such campaigns can include exclusive vehicle launches, parties, or footprint at heavily populated locations. These campaigns can either be related directly to the experience of driving the company's cars, for example setting up a footprint where consumers could control a slot car through an electronic device (i.e. iPad). Although consumers are not physically driving a real car, the idea behind the "game" is still directly relatable to driving. Mini Cooper and Land Rover, for example, could then incorporate advertising elements to this experience to accentuate the "exciting" and "social" personality factors. Another way companies can use experiential marketing is in a more non-direct manner, where the experience is not directly related to or associated with the car brand, but rather extracting meaning from their brand and providing consumers with positive experiences. Volkswagen previously introduced a slide (Fast Lane) consumers could take to the subway instead of the usual stairs. This created a memorable experience for consumers that they then associated with Volkswagen.

Based on the results of this study, a number of practical and relevant marketing strategies were proposed. It is believed that that this study's results and strategies will enable marketers of car brands to develop, instil and promote different types of brand personalities to target different consumers with specific personality types. The next section of this chapter will discuss the possible limitations this study faced.

6.5 POSSIBLE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Some limitations concerning this study should be noted. Firstly, the realised sample in both the qualitative and quantitative phases of this study was selected using non-probability methods (see Chapter 4). In using non-probability sampling methods, the reliability and representivity of the sample are compromised. In turn, inferences made are not truly generalisable to the target population, again limiting the reliability of the results and recommendations. Researchers are encouraged to conduct studies investigating personality and brand personality by using probability sampling of a similar target population to extend or support the findings of this study.

Using a self-report instrument to measure the respondent's personality was another limitation identified. According to Pervin and John (1997), self-report instruments in personality measurement have weaknesses, since respondents tend to report positively about themselves. Although the web-based survey was anonymous, respondents may have scored themselves high on all dimensions conventionally perceived as "desirable characteristics". The results of this study's personality measurement (see Chapter 5) support Pervin and John's (1997) argument – as the average mean score across all five personality dimensions was equally high.

Another limitation was the size of the focus group that only consisted of five participants. While focus groups are usually conducted with small groups of between six and ten

participants (Zikmund et al., 2010), the question still arises as to whether this group was representative to the target population.

6.6 FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

Future studies on personality and brand personality could include additional product categories. Instead of only investigating a single car type (specific SUV models in the case of this study), researchers could include either a variety of car types and brands or further launch an investigation of this topic using a different product category.

Other future research opportunities could also include the exploration of differences in gender and race with regard to personality and brand personality in the car product category. According to Mulyanegara et al. (2009) there are differences in terms of the corresponding Big Five dimensions between males and females. They suggest that males and females are different in the way in which they express their personality through fashion brand personality. An investigation of whether different races would express their personalities differently through preference for a perceived brand personality is also worth examining in the future. Different communities could also express their decision-making tactics and preferences differently. Communication strategies might also then differ based on possible cultural differences.

A third possible area of future research could be to replicate the current study using another brand personality scale. Although the brand personality scale utilised in this study was specifically developed to be consistent with the Big Five personality dimensions, the scale needs further validation and application in other product contexts (Mulyanegara et al., 2009).

6.7 RECONCILIATION OF OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this study, as set out in Chapter 1, was to assess the relationship between individuals' personalities and specific brand personalities. The secondary research objectives formulated were:

- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on openness to experience and specific brand personalities
- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on conscientiousness and specific brand personalities
- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on extroversion and specific brand personalities
- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on agreeableness and specific brand personalities
- To assess whether there is a relationship between individuals scoring high on neuroticism and specific brand personalities

However, as discussed in the results chapter of this study, significant findings on the relationship between specific personality dimensions and brand preferences offer useful insights for managers.

6.8 CONCLUSION

The relationship between consumer personalities and specific brand personalities was investigated. A Pearson's correlation coefficient test statistic was performed to test this relationship. The findings of this study indicate that personality variables are not strong enough to be reliable predictors of individuals' brand preferences or intent to buy a brand portraying a specific brand personality. However, significant findings on the relationship between specific personality dimensions and brand personalities offer useful insights for managers.

This chapter concludes with final conclusions and possible managerial implications and suggestions based on the research outcome. A few possible limitations of this research were identified and possible future research opportunities were emphasised.

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APPENDIX A | INTERVIEWER'S GUIDE: FOCUS GROUP

INTRODUCTION:

(5 min)

Good morning and welcome to this focus group session. Thanks for taking the time to join me to talk about the different car brands in general. It is not required to be an expert on this topic to participate, so please relax if you are worried. As many of you know, my name is Xanri and assisting me is my co-supervisor Dr Pretorius.

