Differences in the Perception of Brand Personality
Abstract

Background: The process connected to understanding perceived brand personality is discussed as well as how perceived brand personality may be affected by different cultures. Finally, the reader is introduced to the sportswear fashion industry, namely Adidas. The research questions are introduced.

Literature Review: The concept of standardisation vs adaptation is introduced, leading to a discussion regarding social media as a form of standardised marketing and how Adidas use it. The concept of culture is addressed with additional information regarding gender identity. Aaker’s dimensions of brand personality are discussed as well as how they are used to measure brand personality. Finally, brand personality’s relationship with brand loyalty as a (leading in to brand equity) and how brand personality may be used to determine brand preference are discussed.

Theoretical Framework: The adapted model of how this thesis’s research will be undertaken are presented along with 5 hypotheses that will be tested.

Methodology: This thesis follows a quantitative research method, namely the distribution of surveys. Saunder’s Research Onion is used as a guideline for the sections of the methodology. The design of the survey is discussed followed by how the authors will ensure for reliability and validity.

Empirical Findings and Discussion: The authors found that national culture and gender identity play a role in shaping perceived brand personality of Adidas. Further findings show that brand preference cannot be determined based on a countries classification as masculine or feminine.

Conclusion: A summary of the findings and discussion are presented. This is followed by managerial implications, where the authors attain to the fact that if brands are to continue using standardised messages they must structure it in a way that takes all culture groups into account or alternatively opt for adapted marketing messages. Finally, limitations and future research are presented.
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1 Introduction:

In this section, the authors introduce the background as well as discuss the problem formulation. Afterwards the purpose of this thesis and the research question are developed, then the limitations and delimitations are made apparent. Finally, the authors discuss how the results will contribute to firms and existing literature alike before providing the reader with definitions of crucial terminology.

1.1 Background:

Companies and marketers alike, cannot hope to understand consumer behaviour without first understanding the meanings that consumers attach to their possessions (Belk, 1988; Phau & Lau, 2000). Therefore, it is appropriate that brand personality has and continues to be used by countless companies as a method in which they can differentiate their products and brand, from that of their competitors. According to Belk, (1988) buyers are able to express themselves through purchasing products with a certain “personality”. Phau & Lau (2000) and Su & Tong (2015) further argue this point, stating that a brand is perceived to possess a personality that consumers use to self-express and experience the emotional benefits of the brand and or purchased product.

When marketing across cultures, many firms aim to create marketing strategies that emphasize a standardized brand personality (Aaker, 1997; Foscht, Maloles, Swoboda, Morschett, & Sinha, 2008). The effectiveness of standardized marketing strategies may depend on whether the countries in which companies are advertising are culturally heterogeneous or homogeneous. In markets that are culturally heterogeneous, a brand’s personality may not be perceived in a manner consistent with how a firm has designed it to be. This fact can be attributed to cultural differences that potentially influence the cultural meaning that different markets assign to the brand (Phau & Lau, 2000). On the other hand, in markets that are culturally homogeneous it is often seen that brand personality is perceived similarly by consumers who purchase the products in question. Hence, Foscht et al. (2008) state that global companies must consider the extent to which differences in cultural backgrounds influence the way in which brands are perceived. Additionally, they must consider the extent to which standardized messages of brands are perceived identically.

Sportswear is defined primarily as apparel and footwear made for sports participation although, recently wearing sportswear goods as causal clothes has also become a trend. Simply put, consumers are not only wearing sportswear for sports participation, but for everyday use. Since
the 1990s, casual and comfort garments have prevailed as a fashion trend, with sports or leisure activity being valued as part of a well-being trend. The global market size of the sportswear industry has grown significantly from US$145 billion in 2007 to US $166 billion by 2014 (Ko et al., 2012).

Within the sportswear fashion industry, Adidas is recognised as one of the largest companies in the market (Su & Tong, 2015). Adidas is a global brand that for the most part communicate a similar message to the global market with their new trending slogan and marketing message, Here to Create (Adidas, 2016). With the emergence of social media and sharing platforms such as Youtube, Facebook and Instagram came a new approach to accessing information, news and communications from firms by consumers. The existence of these platforms has allowed further deregulation from the perspective of access to information based of geographical proximities. This in turn leads to a scenario where consumers from almost anywhere in the world can have access to the exact same marketing communications as one another. Adidas’ marketing team are active users of the previously mentioned social media platforms, implementing them as a means of publishing their marketing messages and communicate with their customers directly.

