2020

Associations of Protective and Acquisitive Self-monitoring with Consumer Attitudes and Behaviors

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ASSOCIATIONS OF PROTECTIVE AND ACQUISITIVE SELF-MONITORING WITH CONSUMER ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS

by

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A thesis submitted to the Department of Psychology

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science in Psychological Science

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH FLORIDA

COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

May, 2020

THESIS/DISSERTATION CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

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Dr. Christopher Leone, Second Reader	04/27/2020 Date
Dr. Lori Lange, Department Chair	04/28/2020 Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge my thesis advisor, Dr. Paul Fuglestad. I am very grateful for the time he set aside to meet with me to give advice on my research over the past two years. I am especially thankful for his thorough comments, critiques, and edits of my work. I could not have asked for a better mentor. I would also like to acknowledge my second reader, Dr. Christopher Leone. His advice and insightful suggestions helped to shape the experimental research project and in the preparation of the final manuscript. Last, I would like to thank UNF's Student Government for helping to fund the dissemination of my thesis research.

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Abstract

Acquisitive self-monitors are motivated by gaining social standing (getting ahead, standing out), whereas protective self-monitors are driven by avoiding social disapproval (getting along, blending in; Wolfe et al., 1986). Extending prior research on these orientations and their associations with consumer attitudes and behaviors, participants in Studies 1a (MTurk; $N = 156$) and 1b (undergraduates; $N = 143$) completed the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974) and various consumer scales. In these two studies, regression results revealed support for the hypotheses that protective self-monitoring was related to communal consumerism, socially-conscious consumerism, frugality, and conspicuous consumption, whereas agentic consumerism and self-interested values were related to acquisitive self-monitoring. Study 2 (MTurk; $N = 275$) used experimental manipulation of advertisements to examine differential ad appeals tailored to protective, acquisitive, and low self-monitoring (bivariate model). Moderation analyses showed protective self-monitoring to be a significant predictor of protective ad preference, whereas no specific ad preferences were found with acquisitive self-monitoring. Overall, results suggest that associations of self-monitoring and consumer behaviors are driven by protective self-monitoring rather than acquisitive self-monitoring. Implications (e.g., market research), limitations (e.g., ad strength, convenience samples), and future directions (e.g., examining multivariate appeals for low self-monitoring) are discussed.

Keywords: self-monitoring, acquisitive self-monitoring, protective self-monitoring, consumer behaviors, consumer attitudes

Associations of Protective and Acquisitive Self-monitoring with Consumer Attitudes and Behaviors

Self-monitoring is described as using situational cues to monitor one's expression of public behaviors or appearances (Snyder, 1974). Individuals differ in the degree to which they engage in the control of their self-expression. In other words, some people use expressive management to display socially appropriate behaviors that are tailored to the situation, whereas others remain true to themselves without changing their behavior.

The construct of self-monitoring is a significant individual-difference variable that has been used to investigate multiple subject areas (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2009). One such area is that of consumer behavior. Because advertising strategies vary on the specific features or details of the advertised product, it is expected that a person's self-monitoring propensity will affect the way those advertisements appeal to them (DeBono, 2006). The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of self-monitoring on evaluations of differing types of consumer behaviors and advertisement appeals.

Self-monitoring

According to Snyder (1974), people may control or monitor their self-presentation and how they express themselves in public. The intention of this self-monitoring may be to communicate their emotional state by using expressive behavior to hide an inappropriate reaction by appearing to behave in a more appropriate way. Someone who monitors their self-presentation would be acutely aware of what public behaviors are appropriate (Snyder, 1974). This presentation monitoring can be measured using the Self-Monitoring Scale. Individuals vary

between high and low ends of the spectrum on the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974; Snyder & Gangestad, 1986), and high and low self-monitors differ in their approach to situational and social contexts. Based on their higher scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale, high self-monitors are described as skilled in adjusting their self-presentations to fit the situation in which they find themselves. They concern themselves with the image they wish to project upon others in order to enhance their public personas. These shifts in presentation result from their awareness of behavior cues that signal socially-appropriate behavior (O'Cass, 2000).

As demonstrated from their lower scores on the Self-Monitoring Scale, low self-monitors are described as being less concerned with changing their behavior to fit the situation. Instead, they usually display high levels of consistency between their public behaviors and their inner values and character. As a result, they typically show little variation between their private and public selves as they depend on their inner attitudes and dispositions to guide them in their actions (DeBono, 2006). Individuals who are low self-monitors tend to lack consideration for social cues due to their devotion to their own personal values (O'Cass, 2000).

Self-monitoring as a Multidimensional Construct

It has long been argued that self-monitoring should be considered a multi-dimensional construct (Arkin, 1980; Wolfe et al., 1986; Celuch & Slama, 1995; Avia et al., 1998). Using factor analyses and item response theory, Wilmot et al. (2016) demonstrated that the traditional univariate Self-Monitoring Scale can indeed be divided into a multidimensional construct. That is, instead of being described as either high or low in self-monitoring, individuals are thought by some to be better understood in terms that describe them as high or low in *acquisitive* self-monitoring and high or low in *protective* self-monitoring. These two dimensions were found to be uncorrelated, which suggests that they should be separately assessed and conceptualized

(Wilmot et al., 2016). Furthermore, these differing factors of the Self-Monitoring Scale display distinct relationships with facets of the NEO Personality Inventory (McCrae & Costa, 1985) that measures the Big Five personality dimensions. Therefore, the view that there are two separate orientations within the Self-Monitoring Scale is supported and demonstrates that those orientations could align with the Big Five framework.

According to Slama and Celuch (1995), acquisitive and protective dimensions of self-monitoring are defined by the person's underlying motives to self-monitor. Protective self-monitors avoid negative social evaluation by displaying appeasing social behaviors that help them blend in with the crowd. For people who chronically adopt a protective self-monitoring style, factors such as displaying shyness, conformity, modesty, restraint, and having a generally neutral outlook are typical. In contrast, people who assume an acquisitive self-monitoring style are motivated to stand out from the crowd. They are described as displaying higher self-confidence and more self-esteem. These protective and acquisitive self-monitoring styles have been labeled "getting along" and "getting ahead," respectively, where "getting along" is driven by the need to avoid social disapproval and "getting ahead" is motivated by aspirations to obtain control, power, and status (Slama & Celuch, 1995). However, some past findings that show "getting along" may be a way to "get ahead." A review by Day and Schleicher (2006) suggests that because high self-monitors are able to be viewed as more likeable than their low self-monitoring counterparts, they are more likely to "get along." Thus, "getting along" may facilitate advancements to upper management or "getting ahead" in the workplace.

Within the subject of personality psychology, self-monitoring as a multi-dimensional construct can be integrated into other personality models. One such model is the Five-Factor Model (FFM), or the Big Five, which comprises the areas of Extraversion, Agreeableness,

Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness/Intellect. Individuals differ in dispositional traits along these five dimensions. According to Deyoung (2006), these domains have often previously been thought to be orthogonal and to be the highest, most general level of hierarchical personality traits. However, correlational evidence among the Big Five has demonstrated that they are not orthogonal, but show a higher-order factor explanation that can be described as the metatraits of Plasticity and Stability (Avia et al., 1998; Deyoung, 2006). Extraversion and Openness/Intellect compose the metatrait of Plasticity and encompasses exploration and engagement with new information. The metatrait of Stability is composed of Emotional Stability (Neuroticism reversed), Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness and seems to include stable maintenance of psychological functioning (Wilmot et al., 2016).

Using the scales developed by Wilmot et al. (2016), acquisitive and protective self-monitoring dimensions have been further analyzed to reveal their associations within the Big Five. Acquisitive self-monitoring has a strong positive relation to the metatrait Plasticity (Extraversion and Openness/Intellect), whereas protective self-monitoring has a moderate negative relation to the metatrait Stability (Neuroticism, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness) (Avia et al., 1998; Wilmot et al., 2016; Wolf, Spinath, Riemann, & Angleitner, 2009). That is, those high in protective self-monitoring were found to be lower in stability.

