

BRAND-AD INCONGRUENCY IN HIGH PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT

BY

SEOUNGCHUL LEE

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To my family

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Ac	Ad Credibility
Aad	Attitude toward the Ad
Ab	Attitude toward the Brand
PI	Purchase Intention

Abstract of Thesis Presented to the Graduate School
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By

Seoungchul Lee

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This study explores how effective ad-brand incongruency is in high involvement product category. Using a 1 x 3 experiment, a congruent level is manipulated according to a pretest result. Traditional advertising measures of attitude toward the ad, brand, ad credibility, and purchase intention are examined as dependent variables. According to the results, although a congruent ad generates higher Aad, Ab, Ac, and PI than an extreme incongruent ad, a moderate incongruent ad also produces positive Aad and Ac than an extreme incongruent ad. The discussion provides implications for advertisers as well as suggestions for future study.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Every brand has its image and brand image serves as a driving force for consumers to buy a product (Mitchell, 1986). This brand image is called brand personality, and is defined as “the set of human characteristics associated with a brand” (Aaker, 1997). Brand personality is important because consumers tend to buy brands that match their self-image (Sirgy, 1982, 1986).

Previous research shows that brand personality can be created by sporting event sponsorships, celebrity endorsements, and other promotions (Lee & Thorson, 2008; Lee & Cho, 2009). Advertising may be the most powerful tool in making and representing brand personality (Biehal, Stephens, & Curlo, 1992).

However, there are many competing ads; this creates a problem for companies that wish to use advertising to create a brand personality. This so called “ad clutter” makes it difficult to capture consumers’ attention. To make matters worse, consumers tend to process the information in which they are interested (Tellis, 2004); rather than perceiving the world as it really is, consumers view a product and process associated information as they expect (Macrae & Bodenhausen, 2001).

To resolve ad clutter problems and catch consumers’ attention, researchers have conducted many studies on ad incongruence. Ad incongruence is defined as the extent to which new information does not conform to consumers’ expectation and memory based on previous experience (Mandler, 1982). Many researchers question this idea. For instance, what happens when the ad is incongruent with the brand and the associations that consumers hold, or which advertisement is more effective in the instance of extreme incongruence, moderate incongruent and congruent ads?

In these situations, Lee and Thorson (2008) established a theory that moderately mismatched ads show higher purchase intention than either completely matched or extremely mismatched ads in product-celebrity endorsements. Micael, Fredrik L, Henrik and Fredrik T (2005) found that incongruent ads produced a lower ad attitude and ad credibility, but higher brand attitude and more sophisticated processing of brand-related information. However, as they mentioned in their research, their focus was only on a low involvement product, a chocolate bar, as a stimulus. This is the starting point for this thesis. How do consumers perceive incongruent ads compared to congruent ads in high involvement product categories?

Extending the research of Micael et al. (2005), it is worthy stating their findings first:

- a) Ad attitude is lower for brand-incongruent ads than for brand-congruent ads.
- b) Ad credibility is lower for brand-incongruent ads than for brand-congruent ads.
- c) Brand attitude is higher for brand-incongruent ads than for brand-congruent ads.

Most noticeably, in their research, the main factor leading to the above results is disturbance. It suggests consumers tend to process new information as disturbing when it is different from their brand schema, especially under a low involvement condition. In other words, an incongruent ad is perceived as disturbing because it conflicts with consumers' expectations, and therefore leads to low ad attitude (Micael et al, 2005).

If true, let us go back to starting point again, "What if consumers do not think of an incongruent ad as disturbing?" We can assume that as they put more effort and time into understanding an incongruent ad, attitudes toward a high involvement product ad will be enhanced.

If this assumption is correct, this research will play an important role in the relationship between ad and brand. Furthermore, these results will give us a clue to better understand the relationship between product involvement and ad-brand incongruency; helping us to overcome ad clutter and leading us to make more effective advertisements.

This study chose the real cell phone brand, iPhone, as a high involvement product stimulus since consumers value cell phones as important accessory in life (Zaichkowsky, 1994), and also put special value into a cell phone as a tool for identifying themselves (Krugman, 1967).

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEWS

Brand and Brand personality

The definition of a brand is “no tangible, physical, or functional properties. It is a mental translation, an abstraction of that object or service. It exists solely as a mental construct, a typification, an idea in the minds of those who behold it.” (Kim, 1990) Despite the fact that the brand is not a real object, consumers perceive it as genuine; it does not belong to the owners, but to the eye of consumers. The eye of the beholder assimilates pieces of experiences, thoughts, feelings, associations, and images (Kim, 1990).

Brand personality is defined as “the set of human characteristics associated with a brand.” (Aaker, 1997) In contrast to product related attributes, which tend to functionally appeal to consumers, brand personality tends to be symbolic or serve as a function of self-expression (Keller, 1993). Fournier (1994) found that the symbolic use of brands is possible because consumers often relate brand images to human characteristics. For example, Absolute vodka is described as a cool, hip, contemporary 25-year old, whereas Stolichnaya is described as an intellectual, conservative, and traditional.

The main reason for this resulting phenomenon is advertising. Advertisers often use celebrity endorsers in their ads. This is not only for utilizing credibility and attractiveness of celebrities; but this also allows advertisers to channel celebrity personalities into a brand. (Tellis, 2004; Aaker, 1997). Through this process, consumers can easily compare brands to famous celebrities or famous figures.

In addition to personality characteristics, Levy (1959) suggests that brand personality also includes demographic characteristics such as gender, age, and class. Similar to personality characteristics, these demographic characteristics are stemmed directly from the image of the

brand user or, endorsers and indirectly from other associated brand images. For example, Apple is considered young, whereas IBM is considered older. Also, based on different pricing strategies, Saks Fifth Avenue is perceived as upper class, whereas Kmart is perceived as blue collar.

Brand personality has two dimensions; enduring, and distinct. For example, the personality traits associated with Coca-Cola are cool, all-American, and real; these traits are relatively enduring (Pendergrast, 1993) and differ from its competitors (e.g., Pepsi being young, exciting, and hip; Dr Pepper being nonconforming, unique, and fun (Plummer, 1985). For a brand to be successful, its images and symbols must be not only related to the needs, values, and life styles of consumers, but also different from other brands (Broadbent & Cooper, 1987).

With regard to brand personality, brands can be described by consumers; moreover, consumers often prefer brands and stores with images consistent with their own self-image (Sirgy, 1982), and they tend to be attracted to a brand image which matches their self-image (Sirgy, 1986).

Why are consumers more attracted to those brands with which they share characteristics? Perhaps, brand image is a way consumers can express their self-image (McEnally & Chernatony, 1999). Consumers express themselves as they want to be viewed by using the associated images of brands; Cadillac DeVille's advertising campaign is a good example, "My DeVille says it all, without me having to say anything." Consumers can be viewed the same as a campaign promotes (e.g., upper class and/or important person) by using this brand. In other words, consumers often purchase products to maintain and enhance their self-image; consumers make purchase decisions based on a product's symbolic meanings and images, which can be used to create and enhance their self-image (Levy, 1959; Solomon & Douglas, 1987).