1.2 Problem:

It is the role of marketing managers within an organisation to determine what in which light they want customers to perceive their brand. Therefore, those managers become responsible for curating strategies in order to produce communications that emphasise a brand’s personality and determines how that brand will be perceived globally by all of its customers (Fournier, 1998).

Historically, brands habitually implemented varying marketing communications strategies to pre-determined customer segments to influence their consumers brand personality perception. The aim for most global companies implementing these various marketing communications strategies was to create an identical brand perception across borders (Roth, 1995). These segments were generally heterogeneous in their nature and isolated customer groups based on factors such as geographical location, language, gender, race, age, religion etc. Brands that successfully implemented segmented marketing communications such as Coca Cola and Nike had an advantage as they effectively managed how their brand was perceived internationally through adaptation (Roth, 1995). In the era of social media marketing however, there is an
increase in the use of a single channel to communicate a standardized message to a global customer base. Stelzner (2015) reported around 96% of marketers use social media as a marketing channel actively. The issue regarding this is the way these marketing communications translate in the mind of the consumer may be additionally determined by cultural differences between individuals who are receiving these messages (Phau & Lau, 2000). Another factor that has been observed to influence the ways in which marketing communications translates to individuals is gender identity as it states that a person’s self-concept has a significant effect on how that given individual may process or interpret information (Schertzer, Laufer, Silvera, & Brad McBride, 2008). This presents a problem as it means that through executing marketing communications on global social media pages, brands face the risk of establishing conflicting brand personality perceptions based on the cultural background of their customer (Foscht et al., 2008; Phau & Lau, 2000). Dissemination of the exact same information online has been shown to establish alternating interpretations and thus interactions and reactions based, on the cultural mannerism of those consuming these messages (Berthon, Pitt, Plangger, & Shapiro, 2012).

This establishes a key potential issue regarding marketing in the age of social media campaigning. Especially, given the climate that several brands will establish a primary social media page on each of these platforms that will represent their products and services globally. If heterogeneous audiences engaging with these pages are disseminating and interpreting these universal messages differently it could lead to variations in the perception of global brands between different cultures. Ultimately, determining customer behaviours and attitudes towards these brands. Research by Berthon et al (2012) highlighted the concern surrounding the use standardised messages online on social media due to their inability to adhere to local cultures.

1.3 Purpose:
The purpose of this paper is to highlight the extent to which culture has an impact on the perception of brand personality within the sportswear fashion industry. The two countries that are being examined are the United Kingdom and Sweden. This impact in turn will be measured through the use of a model developed by Aaker (1997). Understanding these behaviours will allow the authors to more accurately determine how different cultures’ perceptions of a brand are shaped based on their interpretation of standardised marketing messages from brands within the sportswear fashion industry.
1.3 Research Questions:
Based on the purpose of this thesis, the research questions are as follows:

Does national culture and gender identity play a role in the perception of brand personality of international brands in the sportswear fashion industry?

Can the classification of a national culture as Masculine or Feminine be used to determine brand preferences of Male and Female consumers in that country within the sportswear fashion industry?

1.4 Limitations:
The key limitation is centred around availability and access to appropriate resources. A cross-cultural study such as the one performed in this thesis will normally benefit from an extended period of research time. This project is restrained by both timeframe and financial support, which may in turn limit the magnitude of the research. An example of such a restraint could be a lower number of respondents taking part in the questionnaire.

1.5 Delimitations:
This project does not aim to determine how each individual nation will translate standardized marketing messages from international brands. As this is a phenomenon that would require a more in-depth study as well as access to resources that are not currently available to the authors. Rather, this study aims to determine how different nations perceive brand personality based on their individual cultures when using a standardized marketing message. This thesis does not take into account how brand perception could be construed by factors outside of online and physical marketing communications.

1.6 Contributions:
The research in this thesis should be able to provide companies, specifically in the sportswear fashion industry, with an understanding of how consumers perceive their brand personality. Additionally, it should provide insights into how brands can structure their standardized messages in regiocentric and geocentric marketing campaigns. Alternatively, it could provide insight into why brands should opt to limit the use of standardized messages. The results of this study will depend on the way in which the thesis contributes to these companies, for example, if it is found that culture has a role in perception of brand personality in the sportswear
industry, then insight into how to acclimate to these cultures will be provided in the implications. Previous research in to how brand personality can be shaped by culture has been limited. However, one investigation regarding Red Bull focusing on the energy drinks industry by Foscht et al. (2008) exists. Hence the results from this thesis will provide insights into how brand perception is affected by the dimensions of national culture within an industry not yet examined.