These metatraits have been linked to behaviors related to biological factors such as neurotransmitter activity. The Plasticity metatrait has been shown to relate to activation of the dopaminergic system that releases the neurotransmitter dopamine, which is related to certain behaviors such as social behavioral engagement and leadership that typify the acquisitive self-monitoring behavioral style (DeYoung, 2006; Kohls et al., 2013). Stability has been linked to the neurotransmitter serotonin. Lower levels of serotonin have been linked to being low in the

Stability metatrait, which has been associated with behavioral restraint and responsiveness to other people (DeYoung, 2006; Kohls et al., 2013). Thus, lower levels of serotonin can be seen as contributing to the dominant behavior traits in protective self-monitors. The connection between the Stability metatrait and protective self-monitoring, however, is somewhat weaker than Plasticity and acquisitive self-monitoring.

Self-monitoring and Consumer Behavior

Although there is an abundance of research on self-monitoring, the study of self-monitoring and its relation to consumer behavior is somewhat limited, especially with respect to the acquisitive and protective types of self-monitoring. Advertisers use varying types of techniques (i.e., attractive spokespeople, humor) that are meant to influence the general public's opinion of the products or companies being advertised (DeBono, 2006). In general, advertisements usually emphasize two different types of products characteristics. These either appeal to the image associated with the product or the quality of the product itself. "Soft sell" ads focus on the image obtained when using the product or the types of feedback we can expect to receive from the public when we use or wear the products. "Hard sell" ads focus on the product's attributes or utilitarian values while trying to persuade us of its high performance (DeBono, 2006). Therefore, considering a person's individual dispositions, such as self-monitoring propensity, may be a better persuasive strategy than appealing to a generalized audience.

High self-monitors have a fundamental and underlying need to earn social approval. As stated by Fuglestad & Snyder (2010), relative to low self-monitors, high self-monitors are more likely to place more emphasis on social status. One way to gain status among peers is through purchasing high-end consumer goods. Status-seeking compels high self-monitors to perceive more value in wealth and luxury (Rose & DeJesus, 2007). Rose and DeJesus (2007) found that

high self-monitors may be more prone than low self-monitors to interpret the consumption of material goods as an avenue toward status or social acceptance. A status-conscious consumer's desire to own conspicuous or impressive possessions is determined by their social circle in that they mostly concern themselves with how they appear in their social relationships. Their consumption for status enhancement involves purchasing to increase their perceived status and thus is a significant influence on the types of products purchased (O'Cass & McEwen, 2004). Since high self-monitors are highly aware of appearance and status, they may place more value on conspicuously consuming products to fit into the situation at hand. This consumption-based motivation should therefore lead to higher appraisals of wealth and luxury due to the attachment of higher value to goods and services than someone who is a low self-monitor (Rose & DeJesus, 2007). In contrast, low self-monitors may be more inclined to establish relationships that are based on equal status, trust, and authenticity in order to promote closeness and trust (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2010). Consequently, low self-monitors would not base their product consumption on gaining status. Instead, low self-monitors might respond more favorably to advertisements emphasizing the quality of the product that reflect the consistency between what the product purports to be and how that product actually performs (DeBono, 2006).

Snyder and Debono (1985) conducted a series of studies using two types of ads that either showed an image enhancement when using the product or gave details about quality of the product itself. Results showed that high self-monitoring individuals were more likely to approve of the image-enhancement ads, and, conversely, that low self-monitoring individuals were more likely to prefer the quality-based ads. However, these results were only strong for specific types of products, which suggests that self-monitoring and its relationship with perception of advertisements may be a more complicated one than was originally assumed. Consequently,

replications of these studies revealed mixed results. For instance, Lennon et al. (1988) found no significant relationship between and individual's self-monitoring tendency and the price that person would be willing to pay for image-oriented or quality-based products. Another replication study done by Zuckerman et al. (1988) found results to be in line with the expected findings, but results lacked statistical significance (DeBono, 2006).

The reason for the inconsistencies in the literature may be due to some underlying differences in a person's motivations for self-monitoring. Individuals who possess certain fundamental motives and therefore adopt certain self-monitoring styles (e.g., acquisitive or protective self-monitoring) may have specific reactions to different types of advertising or when evaluating products. A study by Slama and Celuch (1995) revealed that the effectiveness of different types of advertisements depended on the person's specific self-monitoring motives. Specifically, those who were acquisitive self-monitors were more receptive to ads that portrayed people using products to gain a social advantage, such as when a brand of alcohol was paired with people engaged in evocative romance. Since acquisitive high self-monitors are likely to purchase products for status purposes, they may be more interested in appeals that feature someone in power or engaging in risk taking to obtain social advantage. However, protective self-monitors were more receptive to ads that appealed to their avoidance of social risk by pairing a product with people who were engaged in activities that allowed them to conform and fit in with the crowd (Slama & Celuch, 1995).

Present Investigation

The following studies were designed to investigate how individuals lower and higher in acquisitive and protective self-monitoring would vary in their consumer attitudes, motivations, and behaviors, and how they would respond to and evaluate products featured in various types of

advertising. All methods and procedures for all studies were approved by the IRB at the University of North Florida.

Studies 1a and 1b examined general associations of acquisitive and protective self-monitoring with consumer attitudes, motivations, and behaviors. It was predicted that protective self-monitoring would be positively related to consumer orientations regarding fitting in (communal consumerism), getting along (socially-conscious consumerism), and avoiding social disapproval for their purchases (conspicuous consumption). Acquisitive self-monitoring was hypothesized to relate positively to consumer orientations concerning standing out from others (agentic consumerism), exhibitionism/bragging consumption (consumer arrogance), consumption to show prestige (status consumption), and consumption to show power and wealth (self-interested values). Acquisitive self-monitoring was also predicted to be related negatively to social justice/equality (altruistic values) due to a tendency to have attitudes reflecting self-interest and gaining social standing. It was also hypothesized that both protective and acquisitive self-monitoring would be negatively related to frugality since increased consumption should enhance their image or their ability to fit in.

Study 2 experimentally examined whether specific advertisements would have differential appeal based on acquisitive and/or protective self-monitoring orientations. It was expected that individuals lower in acquisitive and protective self-monitoring would show preference for advertisements which emphasized the quality or value of the product. It was also expected that those higher in acquisitive self-monitoring would prefer advertisements which emphasized the product's ability to help them gain social standing. Additionally, it was predicted that individuals higher in protective self-monitoring would show preference toward

advertisements which emphasized the product's ability to help them fit in and avoid social disapproval.

Studies 1a and 1b

Method

Participants

In Study 1a, 198 workers participated from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Participants ranged in age from 19 to 68, with a mean age of 35. The gender of the participants consisted of 45% males and 55% females. The ethnic background of the participants was 70% Caucasian, 10% Hispanic, 9% African American, 3% Native American, 4% Asian, and 4% of participants identified as multiracial or other. Participants received $1.00 for completing the study. Participants that completed the study in less than five minutes (n = 42) were excluded from analysis to ensure accuracy of responses.

In Study 1b, 143 students participated from the University of North Florida's SONA Psychology Research Participation System. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 46, with a mean age of 21. The gender of the participants consisted of 84% females and 16% males. The ethnic background of the participants was 62% Caucasian, 10% Hispanic, 11% African American, 7% Asian, and 10% of participants identified as multiracial or other. Participants received course credit for their participation.