Motivated by this logic, Sirgy (1982) found that consumers have greater preference for the brand that has unique and ideal personalities. The idea that consumers have more favorable attitude toward brands with images similar to their own self-image can be explained by image congruence hypothesis (Belk, Bahn, & Mayer, 1982; Hong & Zinkhan, 1995; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987). Specifically, integration of certain images into the brand makes it more attractive to consumers who possess the same personality or their desire to enhance their existing self image through the use of a brand (McEnally & Chernatony, 1999). This is the reason why a strong and consistent brand image is critical to the long-term success of the brand (Gardner & Levy, 1955; Park, Jaworski, & MacInnis, 1986; Ries & Trout, 1986).

Even though consumers think brands have similar characteristics that correlate with human personality traits, the formation process is different from that of a human personality. While human personality traits are inferred from an individual's behavior, physical characteristics (i.e., attractiveness), attitudes, beliefs, and even demographic attributes, brand personality traits can be created and influenced by a consumer's direct or indirect contact with a brand (Plummer, 1985).

While companies market brand concepts to their targets, consumers formulate a brand image in their memories from a stimulus such as media exposure or consumption (McEnally & Chernatony, 1999). Establishing a unique brand image cannot be completed in a day; it is an evolutionary process (Goodyear, 1996) and establishing unique brand image is the final stage of this process. Consumers form brand schemas by storing their experiences and associations with a brand (Keller, 1993; Kent & Allen, 1994; Low & Lamb, 2000). Once consumers store brand schema, they can retrieve brand related information from their schema; they can control and discriminate new brand information as well (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Pechmann & Stewart,

1990). This seems to explain the ineffectiveness related to the ad-brand attitude for familiar brands and brand schema (Machleit & Wilson, 1988); in other words, if a familiar brand does not incorporate new information in advertising, consumers will not find it as interesting (Dahlén, 2001; Tellis, 1997).

Brand schemas serve to interpret the input when brand-related information is encountered (Braun, 1999), since schemas present previous experience that directs behavior, perception, and thought (Mandler, 1982). Specifically, when consumers' expectations using brand schemas are similar to the encountered information, it promotes consumers to process the information, because consumers consider familiar information interesting (Kent & Allen, 1994; Machleit & Wilson, 1988). This seems to explain why advertisers focus on making their brands noticeable or familiar. Advertisers try to make their brands more strongly established than other brands since, strongly established brands not only promote consumers to process the information, but also make the information more persuasive (Kent & Allen, 1994).

Schema Incongruency

There are not only too many brands, but also too many competing ads in the market. To overcome this ad clutter and make their brand noticeable, advertisers try to differentiate their ads from competing ads by making them humorous or catching; therefore, they need a powerful tool to capture consumers' attention. For example, advertisers make their ads funny to make them more appealing and catching by challenging consumers' expectation; and, this strategy makes their ads different from other competing ads. Related to this situation, theoretical researches have been conducted under the term "incongruency," or "incongruity" (Lee & Mason, 1999).

According to Mandler (1982), incongruency is "the extent to which new information does not conform to consumer expectations based on a previously defined category of schemas

in the memory.” Previous research also suggested that incongruity occurs at the individual level and the level of incongruity can be different from individual’s expected beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors (Meyer, 1986). For example, consider the sex appeal of Volvo’s advertising. Since its brand has a strong product image of safety and consumers have been exposed to the image, based on their expectancy, consumers might be surprised when they watched Volvo’s sex appeal ad. In contrast, if consumers did not have any information about Volvo before exposure, they would not be surprised since they did not have any expectation about the ad.

There are two dimensions that lead to congruency and incongruency; expectancy and relevancy. Related to this terms, Lee and Mason (1999) defined expectancy as the extent to which an element of information falls into a previous pattern or example, and suggested that unexpected information leads to more favorable attitude compared to the expected. Relevancy refers to the extent to which an element of information contributes to identifying the primary message (Heckler & Childers, 1992). Unlike previous researches where expectancy and relevancy were the two dimensions that lead to level of incongruency, Heckler and Childers suggest that humor may be another exceptional factor that leads to the information incongruency beyond those two dimensions. With regard to humor and its relationship with incongruency, humor can only be unexpected information (either relevant or irrelevant), whereas unexpected information can be either humorous or not; the humor itself is based on, by nature, unexpectedness (Heckler & Childers, 1992).

Meyers-Levy and Tybout (1989) suggested product evaluations on three different levels of schema (in)congruity; congruity, moderate incongruity, and extreme incongruity. They found that congruent information is easy to comprehend but does not produce arousal whereas extreme incongruent information is hard to comprehend but produces intense arousal. However, moderate

incongruent information is more comprehensible but does not produce as intense arousal as extreme incongruent information does. The author found that moderate incongruent information leads to higher evaluations than congruent and extreme incongruent information.

There have been many researches studying the terms, congruent and incongruent. Novel information that is congruent or incongruent with consumers' established schema can have an effect on their judgment of the information in category based processing (Sujan, Bettman, & Sujan, 1986; Wansink & Ray, 1996).

Traditionally, congruent stimuli have been perceived as being more positive than incongruent stimuli (Fisk & Pavelchak, 1986). Consumers perceive advertisements which are schema-congruent more favorably than schema incongruent advertisements (Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). Furthermore, consumers think of congruent information as relevant (Kamins & Gupta, 1994).

However, Heckler and Childers (1992) found that recall differs from the level of congruency; incongruent information showed higher memorability than congruent information whereas congruent information produced higher recall than incongruent information. In addition, Lee and Mason (1999) found that incongruent information can enhance ad and brand attitudes, as well as, ad attitude confidence (Lee, 2000).

Incongruent information requires mental activity to be comprehended more than congruent information (Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). Moreover, mental activity leads to arousal and stronger affective evaluation (Mandler, 1982). This evaluation can be either positive or negative, and the factors leading this evaluation depend on the consumers' ability and motivation to resolve the incongruity. When the information is resolvable, consumers feel frustration, and this leads to a negative evaluation (Mandler, 1982).

Empirical precedents suggest that a moderate amount of incongruity actually creates a strong positive affect (Meyers-Levy et al., 1989). In a study conducted by Mandler (1982), mildly incongruent stimuli produced a stronger positive affect than congruent or extremely congruent stimuli. Lee and Thorson (2008) also suggest that a moderate incongruent ad had superior purchase intention compared to congruent and extremely incongruent ads. Moreover, the mildness of the positive affect that results from schema congruity, according to Peracchio and Tybout (1996), owes to the fact that it is considered neither noteworthy nor interesting.