The aim of my thesis is to assess whether there is a relationship between individuals' personality and a brand's personality. In other words, I am trying to determine whether individuals with a certain personality type will show particular preference for a brand with a certain personality type. For the purpose of my study, I am using cars. Thus, the goal of this focus group is to understand how you guys as consumers think about different car brands. There are no right or wrong answers, but rather differing point of views. I am rather interested in your opinions regarding the topic.

I am tape recording this session solely for the purpose of data analysis. I can simply not write fast enough and don't want to miss any of your comments. Confidentiality and anonymity is assured.

QUESTIONS:

 1. What **car brand** did you first own? Why?

(10 min)

2. **WHO** or/and **WHAT** influences your decision to purchase a particular **car brand**? **(10 min)**

3. When you have to purchase a car, what do you look for? – In order of importance. What is the most important factor?

(10 min)

4. All constraints aside (i.e. money), what **car brand** would you **like** to own? Why? **(10 min)**

5. In your opinion, which car brands are more **FUNCTIONAL** and which ones are more **SYMBOLIC**? Why? **(10 min)**

6. In your opinion, which of these car brands do you see as the **more familiar brands among consumers**, and why? (Please use the brand logos to order brands from most familiar to least familiar, in your opinion).

APPENDIX B | INTERVIEWER'S GUIDE: PICTURE AND WORD ASSOCIATION

INTRODUCTION:

Hallo, my name is Xanri. Welcome to this word association session in support of my Master's research. Thank you for taking the time to participate in my study. The aim of my research is based on brands.

Also KNOW:

I am tape recording this session solely for the purpose of data analysis. Confidentiality and anonymity is assured. By being here you have assumed consent to participate in my research. You are welcome, at any point in time, to leave the session if not comfortable, and are not obligated to participate.

The TASK:

- Take a few minutes to familiarise yourself with the 10 car brand images that are placed on the left-hand side of the white surface, as well as the 50 words that are placed on the right-hand side.

- Place these word(s) available next to the car brand that you feel it best describes

- **YOU ARE NOT REQUIRED TO USE ALL OF THE WORDS**

- All the definitions of words are also available in the booklet provided. If you do not understand a word, you are also welcome to ask me and a definition of the word will be supplied.

- Please bear in mind that **THERE IS NO RIGHT OR WRONG PLACEMENT OF WORDS**

APPENDIX C | WEB-BASED SURVEY

This questionnaire forms part of a research study being conducted by a Master's student at the Stellenbosch University regarding brands. This questionnaire will only take 7 minutes to complete and your participation will be much appreciated.

Participation in this research study is **completely voluntary** and should you feel the need to stop, feel free to do so at any time.

The questionnaire is **completely anonymous** and your answers will be kept confidential so please answer all questions truthfully.

Do you wish to participate in this study?

○ Yes

○ No

Next >>

Survey Completion
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Do you own a **laptop and/or desktop computer?**

○ Yes

○ No

Next >>

Survey Completion
0% [   ] 100%

Do you own a **motor vehicle**?

○ Yes

○ No

Next >>

Survey Completion
0% ▭ 100%

Do you own a **vacuum cleaner**?

○ Yes

○ No

Next >>

Survey Completion
0% ▭ 100%

Do you have **HOT running water/geyser**?

○ Yes

○ No

Next >>

Survey Completion
0% ▭ 100%

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What is your **GENDER**?

○ Male

○ Female

What is your age in years?

[   ]

Please indicate your **POPULATION GROUP**.

○ Black

○ White

○ Coloured

○ Asian

○ Other

Next >>

Survey Completion

0% ▮▮ [   ] 100%

PLEASE CAREFULLY LOOK AT THE FOLLOWING IMAGE PROVIDED, FOLLOWED BY THE LIST OF WORDS:

Caring	Trustful
Simple	Active
Outgoing	Cool
Emotional	Traditional
Reliable	Adventurous
Friendly	Creative
Persevering	

Rank the FOUR words in order of preference (where 1 indicates best description and 4 indicates fourth best description) that you believe __best describes__ the car and brand shown in the image.

☐ Caring

☐ Simple

☐ Outgoing

☐ Emotional

☐ Reliable

☐ Friendly

☐ Persevering

☐ Trustful

☐ Active

☐ Cool

☐ Traditional

☐ Adventurous

☐ Creative

The following questions apply to the image shown above. Please indicate to what extent you strongly disagree OR strongly agree with each statement provided.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would buy this car model	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would buy this car brand	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Next >>

Survey Completion
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Which of these options best describes your highest level of education received?