Measures

Studies 1a and 1 used eight scales administered as self-evaluation surveys that measured consumer behavioral styles and values. These scales were established in prior literature and were used in order to draw meaning from the field within each construct. There is evidence of internal reliability, test-retest reliability, construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity

in the scales used in these studies. Internal reliability measures consistency among scores on a scale between items (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). Internal reliability of a scale is demonstrated by high Cronbach's alpha calculations. Test-retest reliability is evident when the results of a measure are consistent every time that measure is used (Morling, 2015). Construct validity is established by the ability of the scale to measure what it intends to measure (Shadish et al., 2002). Scales that have convergent validity demonstrate a correlation and similarity of scores on separate measures of the same/similar construct (Shadish et al., 2002). Conversely, discriminant validity is demonstrated by a dissimilarity of scores on different measures of different constructs that are thought to differ from each other (Shadish et al., 2002). See Table 1 for reliabilities of all scales used in Study 1.

Self-monitoring

Participants' self-monitoring tendencies were measured with the 25-item Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS; Snyder, 1974). Based on recommendations by Wilmot et al. (2016), a Likert-type response scale was used, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Snyder (1974) established construct, convergent, and discriminant validity on the SMS and also found a test-retest reliability of .83. Many researchers have used this scale and have found a minimum Cronbach's alpha of .70 (Snyder, 1974; O'Cass, 2000; Yates & Noyes, 2007; Rose et al., 2007; Oyamot et al., 2010; Penget al., 2012; Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2018).

Acquisitive and protective self-monitoring were measured using the revision to the Snyder (1974) Self-Monitoring Scale by Wilmot et al. (2017), consisting of 13 items scaled from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The acquisitive self-monitoring scale consists of six items such as "I would probably make a good actor" and "I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information." The protective self-monitoring scale

consists of seven items such as “When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues” and “In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.” Wilmot et al. (2017) created these scales using re-analysis of the original self-monitoring scale into a bivariate model and found them to have Cronbach’s alphas ranging from .61 to .77. Wilmot et al. (2017) established construct validity for both the acquisitive and protective self-monitoring scales.

Agentic and Communal Consumerism

Agentic and communal consumerism were measured using the Consumer Motivation Scale that consists of nine items scaled from 1 (*not important to me*) to 5 (*extremely important to me*) (Friedman et al., 2016). The Agentic and Communal Scales were also found to converge with measures of their respective areas and to be reasonably discriminating. Internal consistencies were found of 0.83 and 0.88, respectively (Friedman et al. 2016).

Consumer Arrogance

Consumer arrogance was measured using 19 items scaled from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) (Ruvio & Shoham, 2016). Construct validity, convergent, and discriminant validity of the Consumer Arrogance Scale were established by Ruvio and Shoham (2016). This scale was reported to have an internal consistency range from .89 to .93 across six studies and within numerous cultures.

Socially-conscious Consumerism and Frugality

Consumer social consciousness and frugality behaviors were measured using 12 items scaled from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) (Pepper et al., 2011). Pepper et al. (2011) established convergent and discriminant validity of the Social Consciousness and Frugality scales and found Cronbach’s alphas of .78 and .77, respectively.

Status Consumption and Conspicuous Consumption

Consumer status consumption and conspicuous consumption were measured using 12 items scaled from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) (O'Cass & McEwen, 2004). O'Cass and McEwen (2004) established convergent and discriminant validity of the both Status and Conspicuous Consumption tendency scales and found them to have reliabilities of .85 and .87, respectively.

Consumer Values Orientation

Altruistic and self-interested values were measured using the Consumer Values Orientation scale that consists of 13 items scaled from 1 (*opposed to my values*) to 5 (*of supreme importance*) (de Groot & Steg, 2008). de Groot and Steg (2008) reported an average reliability finding of .73 on the Values Orientation Scale and found convergent and discriminant validity for each subscale.

With the exception of the acquisitive self-monitoring (Cronbach's $\alpha = .57$) and frugality scales (Cronbach's $\alpha = .67$), reliability calculations in Study 1a exceeded 0.7 for each scale, indicating good internal consistency. Likewise, with the exception of the acquisitive self-monitoring and (Cronbach's $\alpha = .67$) and frugality scales (Cronbach's $\alpha = .58$), reliability calculations in Study 1b exceeded 0.7 for all scales, indicating good internal consistency. The distributions for all variables were generally normal (MTurk sample: skew indices $< \pm 0.7$, kurtosis indices $< \pm 1.5$; undergraduate sample: skew indices $< \pm 0.7$, kurtosis indices $< \pm 1.1$). Table 1 shows all bivariate associations and descriptive statistics for Studies 1a/1b.

Procedure

Study 1a was made available using Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) by posting a link that was connected to a Qualtrics survey. Study 1b was made available using the University

of North Florida's SONA Psychology Research Participation System by posting a link that was connected to a Qualtrics survey. Participants clicked the link and were taken to the Qualtrics survey and were informed that their answers would remain confidential and that no personal information would be used from this study. They were given an opportunity to read a consent form to decide whether to participate in the study. After participants consented that they were over the age of 18, they were presented with the aforementioned scales. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they disagreed or agreed with each statement as it applied to them. The order of the sets of questions was randomized by the Qualtrics software.

Results and Discussion

A post-hoc sensitivity analysis was conducted for Studies 1a and 1b to determine the magnitude of associations that could be detected with .80 power. Using protective and acquisitive self-monitoring as predictors and a two-tailed significance set at .05, Study 1a could detect a multiple regression single coefficient with an effect size of $f^2 = .051$ (partial $R^2 = .049$), indicating a small to medium effect. Study 1b could detect an effect size of $f^2 = .056$ (partial $R^2 = .053$), indicating a small to medium effect.

Regression analyses using both acquisitive and protective self-monitoring as predictors were conducted for Studies 1a and 1b to evaluate the unique associations of acquisitive and protective self-monitoring with consumer scales. Age and gender were controlled for in the analyses. As shown in Table 2, agentic consumerism, communal consumerism, consumer arrogance, socially-conscious consumerism, frugality, conspicuous consumption, status consumption, and self-interested values were found to be significantly related to protective self-monitoring in the MTurk sample. Communal consumerism, consumer arrogance, conspicuous consumption, status consumption, and self-interested values were all found to be significantly

related to acquisitive self-monitoring. In general, these results supported expectations that protective self-monitoring would be related to communal consumerism, socially-conscious consumerism, frugality, and conspicuous consumption. Unexpectedly, protective self-monitoring was also related to status consumption, agentic consumerism, and consumer arrogance, which were expected to be more related to acquisitive self-monitoring due to their relation to social standing and expectations in previous literature (e.g., Slama & Celuch, 1995).

Table 3 demonstrates that conspicuous consumption, status consumption, and frugality were significantly related to protective self-monitoring in the student sample, as expected. Unexpectedly, protective self-monitoring was not related to communal or socially conscious consumerism. As expected, agentic consumerism and self-interested values were found to be significantly related to acquisitive self-monitoring. Unexpectedly, acquisitive self-monitoring was not related to status consumption or consumer arrogance. Also, the positive association of acquisitive self-monitoring with socially conscious consumerism was not expected. These unexpected results differ from previous findings and expectations on acquisitive and protective self-monitoring (e.g., Celuch & Slama, 1995).

Study 2

Studies 1a and 1b examined which consumer attitudes and behaviors were related to protective and acquisitive self-monitoring. The above findings indicate that protective self-monitoring was associated with consumer attitudes and behaviors related to belongingness and image-related concerns. Although acquisitive self-monitoring was also associated with these concerns (albeit to a lesser extent), it was also associated with self-interest and agency. Study 2 experimentally examined how acquisitive and protective self-monitoring would influence how

people responded to advertisements that emphasized either the product's quality or function, the product's ability to enhance belongingness, or social advancement and status.