Mild incongruity may be considered noteworthy because such consumers can resolve incongruity through association with their prior experiences (Peracchio et al., 1996). Moreover, a moderate amount of incongruity can create a positive attitude toward advertisements of this type, since their unexpectedness arouses interest (Mandler, 1982). In other words, under mild incongruity condition, ad content incongruity generates emotional reactions such as surprise (Alden et al., 2000), which results in higher message involvement (Lee, 2000). This reaction increases memory and affective effect for an ad (Heckler & Childers, 1992; Muehling & Lazcniak, 1988). When consumers encounter mild incongruent information, a need for resolving the incongruent message is created and this produces a positive effect (Meyers-Levy et al., 1989). Specifically, consumers consider the incongruent elements of the ad to be a puzzle; they cannot have negative feelings against it because of their favorability toward puzzles (McQuarrie & Mick, 1999). This provokes a human basic need, a sense of accomplishment, which makes consumers' evaluations of the ad and brand obsolete (Peracchio & Meyers-Levy, 1994). This process leads to positive attitude toward the ad and brand eventually (Alden et al., 2000; Arias-Bolzmann et al., 2000; Lee, 2000; Lee & Mason, 1999).

In contrast, just as an unsolvable puzzle produces irritation and annoyance, extreme incongruity generates negative feelings, such as frustration and helplessness, which leads to unfavorable evaluations of objects since it cannot be resolved through reference to previous experiences and expectations (Meyers-Levy, Louir, & Curren, 1994). This idea can be explained by the terms, expectations and predictions (Mandler, 1982). Comprehending incongruent information may be challenging to consumers; this information requires mental activity to solve (Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). Mandler (1982) suggests that incongruent information may lead to either positive or negative evaluation, and factors that lead those evaluations are consumer's ability and opportunity to resolve that information. However, when it is so incongruent that consumers cannot solve the puzzle, consumers feel frustration which produces a negative evaluation (Mandler, 1982).

Involvement

The term "involvement" has been one of the most popular research topics in social psychology, and, more recently, in consumer behavior. Fundamentally, the concept of product involvement means the degree to which people are interested in a certain brand, or product (Traylor, 1981). There are several definitions of product involvement. Traylor (1981) defined product involvement as a perception that a certain product category is considered important to consumers in terms of life, attitude about themselves, and sense of identity. Krugman (1967) defined product involvement as an individual's recognized importance of the object based on innate needs, values, and interests. Zaichkowsky (1994) also defined product involvement as the extent in which consumers consider that product important in their life.

Cars, for example, have been considered a high-involvement product for consumers (Hupfer & Gardner, 1971). When consumers shop for cars, they usually actively search for

information and purchase a product carefully. On the other hand, when consumers are presented with a buying situation involving toothpaste, they purchase without careful thinking, consideration, or researching. Consistent with this example, it has been stated that “the low involvement consumer not only thinks of the product class as trivial, but he further has little bond to his brand choice (Lastovicka & Gardner, 1977).”

However, the standard to categorize high-involvement and low-involvement products is quite subjective and indefinite. Strictly speaking, any product can be ego involving or uninvolved. Only consumers can make a product meaningful and this is the reason for subjective and imprecise criteria (Traylor, 1981).

Despite the subjective and imprecise criteria for involvement, there have been studies to figure out which factors classify and lead to different level of product involvement. Houston and Rothschild's (1978) found that there are three factors that lead the level of involvement.

- a) Personal factor: inherent interests, values, or needs that motivate one toward the object.
- b) Physical factor: characteristics of the object that cause differentiation and increase interest
- c) Situational factor: something that temporarily increases relevance or interest toward the object

Mitchell (1981) created a fundamental model of involvement and information behavior, stating that “involvement influences information search, information processing, and information saving.” Engel and Blackwell (1982) defined involvement as “the activation of extended problem solving behavior.” Furthermore, Bettman (1979) cited level of involvement as a mediating variable in information search.

As mentioned earlier, a moderate incongruent ad is considered a puzzle, and this provokes consumers' basic needs, solving this question. This process enhances involvement and attitude toward the ad. However, unlike the previous research, Micael et al. (2005) found that consumers view incongruent advertisement as disturbing due to lack of involvement, and this produces low attitude toward the exposed ad. In their research, they used a low involvement product (chocolate bar) as the stimulus. There is a possibility that people will have a different attitude with a high involvement product category compared to with a low involvement product. The previous researches above support the hypotheses of this research, that consumers will consider a moderate incongruent ad an interesting puzzle, putting more effort into interpreting the ad, viewing it not as an obstacle but as intriguing because the moderate incongruent ad is different from consumers' schema. Specifically, as an exposed ad and brand are important to consumers, this high level of involvement leads them to look for more data and spend more time on decision making (Clarke & Belk, 1979). This processing makes subjects put more time and effort into congruent, moderate incongruent, and extreme incongruent ads. As a result, people will not think of a moderate incongruent ad as an obstacle or barrier, instead ad attitude will show higher than with congruent ads. Moderate incongruent ads will be viewed with curiosity, and not as disturbing. (Hans, Nicola & Christine, 2006)

This view stems from the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). The basic principle of this model is that persuasion occurs depending on how much consumers think about the message and whether they can process the exposed message. When they are highly motivated and have the ability to process the message, their likelihood of thinking about it will be high. This type of consumer takes central route and requires more specific information than other consumers. However, when consumers have the motivation but

lack the ability to process a message, they take peripheral route and prefer less information than others.

One important implication of this model for advertising messages is that we need to consider different ways for the best advertising effect according to the level of involvement.

For example, a person who is about to purchase a cell phone (high involvement) may research information about cell phone brands for better decision making. If the information found is reasonable and persuasive compared to other brands, favorable attitudes toward the brand will be produced and it will strongly affect purchase intention (central route). On the other hand, a person who is not thinking of purchasing a new cell phone (low involvement) will not spend time and effort on searching information about cell phone brands and would rather focus on the attractiveness, credibility, or prestige of the product's endorser (peripheral route).

It has been well accepted that when consumers are not highly motivated and involved, peripheral aspects of the ad such as music, background, or endorser become leading influencers of brand attitudes (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983) whereas central aspects of the ad such as message of the ad become the main influencing factor under high involvement conditions of brand attitudes (Petty et al., 1983),

CHAPTER 3 HYPOTHESES

Incongruent Effect on High Involvement Product

DeSarbo and Harshman suggested (1985) that incongruity depends to some extent on the characteristics of the consumers' involvement. Schema incongruity occurs when the associated brand image is so different from the execution of an ad that a link between them is not obviously represented in the existing schema. Such an unexpected stimulus requires greater cognitive effort to resolve the disconfirmation. This is the reason why consumers' involvement is a prerequisite here; the boundary among extreme incongruity, moderate incongruity, and congruity will be obscure if consumers are not motivated and willing to spend time on resolving the incongruity (Peracchio et al., 1996). The major variable that determines consumers' motivation and willingness to process information is their involvement (Andrew, Durvasula, & Akhter, 1990).