[▼]

Next >>

Survey Completion
0% ▓▓▓▓ 100%

Qqualtrics

PLEASE CAREFULLY LOOK AT THE FOLLOWING IMAGE PROVIDED, FOLLOWED BY THE LIST OF WORDS.

Emotional	Friendly
Adventurous	Persevering
Trustful	Caring
Creative	Outgoing
Active	Reliable
Cool	Traditional
Simple	
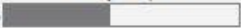
Rank the FOUR words in order of preference (where 1 indicates best description and 4 indicates fourth best description) that you believe best describes the car and brand shown in the image.

- [ ] Emotional
- [ ] Adventurous
- [ ] Trustful
- [ ] Creative
- [ ] Active
- [ ] Cool
- [ ] Simple
- [ ] Friendly
- [ ] Persevering
- [ ] Caring
- [ ] Outgoing
- [ ] Reliable
- [ ] Traditional

The following questions apply to the image shown above. Please indicate to what extent you **strongly disagree** OR **strongly agree** with each statement provided.
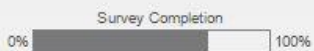
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would buy this car model	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would buy this car brand	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Next >>

Survey Completion
0% ▓▓▓▓▓▓ 100%

qualtrics
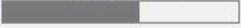
Which of these options best describes your current employment status?

[▼]

Next >>

Survey Completion
0% ▓▓▓▓▓▓ 100%

Q qualtrics

PLEASE CAREFULLY LOOK AT THE FOLLOWING IMAGE PROVIDED, FOLLOWED BY THE LIST OF WORDS.

Friendly	Trustful
Outgoing	Creative
Traditional	Emotional
Adventurous	Reliable
Caring	Persevering
Simple	Active
Cool	

Rank the FOUR words in order of preference (where 1 indicates best description and 4 indicates fourth best description) that you believe best describes the car and brand shown in the image.

[ ] Friendly
[ ] Outgoing
[ ] Traditional
[ ] Adventurous
[ ] Caring
[ ] Simple
[ ] Cool
[ ] Trustful
[ ] Creative
[ ] Emotional
[ ] Reliable
[ ] Persevering
[ ] Active

The following questions apply to the image shown above. Please indicate to what extent you **strongly disagree** OR **strongly agree** with each statement provided.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would buy this car model	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would buy this car brand	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Next >>

Survey Completion
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Which one of the following income brackets best describes your current personal disposable income?

[▼]

Next >>

Survey Completion
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PLEASE CAREFULLY LOOK AT THE FOLLOWING IMAGE PROVIDED, FOLLOWED BY THE LIST OF WORDS.

Traditional	Persevering
Emotional	Friendly
Simple	Creative
Caring	Adventurous
Trustful	Active
Outgoing	Cool
Reliable	

Rank the FOUR words in order of preference (where 1 indicates best description and 4 indicates fourth best description) that you believe best describes the car and brand shown in the image.

- [ ] Traditional
- [ ] Emotional
- [ ] Simple
- [ ] Caring
- [ ] Trustful
- [ ] Outgoing
- [ ] Reliable
- [ ] Persevering
- [ ] Friendly
- [ ] Creative
- [ ] Adventurous
- [ ] Active
- [ ] Cool

The following questions apply to the image shown above. Please indicate to what extent you **strongly disagree** OR **strongly agree** with each statement provided.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would purchase this car model	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would purchase this brand	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Next >>

Survey Completion
0% ▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓░░ 100%

qualtrics

Please indicate to what extent you **strongly disagree** OR **strongly agree** with each statement provided.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The status of a product is relevant to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would pay more for a product if it has status	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would buy a product just because it has status	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In general, when making the decision to purchase a new car, the brand of the car is a big consideration.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Next >>

Survey Completion
0% ▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓░░ 100%

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PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS AS ACCURATE AS POSSIBLE. Indicate to what extent you disagree OR agree with each statement provided; where 1 means that you strongly disagree and 7 means you strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I see myself as: Open to new experiences, complex	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I see myself as: Dependable, self-disciplined	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I see myself as: Extraverted, enthusiastic	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I see myself as: Critical, quarrelsome	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I see myself as: Anxious, easily upset	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I see myself as: Conventional, uncreative	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I see myself as: Disorganised, careless	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I see myself as: Reserved, quiet	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I see myself as: Sympathetic, warm	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I see myself as: Calm, emotionally stable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Next >>

qualtrics

Please provide the following details for the use of administration purposes only.

Surname

Initials

Telephone number

Email address

Next >>

Survey Completion
0% 100%

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey.
Your response has been recorded.

Survey Completion
0% ▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓ 100%