Method

Participants and Procedure

The participants from Study 2 were sampled from MTurk (N = 307). The demographic makeup of the participants ranged from 21 to 78 in age, with a mean age of 36 years old. The gender of the participants consisted of 66% males and 34% females. The ethnic background of the participants was 66% Caucasian, 8% Hispanic, 19% African American, 0.7% Asian, and 6% of participants identified as multiracial or other. The participants were sampled by voluntary sign up on the MTurk website and were given monetary compensation in the amount of $1.00. Participants that completed the study in less than four minutes (n = 32) were excluded from analysis to ensure accuracy of responses. After consenting to be in the study, participants completed the Self-Monitoring Scale and were then randomly assigned to one of three conditions: advertisements with slogans tailored to either high acquisitive (status/image oriented), high protective (oriented toward avoiding social disapproval), or low self-monitors (quality oriented). The low self-monitoring stimuli are tailored to appeal in general to the bivariate model of low self-monitoring. After evaluating the advertisements, participants completed behavioral questions related to the products, manipulation checks, and demographics.

Measures and Materials

Self-monitoring

Participants completed the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974), using 25 items scaled from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Acquisitive (Cronbach's α = .68) and protective

(Cronbach's α = .80) scales were again computed. Table 4 shows the bivariate associations between study variables and descriptive statistics.

Advertisements

Participants were assigned to one of three conditions and viewed advertisements for three different types of products: Coca-Cola soft drinks, Toyota Cars, and Don Julio Tequila. With the exception of the slogan that employed an emphasis for each type of self-monitoring (see Appendices), the graphic content was the same for the Don Julio and Toyota products. The Coke ads each had different slogans and graphics. The order of products was randomized within each condition.

Manipulation checks were used to determine whether participants perceived the advertisements in the intended manner. Participants rated the extent to which the ads conveyed belongingness or acceptance, status or social advancement, and function or characteristics of the product (1 – *not at all* to 5 – *a great deal*). Experimental condition significantly affected ratings for whether the ads conveyed the function of the product, $F(2, 272) = 5.13$, $p = .006$. Participants in the low self-monitoring condition ($M = 4.14$, $SD = .98$, $p = .002$) and the acquisitive condition ($M = 3.97$, $SD = .98$, $p = .04$) perceived the ads to convey the function or characteristics of products to a greater extent than did those in the protective condition ($M = 3.65$, $SD = 1.20$). Those in the low self-monitoring and acquisitive condition did not significantly differ with respect to function of the product ($p = .27$). Inconsistent with the purported purpose of the ads, condition did not significantly affect ratings for acceptance/belongingness, $F(2, 272) = .26$, $p = .774$ (protective $M = 3.50$, $SD = 1.19$, acquisitive $M = 3.38$, $SD = 1.13$, low self-monitoring $M = 3.39$, $SD = 1.24$) or for status/social advancement, $F(2, 272) = 1.04$, $p = .356$ (acquisitive $M = 3.77$, $SD = 1.20$, protective $M = 3.54$, $SD = 1.37$, low self-monitoring $M = 3.54$, $SD = 1.18$).

A forced-choice manipulation check question was also used. Participants were asked to choose the option that best described what the advertisements emphasized: belongingness/acceptance, status/social advancement, or function/characteristics of the products. In a 3x3 Chi-square analysis, it was found that condition significantly affected participants' choices, $\chi^2(4) = 15.23$, $p = .004$. Follow-up tests were performed to examine the equality of proportions in each condition. In the low self-monitoring condition, the largest proportion of participants choose function or characteristic of the product (52%) compared to status (26%, $p < .05$) or belongingness (22%, $p < .05$). In the protective conditions, the largest proportion of participants choose belongingness or acceptance (40%) compared to function or characteristic of the product (27%, $p < .05$). The proportion of those choosing status (33%) did not significantly differ from belongingness or function. In the acquisitive condition, the proportions did not significantly vary (function = 40%; status = 37%; belongingness = 23%).

In addition, participants were asked about their consumption frequency of soda, tequila, and alcohol, and how often they drive cars (1 – *not at all* to 5 – *a great deal*). These measures were controlled for in the analyses.

Dependent Measures

Participants were asked to rate each advertisement on persuasiveness, appeal, and resonance (1 – *strongly disagree* to 7 – *strongly agree*), overall evaluation of the product (1 – *not at all positive* to 9 – *extremely positive*), and the likelihood of using the product (1 – *extremely unlikely* to 5 – *extremely likely*). These dependent items were all highly related (see Table 4). After converting each item to a z-score, mean scores for Coke ($\alpha = .91$), Don Julio Tequila ($\alpha = .91$), and Toyota ($\alpha = .93$) advertisements were computed and used as the dependent measures in subsequent analyses. The distributions for the dependent variables were somewhat leptokurtic (Coke = 1.38;

Don Julio = 2.34; Toyota = 1.26) and negatively skewed (Coke = -1.31; Don Julio = -1.45; Toyota = -1.26). Using a transformation (the natural log of the reflected scores) did create more normal distributions. However, in the analyses reported below, estimates of interactions and conditional effects were virtually identical. Therefore, results using untransformed dependent variables are reported below.

Results and Discussion

A post-hoc sensitivity analysis was conducted for Study 2 to determine the magnitude of interaction effect (i.e., R^2 increase) that could be detected with .80 power. Testing for an increase in R^2 in multiple regression, using two tested predictors (interaction of self-monitoring term with each of two dummy-coded experimental variables) and five total predictors (self-monitoring variable, experimental variable1, experimental variable2, the two interaction terms), the study was able to detect an effect size of $f^2 = .035$ (R^2 increase of .034) with .80 power. For an R^2 increase of .03, power was .74; for an R^2 increase of .02, power was .55.

Main Effects of Advertisement Type and Self-monitoring

Univariate general linear models were conducted to examine the main effects of advertisement type and self-monitoring on advertisement evaluations. Advertisement type did not predict evaluation of the Coke ads, $F(2, 259) = 0.69$, $p = .50$, the Don Julio ads, $F(2, 254) = 1.13$, $p = .325$, or the Toyota ads, $F(2, 259) = .70$, $p = .497$. Protective self-monitoring was positively related to the evaluation of the Toyota ad, $b = .24$, $t\ (259) = 2.68$, $p = .008$, but not the Coke ad, $b = .13$, $t\ (259) = 1.44$, $p = .152$, or the Don Julio ad, $b = .17$, $t\ (254) = 1.87$, $p = .063$. Acquisitive self-monitoring was not related to the Don Julio ad, $b = .13$, $t\ (254) = 1.35$, $p = .177$, but was positively related to the Coke ad, $b = .19$, $t\ (259) = 1.99$, $p = .047$, and the Toyota ad, $b = .35$, $t\ (259) = 3.73$, $p < .001$.

These results revealed main effects of self-monitoring where high acquisitive and high protective self-monitors rated the Toyota ads more favorably. Acquisitive self-monitors also favored the Coke ads but protective self-monitors did not. Looking at bivariate associations, all ad evaluations were positively related to both protective and acquisitive self-monitoring (see Table 4).

Moderating Influence of Protective Self-monitoring

The moderating influences of acquisitive and protective self-monitoring on the effect of advertisement type on evaluation were examined using the PROCESS macro in SPSS. Age, gender, and consumption or usage behaviors for the advertised product were controlled for in the analyses. Although there was some multicollinearity in the predictor variables (see Table 4), collinearity statistics (VIF; tolerance) did not indicate that multicollinearity was problematic (e.g., no VIF > 5 or tolerance < .20). For the Coke ads, there was not a significant increase in R^2 due to the interaction of protective self-monitoring and ad condition, $\Delta R^2 = .008$, $F(2, 257) = 1.41$, $p = .25$. For the Don Julio ads, there was an increase in R^2 due to the interaction of protective self-monitoring and ad condition, $\Delta R^2 = .018$, $F(2, 252) = 3.15$, $p = .044$. The conditional effect of protective self-monitoring for the low self-monitoring ad was marginal, $b = .23$, $p = .077$. The conditional effect for the protective self-monitoring ad was significant, $b = .31$, $p = .01$. There was no conditional effect for the acquisitive self-monitoring ad (see Figure 1 for conditional estimates). For the Toyota ads, there was an increase in R^2 due to the interaction of protective self-monitoring and ad condition, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(2, 257) = 5.78$, $p = .003$. The conditional effect of protective self-monitoring was significant for the low self-monitoring ad, $b = .32$, $p = .009$, and the protective self-monitoring ad, $b = .39$, $p = 001$. There was no conditional effect for the acquisitive self-monitoring ad (see Figure 2 for conditional estimates).