In a high involvement situation, as people spend more time and effort on understanding a moderate incongruent ad, they will perceive an incongruent ad as more interesting than as disturbing. Therefore, we can expect that consumers will have a more positive attitude toward the moderate incongruent ad than either with a congruent ad or with an extreme incongruent ad. This will lead to a higher brand attitude (Thorson & Page, 1989; Batra & Ray, 1986; Edell & Burke, 1984; Messmer, 1979; Gresham & Shimp, 1985; Mitchell & Olson, 1981) and eventually increase purchase intention. Since involvement is a key factor of consumer behavior (Muncy & Hunt, 2001), it is worth including purchase intention in research.

In accordance with these assumptions, the following hypotheses were created:

- **Hypothesis 1:** a moderate brand-ad incongruent group will result in more favorable (a) attitude toward the advertisement (Aad), (b) attitude toward the brand (Ab), and (c) higher purchase intention (PI) than either a brand-ad congruent or extreme brand-ad incongruent group.

However, when the incongruent advertising conflicts with ad and brand schemas; consumers will typically compare the information in the ad with the stored information in the brand schema (Micael et al, 2005). To resolve this conflicting ad, consumers will degrade the new information as less credible than the information stored in the brand schema. Therefore, we expect that consumers will rate incongruent ads as less credible than congruent ads.

○ **Hypothesis 2:** Ad credibility (A_c) is higher for brand-congruent ad group than either extreme incongruent group, or moderate incongruent group.

CHAPTER 4 METHOD

Study Design

In terms of ad-brand incongruence, the design of this study used three levels: a brand-congruent ad, a moderate brand-incongruent ad, and an extreme brand-incongruent ad. The degree of congruence was a manipulated variable. The dependent variables were Aad, Ab, Ac and PI.

Participants

Subjects were 91 college students (male 38%, female 62%) which made for cell sizes of approximately 30 subjects. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the treatment conditions (i.e., congruent, moderate incongruent, and extreme incongruent ad). The numbers are presented in Table 4-1.

Pretest

Since the purpose of this study is to know the effect of ad-brand incongruency in real established brands, the brand “iPhone” was chosen for its brand familiarity (established brand), and popularity among subjects.

Focus group interviews were employed to generate feedback on associated images with iPhone. Subjects were asked to answer questions regarding associations that describe the iPhone and those that don't. The questions were as follows: (a) How would you describe the iPhone? (b) What would you say is the opposite image of the iPhone? The most commonly mentioned congruent images were fashionable, representative, modern, young, and multi tasking; the one's that don't are old-fashioned, boring, not smart, non-technological, and unpopular. Each type of association that was most commonly mentioned was quantified with 7-point Likert scales and

rated by 29 new subjects with regard to (a) and (b) above. The 5 congruent associations (representative, modern, young, fashionable and multi tasking) received high scores ($M = 6.43$) and were chosen to make the brand-congruent stimulus. The 5 incongruent associations (unsophisticated, old, simple, cheap, and non-technology) that subjects did not hold with the iPhone received high scores ($M = 1.68$) by all the subjects and were chosen for creating the brand-incongruent stimulus. Mean scores of each five associated image are presented in Table 4-2.

Based on these associated brand images with which the iPhone held and did not hold, 4 incongruent and 4 congruent print ads were created; all information in the 8 ads was identical. Congruent ads were designed based on iPhone's previous print ads since consumers had been exposed to the same kinds of ads and are familiar with those ads. We can assume that consumers have previous expectations about iPhone ads and those kinds of ads are what they expect (congruent ad). Therefore, congruent ads were created focusing on functional (central) aspects (see Appendix C). However, incongruent ads were designed to look unfamiliar to consumers based on the results above (see Table 4-2). As a result, congruent ads were created focusing on peripheral aspects by using endorsers which were not familiar to consumers.

In a pretest, 30 subjects were given the 8 ads and a questionnaire for rating the level of congruency. Thirty subjects rated the fit between the picture and the brands on a 10-point scale. ("How well do the picture and the brand fit together?"). The results verified that most ads were created according to the intention of this study. Mean scores of perceived fit between a picture and a brand are presented in Table 4-3.

At the end of questionnaire, two additional questions were asked to support the right decision in regard to choosing the ads. The questions were as follows: (a) Please pick an ad

wherein the picture and brand are most matched; and (b) Please pick an ad wherein the picture and brand are worst matched. According to the rating results (see Table 4-4), congruent ad 3 and incongruent ad 8 were chosen out of 8 ads.

To choose a moderately incongruent ad, a series of paired-sample t-test were conducted. As a result, ads 3, 7 and 8 were selected to represent the three levels of brand-ad congruence. As shown in Table 4-5, the mean differences among the three congruence conditions for each ad were statistically significant.

Confound and Manipulation Checks

To prevent the results from being confounded by the executions of the ads, this study measured ad attitude for the advertisements in a pretest. Subjects were instructed to rate the chosen ads with a fake brand, SkyCo. No significant difference in Aad was observed between the two pictures ($p > .05$).

Brand awareness and brand usage were also measured as a manipulation check of brand familiarity. One hundred percent of the students were familiar with the iPhone brand, and 30% of students responded that they had bought the brand.

Measures

Subjects were asked to verify their **level of involvement** in this product category. Mcquarrie and Munson's (1992) seven-point semantic differential scale was used in this research since it was the most effective and generalized type of scale, and also easy to administer and score. Those items were as follows: important / unimportant, relevant / irrelevant, means nothing to me / means a lot to me, exciting / unexciting, matters to me / doesn't matter to me, boring / interesting, appealing / unappealing, of no concern to me / of concern to me, dull / neat, and fun / not fun (Cronbach's alpha=.91).

Attitude toward the advertisement was assessed with four bipolar items based on a seven-point scale including bad / good, pleasant / Unpleasant, favorable / unfavorable (Cronbach's alpha=.86). This measure was adapted from MacKenzie and Lutz (1989).

Credibility of the advertisement was assessed with a three-item semantic differential scale adapted from MacKenzie and Lutz (1989). The items include convincing / unconvincing, believable / unbelievable, and biased / unbiased (Cronbach's alpha=.83).

Attitude toward the brand was measured with three items on a seven-point semantic differential. They include good / bad, negative / positive, satisfactory / unsatisfactory (Cronbach's alpha=.92). This measure was adapted from Loken and Ward (1990) and Simonin and Ruth (1998).

Brand purchase intention was gauged using three bipolar items adapted from MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch (1986). They include unlikely to / likely to, willing to / unwilling to, and don't plan to / plan to (Cronbach's alpha=.88).

Table 4-1. Study Design

Brand-Ad congruent level		
Congruence	Moderate Incongruence	Extreme Incongruence
n=32	n=29	n=30

Table 4-2. Mean Scores of Associated images

Statistic	Representative	Modern	Young	Fashionable	Multi-tasking
Mean	6.17	6.63	6.27	6.33	6.73
Standard Deviation	1.21	0.67	0.94	0.96	0.64
Statistic	unsophisticated	Old	Simple	Cheap	non-technology
Mean	1.57	1.47	2.57	1.53	1.27
Standard Deviation	0.82	0.57	1.69	0.63	0.52

Table 4-3. Mean Scores of Perceived Fit

Statistic (Ad #)	Congruent Ads				Incongruent Ads			
	# 1	# 2	# 3	# 4	# 5	# 6	# 7	# 8
Mean	8.71	8.61	8.33	8.04	5.46	3.82	7.46	2.81
Variance	1.99	2.40	4.62	4.92	7.07	7.71	6.41	7.85
Standard Deviation	1.41	1.55	2.15	2.22	2.66	2.78	2.53	2.80

Table 4-4. Percentage of Perceived Fit

Ad #	Response (Most)	% (Most)	Response (Worst)	% (Worst)
1	8	28%	0	0%
2	2	7%	0	0%
3	17	59%	0	0%
4	0	0%	5	17%
5	6	21%	1	3%
6	3	10%	1	3%
7	0	0%	12	40%
8	0	0%	21	70%

Table 4-5. The Results of Paired t-test

Pair	Mean Difference	df	t-Value	p-Value
A-B	0.78	27	2.197	0.037
B-C	4.46	27	7.147	0.000
A-C	5.33	26	7.048	0.000

A = very congruent (#3); B = moderately incongruent (#7); C = extreme incongruent (#8)

CHAPTER 5 RESULTS

Scale Reliability

Scale reliability was tested for the three ads before testing the hypotheses. Each Cronbach's alpha value was rated higher than 0.8. These results show that the scales of this study are highly reliable. The reliability scores are presented in Table 5-1.

Product Involvement

Before the main experiment, all participants were given questions about product involvement. Product involvement showed an overall mean of 5.9 and a median of 6.0, which indicates that most respondents were highly involved in this product category. Mean and median score of product involvement are presented in Table 5-2.

Results of ANOVA analysis

The dependent variables in hypotheses H1 and H2 were tested in an ANOVA. The results of ANOVAs showed that Ad-brand incongruency had a significant effect on all dependent variables; Ac, $F(2, 85) = 23.7, p < .001.$, Aad, $F(2, 86) = 8.7, p < .001.$, Ab, $F(2, 86) = 4.1, p < .03.$, and PI, $F(2, 86) = 3.8, p < .03.$ Those results are shown in Table 5-3, 4, 5, and 6.

Tests of Hypothesis 1(a): the role of a moderate incongruent ad

After checking for significance, the hypotheses were tested with post-hoc tests (Tukey). With regard to Aad, post-hoc tests revealed that both congruent and moderate incongruent ads performed better than extreme incongruent ads. The congruent ad received a mean of 5.71; the moderate incongruent ad received a mean of 5.10; and the extreme incongruent ad received a mean of 4.21. Mean scores of each variable is presented in Table 5-7.

The difference between a congruent ad and an extreme incongruent ad is significant at $p < .001$ (see Table 5-8). Also, the difference between a moderate incongruent and an extreme

incongruent ad is statistically significant at $p < .05$. However, the difference between a congruent and a moderate incongruent ad is not statistically significant ($p = .20$). Thus, this partially supports H1(a): Aad is higher for a moderate incongruent ad than for either a congruent or an extreme incongruent ad.

Tests of Hypothesis 1(b): the role of a moderate incongruent ad

Post-hoc data revealed that a congruent ad performed better than an extreme incongruent ad in terms of Ab. The congruent ad received a mean of 6.06 compared to the value of 5.16 of the extreme incongruent ad (see Table 5-7). The difference is statistically significant at $p < .02$. However, no statistically significant effect was observed between a congruent and a moderate incongruent ad ($p = .43$), or between a moderate incongruent and extreme incongruent ad ($p = .24$). This does not support H1(b): Ab is higher for a moderate incongruent ad than for either a congruent or an extreme incongruent ad (see Table 5-9).

Tests of Hypothesis 1(c): the role of a moderate incongruent ad

When PI was a criterion variable, as shown in Table 12, the mean score for congruent ad ($M = 5.26$) was significantly higher than the mean for extreme incongruent ad ($M = 4.15$, $p < .05$). However, no statistical significance was found between a moderate incongruent and an extreme incongruent ad ($p = .98$), or between a congruent and a moderate incongruent ad ($p = .06$). This therefore does not support H1(c): PI is higher for a moderate incongruent ad than for either a congruent ad or an extreme incongruent ad. The results are presented in Table 5-10.

Tests of Hypothesis 2: the role of a congruent ad

H2 was tested with a mean comparison of Ac among the ads. The results revealed that both congruent and moderate incongruent ads performed better than extreme incongruent ads (see Table 5-11). As shown in Table 5-7, the mean of extreme congruent ad ($M = 4.00$) was

statistically lower than that of congruent ($M = 5.88, p < .001$) or moderate incongruent ad ($M = 5.38, p < .001$). However, no statistically significant difference was found between a congruent ad and a moderate incongruent ad ($p = .18$). This partially supports H2: Ac is higher for brand-congruent ads than for either extreme or moderate incongruent ads.

Table 5-1. Scale Reliability of each group (Cronbach's Alpha)

	Ac	Aad	Ab	PI
Congruent	0.872	0.915	0.910	0.846
Moderate Incongruent	0.948	0.963	0.954	0.938
Extreme Incongruent	0.838	0.964	0.977	0.899

Table 5-2. Mean and Median Score of Product involvement

	Congruence	Moderate Incongruence	Extreme Incongruence
Mean	5.98	5.88	5.88
Median	6.0	6.1	6.05

Table 5-3. Analysis of Variance: Ad-Brand Incongruence Effects on Ac

Factor	SS	Df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	55.76	2	27.88	23.658	.000
Within Groups	100.169	85	1.178		
Total	155.929	87			

Table 5-4. Analysis of Variance: Ad-Brand Incongruence Effects on Aad

Factor	SS	Df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	33.141	2	16.570	8.733	.000
Within Groups	163.183	86	1.897		
Total	196.324	88			

Table 5-5. Analysis of Variance: Ad-Brand Incongruence Effects on Ab

Factor	SS	Df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	11.845	2	5.923	4.113	.020
Within Groups	123.834	86	1.440		
Total	135.679	88			

Table 5-6. Analysis of Variance: Ad-Brand Incongruence Effects on PI

Factor	SS	Df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	22.586	2	11.293	3.771	.027
Within Groups	257.579	86	2.995		
Total	280.165	88			

Table 5-7. Aad, Ab, PI, and Ac Distribution, Means, and Standard Deviations

	n	Aad		Ab		PI		AC	
		mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.
Congruent	30	5.71 ^a	.88	6.06 ^a	.95	5.26 ^a	1.39	5.88 ^a	.86
Moderate incongruent	30	5.10 ^a	1.36	5.67 ^{ab}	1.13	4.23 ^{ab}	1.85	5.38 ^a	1.13
Extreme Incongruent	29	4.21 ^b	1.77	5.16 ^b	1.47	4.15 ^b	1.91	4.00 ^b	1.24

Means that do not share a superscript differ at $p < .05$ level according to Tukey.