These results show that protective self-monitoring was found to be a significant predictor of ad preference. Higher protective self-monitoring was predictive of favoring some of the protective ads that were geared toward belongingness and avoiding social disapproval, namely, the Don Julio and Toyota ads. However, protective self-monitoring was unrelated to preferences for the Coke ads. Surprisingly, low protective self-monitors were less favorable towards the low self-monitoring ads than were high protective self-monitors.

Moderating Influence of Acquisitive Self-monitoring

For the Coke ads, there was not an increase in R^2 due to the interaction of acquisitive self-monitoring and ad condition, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $F(2, 257) = .591$, $p = .55$. For the Don Julio ads, there was not an increase in R^2 due to the interaction of acquisitive self-monitoring and ad condition, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $F(2, 252) = .565$, $p = .57$. For the Toyota ads, there was also not an increase in R^2 due to the interaction of acquisitive self-monitoring and ad condition, $\Delta R^2 = .007$, $F(2, 257) = 1.24$, $p = .29$. Contrary to hypotheses, acquisitive self-monitoring appeared to be unrelated to preferring any specific type of advertisement.

General Discussion

Studies 1 and 2 were designed to investigate how acquisitive and protective self-monitoring would predict consumer attitudes, motivations, and behaviors, and how they would affect the evaluation of advertised products. In Studies 1a and 1b, general associations of acquisitive and protective self-monitoring with consumer attitudes, motivations, and behaviors were examined. It was hypothesized that protective self-monitoring would be positively related to consumer orientations regarding fitting in (communal consumerism), getting along (socially-conscious consumerism), and gaining approval for their purchases (conspicuous consumption). Acquisitive self-monitoring was hypothesized to relate positively to consumer orientations

concerning standing out from others (agentic consumerism), exhibitionism/bragging consumption (consumer arrogance), consumption to show prestige (status consumption), and consumption to show power and wealth (self-interested values). Acquisitive self-monitoring was also predicted to be negatively related to social justice/equality (altruistic values). Finally, it was hypothesized that both protective and acquisitive self-monitoring would be negatively related to frugality because increased consumption should enhance one's image or ability to fit in.

The results of the regression analysis conducted with the MTurk sample from Study 1a revealed agentic consumerism, communal consumerism, consumer arrogance, socially-conscious consumerism, frugality, conspicuous consumption, status consumption, and self-interested values to be significantly related to protective self-monitoring. Altruism was not significantly related to protective self-monitoring. These results were mixed, but the hypotheses that protective self-monitoring would be related to communal consumerism, socially-conscious consumerism, frugality, and conspicuous consumption were supported. However, unexpectedly, protective self-monitoring also predicted status consumption, self-interested values, and consumer arrogance. These measures were expected to be more related to acquisitive self-monitoring based on previous research on their underlying motives (e.g., Wolfe et al., 1986; Slama & Celuch, 1995). Communal consumerism, consumer arrogance, conspicuous consumption, status consumption, and self-interested values were all found to be significantly related to acquisitive self-monitoring. The significant findings with acquisitive self-monitoring predicting status consumption, consumer arrogance, and self-interest were all supportive of hypotheses.

Study 1b with the SONA participants showed that conspicuous consumption and status consumption were significantly related to protective self-monitoring. These results were mixed in that, contrary to our expectations, protective self-monitoring did not predict communal

consumerism or socially-conscious consumerism. Furthermore, protective self-monitoring did predict status consumption, which was hypothesized to be more related to acquisitive self-monitoring. Frugality was negatively related to protective self-monitoring, which fits with the idea of engaging in consumption to fit in. As expected, agentic consumerism and self-interested values were significantly related to acquisitive self-monitoring. However, contrary to expectations based on previous research on the underlying motives of acquisitive self-monitoring (e.g., Wolfe et al., 1986; Slama & Celuch, 1995), acquisitive self-monitoring was not related to consumer arrogance or status consumption. Overall, the results of Studies 1a and 1b showed that most of the consumption behaviors and attitudes were uniquely guided by protective self-monitoring tendencies rather than by acquisitive self-monitoring tendencies.

Study 2 experimentally examined whether specific advertisements would have differential appeal based on acquisitive and/or protective self-monitoring orientations. It was hypothesized that individuals lower in acquisitive and protective self-monitoring would prefer advertisements that emphasized the quality or value of the product. It was also hypothesized that individuals higher in acquisitive self-monitoring would prefer advertisements emphasizing the product's ability to gain social standing. Additionally, it was hypothesized that individuals higher in protective self-monitoring would prefer advertisements emphasizing the product's ability to help them fit in and avoid social disapproval.

The experimental results from Study 2 were not completely clear. Somewhat surprisingly, there was a main effect trend for those higher in acquisitive or protective self-monitoring to be generally favorable of the ads (especially the Toyota ads), regardless of ad framing. This finding, along with the observed associations in Studies 1a and 1b, suggest that

those higher in self-monitoring (in terms of the bivariate model) are generally more attuned to and motivated by advertising, marketing, and consumption behaviors.

Contrary to hypotheses, no significant interactions were found between ad type and acquisitive self-monitoring. That is, acquisitive self-monitors showed no ad preference for any ad condition. This contradicts prior research that demonstrated acquisitive self-monitors showing preference for products that enhanced image (Slama & Celuch, 1995). Although acquisitive self-monitors did not show a preference for the acquisitive ads, as discussed above, they did show a higher favorability for the ads overall.

Consistent with hypotheses and prior research (Slama & Celuch, 1995), higher protective self-monitoring was predictive of favoring some of the protective ads that were geared toward belongingness and avoiding social disapproval. Specifically, high protective self-monitors favored the protective Don Julio and Toyota ads. Protective self-monitoring did not interact with ad type to predict evaluation of the Coke ads. This could be due to a lack of strength in the coke ads that were specifically geared toward each self-monitoring type. The clarity of the intended message may have been lacking, especially with the protective coke ad. It may not have been entirely convincing that the intended message was about "getting along" by socializing while drinking coke. This message may have been a far reach in that Coke might not actually be a product that is generally used to help people blend in with the crowd, while alcohol or cars can certainly help with social standing or fitting in.

Unexpectedly, the pattern of results found with the low self-monitoring Toyota and Don Julio ads were similar to results with the protective ads. That is, high protective self-monitors favored the low self-monitoring ads more than did low protective self-monitors. Put another way, those low in protective self-monitoring did not respond favorably to the low self-monitoring ads.

This is an interesting result since individuals who are low in protective self-monitoring are considered high in the Stability metatrait (Avia et al., 1998; Wilmot et al., 2016; Wolf et al., 2009). Thus, those who are high in Stability (emotional stability, conscientiousness, and agreeableness) tend to be low in protective self-monitoring and should have favored the low self-monitoring ads that emphasized product quality as prior research has suggested (DeBono, 2006; DeBono & Packer, 1991; Lennon, 1988; O'Cass & McEwen, 2004; Rose & Dejesus, 2007; Slama & Celuch, 1995; Snyder & Debono, 1985). In general, low self-monitors showed less enthusiasm about the ads across the board, regardless of ad type. Although prior research has shown that low self-monitors usually respond more favorably to ads that show the product's quality or reliability, results are stronger if the product is one that is marketed strategically for its intended purpose or function (DeBono, 2006). The ads used in Study 2 may not have made this connection strong enough. For example, the Don Julio ad emphasizes that it is handcrafted in small batches, but does not necessarily get at the taste and experience of drinking it. The Toyota ad emphasizes quality and reliability, but does not necessarily back up those claims or emphasize the driving experience. Ads intended for low self-monitors should therefore be focused on highlighting the product's intended purpose and its ability to perform reliably in the intended manner.