Table 5-8. Analysis of Multiple Comparisons (Tukey HSD): Aad

Congruent Level (I)	Congruent Level (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig
1	2	.61	.36	.20
	3	1.49 [*]	.36	.00
2	1	-.61	.36	.20
	3	.88 [*]	.36	.04
3	1	-1.49 [*]	.36	.00
	2	-.88 [*]	.36	.04

1 = Congruent, 2 = Moderate Incongruent, 3 = Extreme Incongruent

Table 5-9. Analysis of Multiple Comparisons (Tukey HSD): Ab

Congruent Level (I)	Congruent Level (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig
1	2	.39	.31	.43
	3	.89*	.31	.01
2	1	-.39	.31	.43
	3	.50	.31	.24
3	1	-.89*	.31	.01
	2	-.50	.31	.24

1 = Congruent, 2 = Moderate Incongruent, 3 = Extreme Incongruent

Table 5-10. Analysis of Multiple Comparisons (Tukey HSD): PI

Congruent Level (I)	Congruent Level (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig
1	2	1.02	.45	.06
	3	1.11*	.45	.04
2	1	-1.02	.45	.06
	3	.08	.45	.98
3	1	-1.11*	.45	.04
	2	-.08	.45	.98

1 = Congruent, 2 = Moderate Incongruent, 3 = Extreme Incongruent

Table 5-11. Analysis of Variance (Tukey HSD): Ac

Congruent Level (I)	Congruent Level (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig
1	2	.50	.28	.18
	3	1.88*	.28	.00
2	1	-.50	.28	.18
	3	1.38*	.28	.00
3	1	-1.88*	.28	.00
	2	-1.38*	.28	.00

1 = Congruent, 2 = Moderate Incongruent, 3 = Extreme Incongruent

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION

The results of this study add to the current understanding of information incongruity in advertising. Previous research has shown that familiar brands have a fragile relationship between Aad and Ab in comparison to unfamiliar brands (Machleit & Wilson, 1988). Moreover, prior research has shown that established brand advertising has less of an effect on Ab (Machleit & Wilson, 1988), and wears out fast (Dahlen, 2001; Tellis, 1997); as a result, consumers lose interest easily in those ads (Machleit et al., 1993). However, this research contradicts those findings. A congruent ad performed better than an extreme incongruent ad in terms of Aad, Ab, PI, and Ac. This difference might have resulted from the brand images of iPhone. Since brands can express consumers' self-image, and this brand has attractive images such as leader, modern, and fashionable, consumers might want to be labeled as such by using an iPhone (McEnally et al., 1999). In this situation, the congruent ad evokes consumers' needs to be viewed with these positive images and this might eventually affect Aad, Ab, PI, and Ac.

In a previous research, Micael et al. (2005) found that Aad and Ac were affected inversely in low involvement product category. However, the results of this study differ from Micael's. A congruent ad and a moderate incongruent ad performed well in terms of Ac and Aad. These results verified that Aad and Ac are affected in the same directions. It is hard to compare this study with Micael's findings, since this study includes one more independent variable, a moderate incongruent factor, and tested under a different product condition. However, it is worth noting that Aad and Ac are affected in the same direction under high involvement product conditions. To understand this difference, we need to focus on the brand schema and involvement. This study used not only a highly involved brand, but also a strongly established brand. These two impacts are so strong that consumers might think of a moderate incongruent ad not only as

believable, but also likable to a certain level. On a practical level, to a certain degree these results can lead advertisers to make their ads different from previous concepts.

The moderate impact of moderate incongruency also differs from the findings of previous studies. Lee et al. (2008) found that moderate incongruent ads increase PI more favorably than either congruent or extreme incongruent ads. However, in this research, there was no statistical significance with regard to PI of moderate incongruent condition. To understand these differences, we need to consider several factors that differ from Micael's previous study. First of all, we need to focus on the fact that they used a celebrity factor as an independent variable. Marketers have used celebrities in advertising as a strong communication strategy (Kamin & Gupta, 1994) since the effectiveness of using celebrities has been proved in several studies (Erdogan, 1999). However, this study did not use a celebrity factor. For that reason, there is a possibility that the results were different from prior researches, which were conducted under different variable conditions. Without endorsement, it seems likely that the process of evaluating the moderate incongruent ads in this research was sometimes not enough to cause physical arousal or a true effect compared to congruent ad ($p = .63$). However, the benefit of resolving moderate incongruency might be perceived as being more rewarding and worthwhile than extreme incongruency because a moderate level of expectancy disconfirmation could be addressed by assimilation or accommodation to prior knowledge structure (Peracchio et al., 1996). It seems likely that such resolution does not happen when the level of the mismatch is extreme, which, in this study, led to the most negative evaluations of the stimuli. Second, the difference from this prior research might have resulted from the mean score and level of incongruency. In Lee's (2008) research, the mean of perceived fit was 3.33 in a moderate incongruent ad, whereas that of this study was 7.46. In addition, they did not test the level of

involvement. Sometimes using a high involvement product does not mean subjects are highly involved in that product category. Someone may not care about the product whereas the other one is involved the product category. Therefore, we can assume that these different conditions might lead to different results.

Considering the mean scores of the three ads in this study, a congruent ad is the one that shows the highest scores in every dimension (see Figure 6-1,2,3, and 4). In this study, we proved prior theories that high Aad leads to high Ab and PI (Thorson & Page, 1989; Batra & Ray, 1986; Edell & Burke, 1984; Messmer, 1979; Gresham & Shimp, 1985; Mitchell & Olson, 1981). One factor that can explain this result is that we used an established brand, iPhone, whereas most studies in the area have used fictitious brands.

In sum, the implications of this study are twofold. First, this study is related to the discovery of boundary conditions. We have found that even though the best effect occurs when established brands are consistent with their advertising image, we also found that a moderate incongruent ad can also increase Aad. This represents that a moderate level of incongruency is capable of reducing the advertising wear-out effect by challenging consumers' expectations unless it is extremely incongruent; the brands can be less consistent in their advertising in order to create interest for Aad. This can be useful for advertisers. For example, advertisers can make ads that differ from either their previous advertising concept or their competing ads in the same product category to enhance their ad attitude, and to catch consumers' attention; by challenging consumers' expectation, advertising can become more interesting.

Second, we proved that less mismatch between an ad and the brand image can affect Ac in a positive way. Therefore, advertisers need not worry about mismatching the brand image with inconsistent advertising unless it is extremely incongruent. As mentioned above, a mild

incongruent ad can lead to positive effect unless it is too extreme. However, incongruent information requires consumers' needs for resolution to generate positive effect (Meyers-Levy et al., 1989). To be an enjoyable puzzle, incongruent information needs to be resolvable otherwise, it will produce frustration instead of a sense of accomplishment.