Overall, protective self-monitoring seems to be associated with more consumption behaviors and attitudes when compared with acquisitive self-monitoring. Perhaps there has been a considerable shift in consumer norms and behaviors in general where it may no longer be socially-acceptable to "show off" luxury items to gain friends or popularity. In addition, high self-monitoring consumers may consume in a protective manner and use consumption more often as a way of fitting in instead of showing off or gaining status. In fact, a study by Mead et

al. (2011) showed that social exclusion is a predictor of using finances to consume goods for the purposes of social well-being. This is thought to be because the desire for assimilation is stronger than the desire to be unique when individuals are excluded in social situations. In this study, high self-monitors matched their spending behaviors to their counterparts, but only if they were socially excluded. This may be one reason that our results reflect the behaviors of mostly protective self-monitors. High self-monitors who consume for social reasons may only do so to match the behaviors of their peers, not to simply be more highly regarded. These results show that avoiding social disapproval is a strong motivator for consumption. Since high self-monitors, regardless of underlying motives, tailor their behavior to features of the situation, they may only consume for acquisitive purposes in the right context. This type of context or environment may occur less often relative to situations that involve peer pressure or fitting in. In addition, Mead et al. (2011) point out that the wealth needed for consumption to be used in a conspicuous manner is normally obtained by working long hours and neglecting family time or socializing. Thus, social connection may be sacrificed by the pursuit of money.

The study by Mead et al. (2011) could have benefitted from approaching their self-monitoring measures multidimensionally by including acquisitive and protective self-monitoring measures in their analyses. Future replications of this study could draw valuable conclusions about consumption for social gain by using the self-monitoring measures multidimensionally. Furthermore, other prior research on self-monitoring and consumer behavior (e.g., Debono & Packer, 1991; O'Cass & McEwen, 2004; Peng et al., 2012; Rose & Dejesus, 2007; Snyder & Debono, 1985; Zuckerman et al., 1988) may benefit from a reevaluation in terms of acquisitive versus protective self-monitoring. This analysis could potentially illuminate whether acquisitive or protective self-monitoring (or both) is/are driving the observed effects and whether the

relative impact of each has changed over time.

Limitations and Future Directions

Although certain hypotheses were supported, the overall findings are not clear-cut. The inconsistencies between our findings and prior research could be due to several factors. One possible factor could be found in our samples. We used a convenience sample of undergraduate students for Study 1b. However, participants from prior research have also been comprised of convenience samples (e.g., university students; Snyder & DeBono, 1985; DeBono & Packer, 1991; Celuch & Slama, 1995; Slama & Celuch, 1995), so this may be merely considered a slight cause for concern. It is also possible that the results found from this particular sample would not align with that of the general population, especially given the likelihood of their relative levels of inexperience in consumption behaviors. Our sample from Study 1a, however, was more of a diverse and general sample of adults that was thought to be more representative of the average consumer. It could be surmised that the large differences in personality and consumption variable correlations between the results from Study 1a and Study 1b differed significantly due to the age and experience differences in the two samples. Specifically, age has been found to be a predictor in the adoption of specific self-monitoring styles, with older age being correlated with low self-monitoring and younger age being correlated with high self-monitoring (Reifman et al., 1989). Future research could benefit from further examination of how age and other demographic variables might affect the interaction of personality and consumption relationships.

Some of the MTurk participants from Study 1a and Study 2 completed the studies too quickly, providing data that was deemed unusable. MTurk workers are known for being experienced research participants that may be multitasking on more than one study at a time. The participant sample from Study 1b was that of undergraduate students who also completed the

questionnaires online at unknown locations with unknown levels of focus devoted to the items. Thus, the amount of attention and effort used to complete the study is unknown and cause for concern. Conducting studies in a more controlled laboratory setting could alleviate these concerns.

A limitation from Study 2 could have been the strength of the advertisements in their ability to convey their specifically-tailored self-monitoring messages. In general, the ads did not clearly convey their intended message to each participant as demonstrated by the manipulation checks. Some of the ads, especially the acquisitive ads, could have possibly been misconstrued by participants due to a lack in strength of the ad. None of the acquisitive ads were preferred based on acquisitive or protective self-monitoring, but some of the low self-monitoring ads and most of the protective ads were differentially preferred. Since this lack of significance within the acquisitive condition differs from prior research (e.g., Celuch & Slama, 1995), it can be thought to be due to the ads themselves. Of course, the product copy or the ad slogan itself could have been the reason behind the weaknesses in that they may not have clearly appealed to specific self-monitoring dimensions. In particular, the Coke advertisements did not show any differential preference based on self-monitoring. Coke consumption may just be a matter of preference and not be as readily used to promote image or blend in with the crowd. It may also be true that people do not generally think about soda ingredients with high-quality expectations. Preference may just be for taste, regardless of ad strategy. Future research should employ pilot studies to gauge ad strength and to ensure proper understanding of the ads by participants. Additionally, as indicated by sensitivity analysis, a larger sample size will be needed to detect small interaction effects between self-monitoring and different types of advertising.

As noted above, the manipulation checks indicated that not everyone perceived the ads as

conveying their intended message. This could be due to lack of attention, the strength and clarity of the ads, or the amount of time that existed between the participant viewing the ads and answering manipulation check questions. Due to an error in Qualtrics presentation, the order of questions and when the manipulation checks were presented was not optimal. Participants saw all three of the ads and answered preference questions immediately after each one. However, they were then taken to consumer behavior questions before seeing the manipulation check questions. It would be beneficial to have them to be completed immediately after evaluating each ad to ensure the correct ad message was conveyed.

Another potential limitation of these studies is that measures were self-reports of consumer behaviors. It is possible that results from self-reports could be deemed somewhat unreliable since people may not be capable or willing to reveal their true state of mind when participating in studies (Oliver et al., 2010). More insight could be gained in future studies if other types of data, such as recording consumer decisions in a lab or field setting with actual products, were collected to supplement the self-report measures. For example, a laboratory study could involve choices between products that vary in terms of quality, status, and belongingness dimensions. Furthermore, archives of previous purchases could be used instead of, or compared to, self-reported product choices.

Conclusion

The results of all three studies demonstrated that most of the consumer behaviors and ad preferences were guided by protective self-monitoring relative to acquisitive self-monitoring. These findings suggest that self-monitoring, especially protective self-monitoring, has the potential to play a critical role in understanding consumption behaviors. The underlying differences in the motives behind self-monitoring orientations could be a valuable research focus

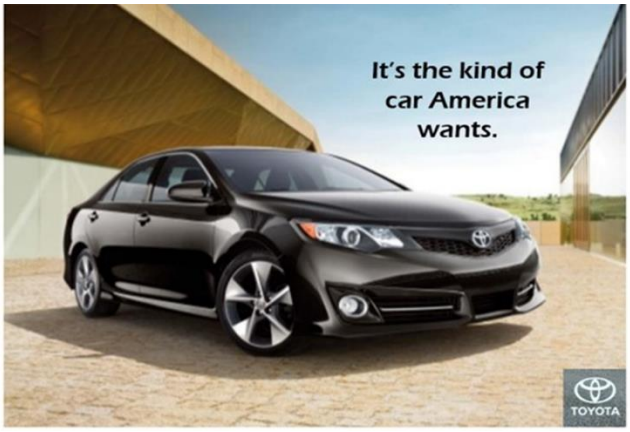
to consumer researchers. Market researchers can use information about underlying self-monitoring attitudes on consumption to predict individuals' reactions to advertisements. Understanding these motives may be key in promoting the persuasiveness of advertisements.