In this study, we used a dependent variable, Ac, because incongruent ads should be in contrast to associations of well-known and established brands (Micael et al., 2005). However, the noteworthy thing is that Ac can be increased by both congruent and moderate incongruent ads. This is an interesting result because it contradicts Micael's (2005) findings; Ac worked in opposite directions on ad attitude under the incongruent condition. This study proved that Ac can be increased when the incongruent level is moderate in the high involvement condition.

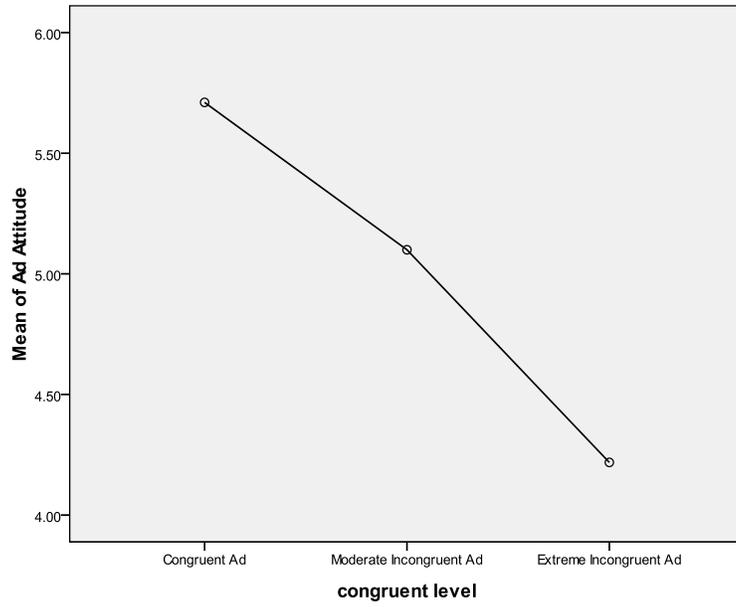


Figure 6-1. Aad by Congruent Level

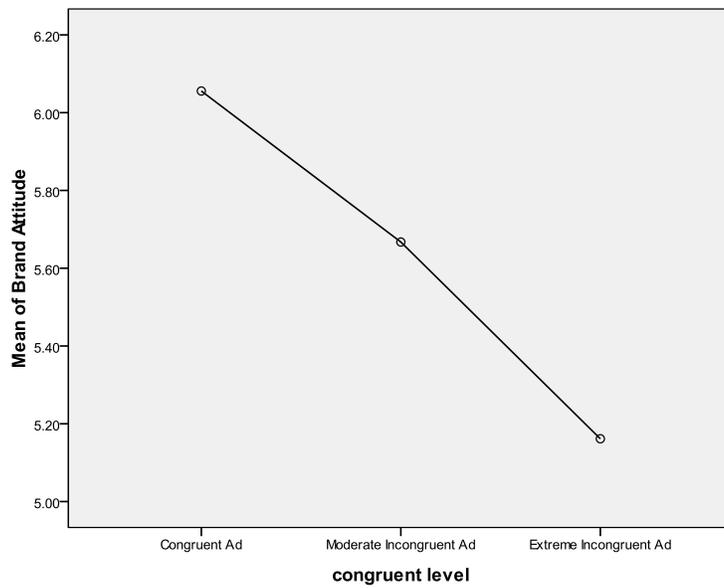


Figure 6-2. Ab by Congruent Level

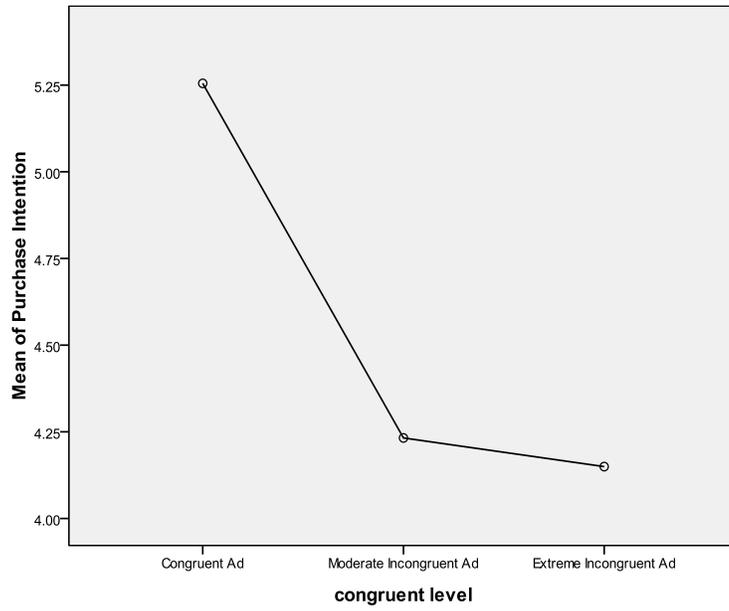


Figure 6-3. PI by Congruent Level

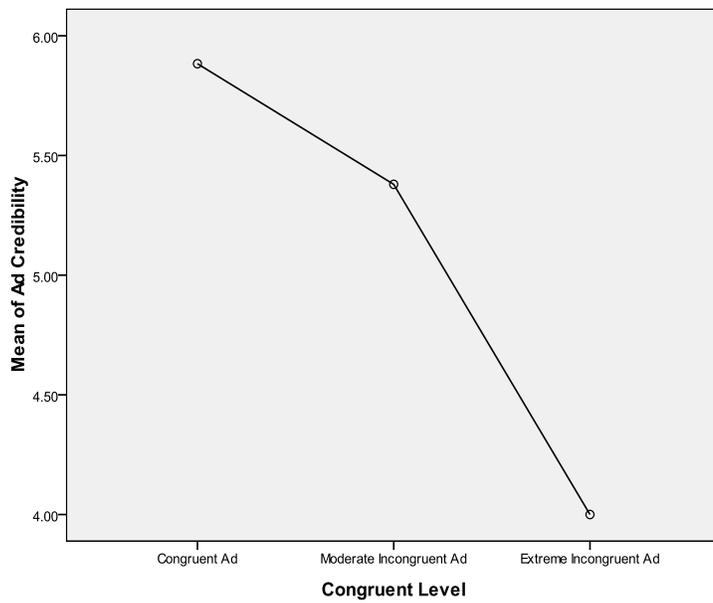


Figure 6-4. Ac by Congruent Level

CHATER 7 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

There are some important limitations in this research that need to be discussed and used as directions for further research on information incongruency between ads and brands. One limitation is that we used only one established brand as a stimulus, which differs from many studies of advertising. Even though the iPhone is representative of a high-involvement product, the level of brand schema can be more or less developed from different brand. Let us take another cell phone brand, LG, for example – consumers may have different levels of expectation and involvement in regard to LG. In other words, in spite of the fact that LG belongs to the high-involvement product category, like iPhone, it is difficult to say that consumers have the same knowledge and expectations as they do iPhone. This can be a leading factor in making the results different. Keller (1993) supports this assumption; consumers feel a greater motivation to process ad information for strongly established brands because of their accessibility and salience. If those conditions are different, apparently, the result will be changed under different conditions.