Appendix A

Low Self-monitoring Advertisements used in Study 2

Appendix B

Protective Self-monitoring Advertisements used in Study 2



Appendix C

Acquisitive Self-monitoring Advertisements used in Study 2

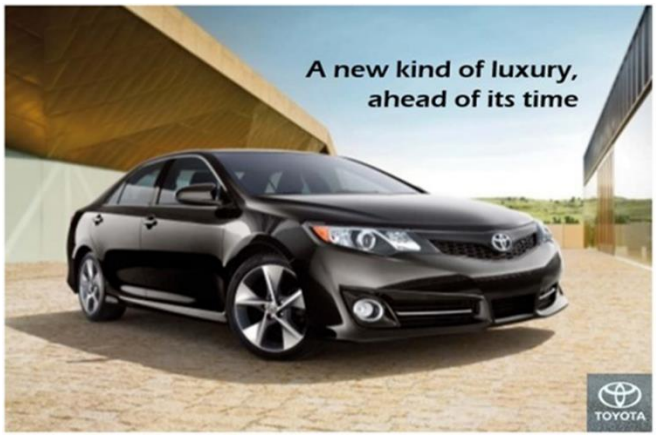


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Table 1

Bivariate Correlations and Descriptive Statistics for Studies 1a and 1b

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. SMS	*.74/.75*	.66***	.62***	.17*	.04	.12	.04	-.06	.12	.13	.09	.12
2. SM Acq	.73***	*.57/.67*	.06	.25*	.06	.12	.16	.09	.11	.09	.12	.18*
3. SM Pro	.75***	.35***	*.81/.73*	.06	.05	.12	-.03	-.18*	.20*	.21*	-.02	.01
4. Agentic	.24**	.23**	.39***	*.90/92*	.55***	.30***	.34***	-.08	.39***	.32***	.21*	.29***
5. Communal	.49***	.42***	.56***	.65***	*.91/90*	.28*	.14	-.04	.36***	.26*	.12	.28*
6. Arrogance	.38***	.36***	.57***	.64***	.63***	*.97/92*	.01	-.38***	.60***	.61***	-.05	.42***
7. Soc. Consc	.16*	.20*	.35***	.44***	.44***	.53***	*.82/.83*	.12	.03	.06	.33***	.10
8. Frugal	-.23**	-.24**	-.39***	-.48***	-.57***	-.62***	-.31***	*.67/.58*	-.31***	-.29*	.16	-.11
9. Conspic	.39***	.36***	.59***	.65***	.64***	.87***	.47***	-.63***	*.95/.87*	.87***	-.10	.24*
10. StatusCon	.38***	.36***	.56***	.67***	.59***	.84***	.46***	-.62***	.91***	*.95/.92*	-.08	.23*
11. Altruism	.03	.09	.09	.28***	.26**	.17*	.54***	-.01	.13	.13	*.89/.89*	.27*
12. Self-Int	.32***	.39***	.37***	.65***	.66***	.71***	.43***	-.46***	.65***	.65***	.37***	*.88/.76*
M	2.83/3.03	2.77/2.79	2.95/2.98	2.78/2.64	2.89/2.79	2.79/2.21	3.34/2.83	3.31/3.02	2.70/2.29	2.75/2.28	6.52/6.91	5.35/5.08
SD	.46/.44	.71/.76	.84/73	1.14/1.01	1.17/1.05	1.09/.71	.86/.84	.77/.49	1.29/.99	1.29/1.04	1.47/1.41	1.89/1.43

Note. SMS = self-monitoring scale; SM Acq = acquisitive self-monitoring; SM Pro = protective self-monitoring; Agentic = agentic consumer motivation; Communal = communal consumer motivation; Soc. Consc = socially conscious; Frugal = frugality; Conspic = conspicuous consumption; StatusCon = status consumption; Altruism = altruistic values; Self-Int = self-interested values. Correlations from Study 1a are below the diagonal; correlations from Study 1b are above the diagonal. Internal consistencies (Cronbach's α) reported along the diagonal in italics (i.e., Study 1a/Study 1b). Descriptive statistics reported in bottom two rows (i.e., Study 1a/Study 1b).

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 2

Study 1a Regression Analysis of Acquisitive and Protective Self-monitoring with Consumer Attitudes, Consumer Behaviors, and Values

	Acquisitive Self-monitoring		Protective Self-monitoring	
	β	95% CIs	β	95% CIs
Agentic Consumerism	0.09	[-0.07,0.26]	.31***	[0.15,0.47]
Communal Consumerism	0.25**	[0.11,0.39]	.43***	[0.29,0.57]
Consumer Arrogance	0.14*	[0.01,0.28]	.48***	[0.34,0.61]
Socially Conscious Consumerism	0.11	[-0.05,0.27]	0.27**	[0.11,0.43]
Frugality	-0.09	[-0.26,0.07]	-0.33***	[-0.49,-0.17]
Conspicuous Consumption	0.16*	[0.02,0.29]	0.50***	[0.37,0.64]
Status Consumption	0.18*	[0.04,0.32]	0.44***	[0.31,0.58]
Altruistic Values	0.12	[-0.05,0.29]	0.02	[-0.15,0.19]
Self-Interested Values	0.30***	[0.15,0.46]	0.22**	[0.07,0.38]

Note. For each analysis, the *df*s are 4 and 145. All analyses controlled for age and gender.

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 3

Study 1b Regression Analysis of Acquisitive and Protective Self-monitoring with Consumer Attitudes, Consumer Behaviors, and Values

	Acquisitive Self-monitoring		Protective Self-monitoring	
	β	95% CIs	β	95% CIs
Agentic Consumerism	0.25**	[0.08,0.412]	0.04	[-0.13,0.21]
Communal Consumerism	0.06	[-0.12,0.23]	0.04	[-0.14,0.21]
Consumer Arrogance	0.12	[-0.05,0.29]	0.10	[-0.07,0.27]
Socially Conscious Consumerism	0.18*	[0.01,0.35]	-0.02	[-0.19,0.15]
Frugality	0.08	[-0.08,0.25]	-0.18*	[-0.34,-0.01]
Conspicuous Consumption	0.09	[-0.08,0.26]	0.18*	[0.01,0.34]
Status Consumption	0.08	[-0.09,0.25]	0.19*	[0.02,0.36]
Altruistic Values	0.13	[-0.05,0.30]	-0.02	[-0.19,0.15]
Self-Interested Values	0.18*	[0.02,0.35]	-0.02	[-0.19,0.15]

Note. For each analysis, the *df*s are 4 and 130. All analyses controlled for age and gender.

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 4

Bivariate Correlations and Descriptive Statistics for Study 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. SMS	*.91*									
2. SM Acq.	.90***	*.68*								
3. SM Pro.	.85***	.73***	*.80*							
4. Coke Ads	.36***	.32***	.32***	*.91*						
5. DonJulio Ads	.43***	.38***	.39***	.45***	*.91*					
6. Toyota Ads	.46***	.44***	.43***	.48***	.58***	*.93*				
7. Soda Con.	.59***	.51***	.45***	.41***	.38***	.41***	--			
8. Alcohol Con.	.55***	.50***	.46***	.28***	.38***	.36***	.44***	--		
9. Tequila Con.	.70***	.63***	.60***	.32***	.41***	.42***	.52***	.66***	--	
10. Drive Freq.	.21**	.24***	.17**	.10	.17**	.32***	.19**	.16**	.21**	--
M	3.54	3.51	3.62	-.02	-.02	-.03	3.36	3.08	2.88	4.2
SD	.67	.75	.77	1.02	1.01	1.02	1.22	1.17	1.42	1.01

Note. SMS = self-monitoring scale; SM Acq. = acquisitive self-monitoring; SM Pro. = protective self-monitoring; Agentic = agentic consumer motivation; Communal = communal consumer motivation; Coke Ads = Coke ad ratings; DonJulio Ads = Don Julio ad ratings; Toyota ads = Toyota ad ratings; Soda Con. = soda consumption frequency; Alcohol Con. = Alcohol consumption frequency; Tequila Con. = tequila consumption frequency; Drive Freq.= driving frequency. Internal consistencies (Cronbach's α) reported along the diagonal in italics. Descriptive statistics reported in bottom two rows.