Furthermore, as with all studies, there is a sampling limitation. The first concern is the ecological validity of the viewing situation. Subjects viewed the ads individually under different conditions; in addition, the number of individuals in each group was as large as 30. Subjects knew they would be asked questions after viewing the ads. Obviously, this unrealistic environment may have changed the way in which the subjects processed the ads; this setting may force a deeper processing of ads than normal conditions. Moreover, with regard to demographics, almost all the participants were undergraduate students aged 18 to 30. Thus, it is hard to apply the study results to consumers over 30 years old. Moreover, the percentage of male participants was different from that of females (male: 38%; female: 62%). There is a gender difference with regard to every respect. Females rated higher on Aad, Ab, and product involvement than male did; whereas

males rated higher on PI than females did (see Table 7-1). Although no statistically significant difference was observed between males and females, there is a likelihood that the element of gender affects the results if the number of individuals of each gender is the same. In other words, if the study group was larger and more diversified, then the results could be different. Moreover, if we had more subjects who rated low on the product involvement scale, then we could re-design the level of involvement as the second independent variable and observe 2 x 3 interaction results (Involvement level x Congruent level). It is therefore suggested that future research use a more natural viewing environment and realistic sample size.

Another limitation of the present study is that we measured the response to one single ad exposure. It is hard to say that consumers' attitude is affected by only one exposure. In real life, consumers are not only exposed to many different kinds of ads, but also disclosed to the same ad more than once. For those reasons, it is difficult for advertisers to drive consumers' action through these continuous ad exposures. This can be an explanation for PI results in this research. As mentioned above, one exposure may not enough to lead a physical action. For example, although a moderate incongruent ad was not statistically significant in this research ($p > .05$), there is a possibility that the results would be different under several exposures.

Finally, several measurement issues must be addressed. Aad was measured right before Ab. Edell and Burke (1986) speculated that taking similar attitude measures can overstate their actual correlation. Moreover, researchers have found that both brand beliefs and Aad are mediators of Ab (Mitchell & Olson, 1981). Even though this study did not test brand beliefs, it was found that the exclusion of brand beliefs may lead to the overvaluing of the size of the Aad-Ab relationship (Mittal, 1990). Brand beliefs should, for this reason, be included in future research.

Table 7-1. Mean of Gender Distributions

	Aad	Ab	PI	Ac	Product Involvement
Male	4.95	5.56	4.72	4.97	5.57
Female	5.07	5.69	4.44	5.16	6.14

APPENDIX A
SAMPLE OF PRETEST QUESTIONNAIRE

For the statements below, please check the circle corresponding to your agreement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Leader	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Modern	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Young	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fashionable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Multi-tasking	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

For the statements below, please check the circle corresponding to your agreement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Old	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Simple	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Unsophisticated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cheap	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Non-tech	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX B
SAMPLE OF MAIN TEST QUESTIONNAIRES

Please answer the following questions by checking the circle that you feel best represents your feelings on the issue presented in the question.

Using each of the following adjectives, please indicate how you feel about **cell phone**? Please click the button that reflects your opinion.

Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Important
Irrelevant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Relevant
Means nothing to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Means a lot to me
Unexciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
Doesn't matter to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Matters to me
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
Unappealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Appealing
Of no concern to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Of concern to me
Dull	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Neat
Not fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fun

Please review the following ad. Take as much time as you need.

(See Advertisements in Appendix C)

Considering your reaction to the ad you just saw, **please identify your feeling about the ad.**

Unconvincing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Convincing
Unbelievable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Believable
Biased	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unbiased

Considering your reaction to the ad you just saw, for each pair of words below, please select the corresponding button that accurately **describes your evaluation of the ad.**

Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Favorable
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant

Considering your reaction to the brand in an ad you just saw, for each pair of words below, please select the corresponding button that accurately **describes your evaluation of the brand.**

Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Positive
Unsatisfactory	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Satisfactory

After seeing the ad, how likely would you purchase **the iPhone** in the future?

Please click the button that reflects your opinion.

Unlikely to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likely to
Unwilling to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Willing to
Don't plan to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Plan to

APPENDIX C
CONGRUENT AND INCONGRUENT ADS



Congruent ad #1



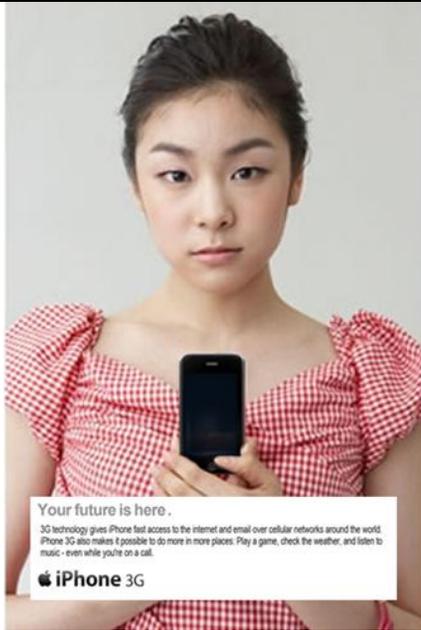
Congruent ad #2



Congruent ad #3



Congruent ad #4



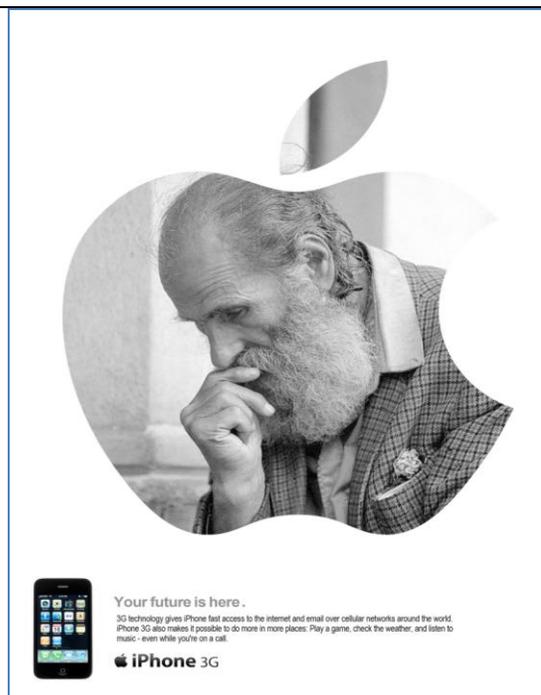
Incongruent ad #5



Incongruent ad #6



Incongruent ad #7



Incongruent ad #8

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Seoungchul Lee was born in South Korea. He grew up mostly in Seoul, graduating from Sangmoon High School in 2000. He earned his B.S. in advertising from Kookmin University. He also earned his M.A. in advertising from University of Florida in 2010. He served in the military between 2005 and 2007 in the Republic of Korea Army as a public affairs officer and cyber journalist.