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Figure 1

Conditional Estimates of Don Julio Advertisement Evaluations by Condition and Protective Self-monitoring

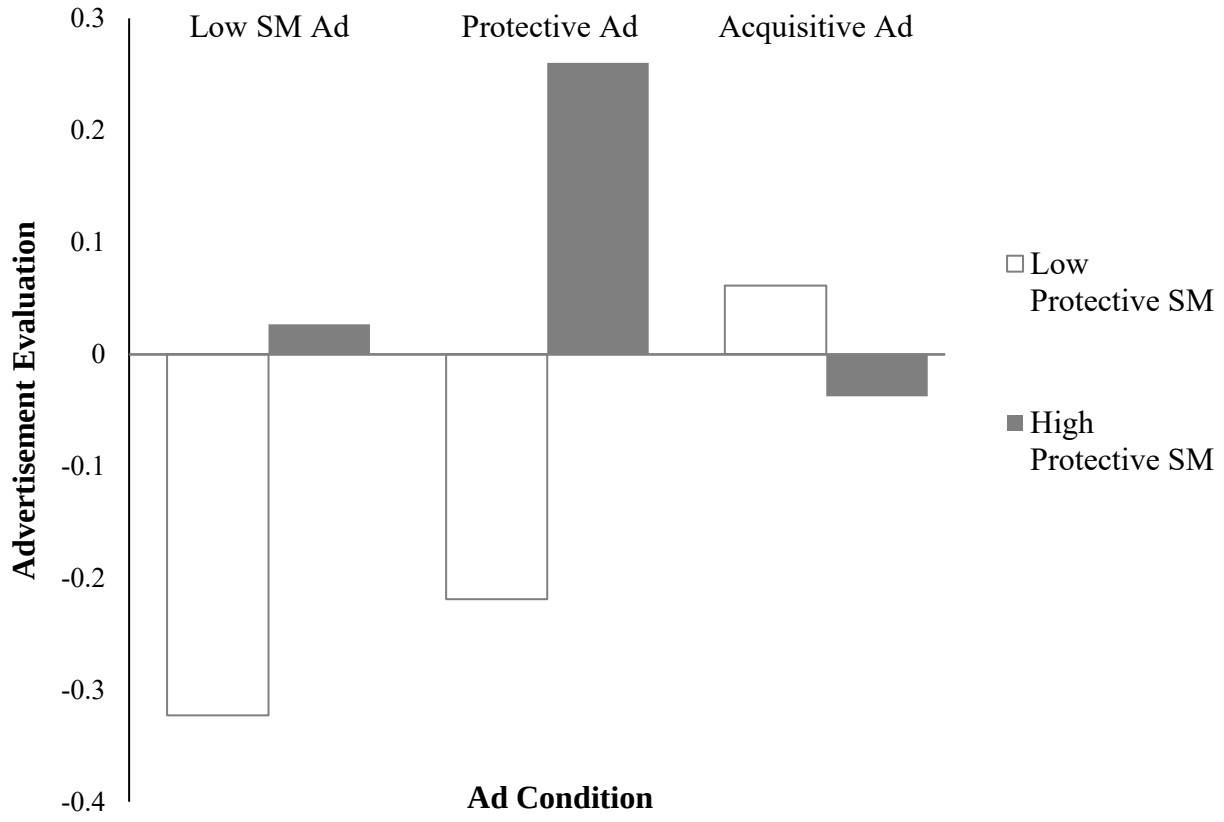
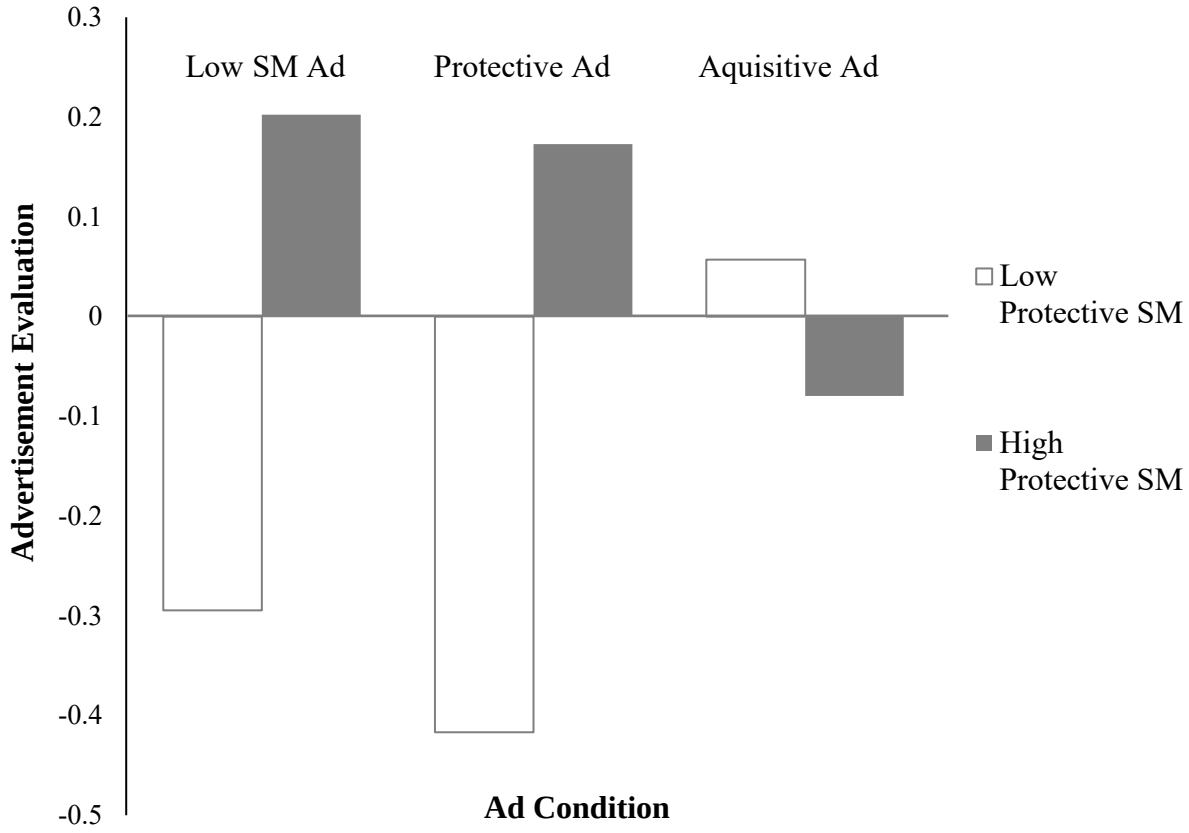


Figure 2

Conditional Estimates of Toyota Advertisement Evaluations by Condition and Protective Self-monitoring



Curriculum Vita

Alexis Nicole Lovaas, née Kutzer, was born to Stephen and Lisa Kutzer in Jacksonville, Florida. She graduated from Mandarin High School and from there received an Associate's degree at Florida State College at Jacksonville. She then pursued an Associate's degree in Radiologic Technology. After working as a Mammographer for several years, she decided to go back to college to pursue a psychology degree at the University of North Florida. As an undergraduate, she worked closely with an advisor on research involving The Innocence Project and graduated Summa Cum Laude with a Bachelor of Science in Psychology in the Spring of 2018. After acceptance into UNF's Masters of Science in Psychological Science program, Alexis continued to work part time in the medical field as a Mammographer and also taught Research Methods Lab courses as a Graduate Teaching Assistant. In addition, she presented her research findings at UNF's School of Computing (SoC) Symposium and The Society for Personality and Social Psychology (SPSP). Alexis aspires to become involved in clinical research.