1.7 Definitions:

**Brand Personality:** The set of human characteristics associated with a brand. It is the assignment of human personality traits and characteristics to a brand in order to assist it achieve differentiation similar brands (Aaker, 1997; Freling & Forbes, 2005).

**Country Culture:** Culture based off Hofstede’s Cultural Insights, generalized to the entire population. Hence it does not take into consideration the disparities amongst different regions in a specific country (G Hofstede, 2018)

**Standardised Messaging:** One universal message that is being communicated to more than one country without adaptation of any kind. The message in this case is intended for specific regions (Europe) and not the entire world (Okazaki & Taylor, 2013).

**Heterogeneous Culture Country:** A country that has a significant difference in terms of Hofstede Cultural Dimensions’ score from that of another.

**Homogeneous Culture Country:** A country that has similar Hofstede Cultural Dimensions’ scores to that of another country.

**Brand preference:** Stems from the narrative that certain brand personality traits could cause an individual to exhibit stronger inclinations towards that brand (Malär, Krohmer, Hoyer, & Nyffenegger, 2011).
2 Literature Review:

This section presents the theories and frameworks that this research is based upon. Additionally, it entails previous works of literature to give the reader an understanding of the topic.

2.1 Marketing Communication Techniques of Brands

Given the context of this study it is pivotal to understand international marketing approaches and strategies that can be implemented so that brands can achieve their brand personality related goals cross culturally. This section will explore the concepts of standardisation and localisation to determine their relative benefits and limitations. It will first explore these concepts as overall marketing principles, before discussing them in the context of international marketing communications. Then finally from the point of view of online marketing (predominantly across social media). The authors feel it is important to display in detail these approaches so that the concept of the study can be effectively grasped. Once, the differences are understood, the authors then explore the role that social media as an independent stimulus is currently playing in reshaping modern marketing strategies.

2.1.1 Standardisation vs Adaptation for International Brands

Since international marketing began, a debate has pursued about the matter of standardisation vs localisation. This discussion is centred around how brands operate and acclimatise their marketing behaviours internationally. Generally, they are measured based on the extent to which they are standardised (Lim, Acito, & Rusetski, 2006). Levels of standardisation are generally centred around the 4 P’s of the Marketing mix Product, Price, Place and Promotion (McCarthy, 1975). Levitt (1983) refers to standardisation strategies, characterising them as the uniform application of strategy across all elements of the marketing mix by a brand cross culturally. Levitt (1983) supported the use of standardisation techniques, his argument was that increased levels of globalisation spurred by technological advances meant that cultural lines were being blurred, therefore in the scenario of a more homogenous global culture, standardisation was key to exploiting the benefits of economies of scale. At the time standardisation had numerous academic support, primarily stemming around its scaling advantages as well as its ability to achieve congruency in brand personality internationally due to its consistency (Jain, 1989; Rutenberg, 1982; Zou, Andrus, & Norvell, 1997).

However, as time moved forward a debate started to rage against the use of standardisation techniques. The primary driver was focused towards customer facing marketing strategies. With
research beginning to lean more toward adaptation strategies as the key to international marketing (Cui & Liu, 2001; Dawson & Mukoyama, 2006; Rundh, 2003; Samiee, Yip, & Luk, 2004). These strategies were otherwise referred to as localisation, where emphasis was placed more on making the brand and business practices align with the culture of the geographical areas in which they are trading. It was observed that multinational firms had seen deteriorations in their profits due to lack of local sensitivity in their trading (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2002). It was also discerned that due to every culture having its own social time and context, it was critical in international marketing strategy to develop global marketing strategies that would be differentiated culturally (Harvey, Kiessling, & Glenn Richey, 2008).

The following section will explore these concepts, from a marketing communication perspective. Now that these approaches have been explored as overall business operation approaches, it’s important to view these approaches in a more contextual means to support this study.

2.1.2 International Marketing Communication

International marketing strategies consider the extent to which managers and brands alter their operations throughout all 4 segments of the marketing mix cross culturally. The authors have centred the research of this paper around the standardisation of a brand’s Promotion (in reference to McCarthy’s (1975) 4 P’s), placing focus on the element of congruence of marketing communication efforts across international borders. Research has highlighted the complexity regarding the implementation of coordinating marketing communications strategy, due to the presence of cultural, political and geographical barriers which could hinder a company’s success in the global marketplace (Cavusgil & Cavusgil, 2012). Ignorance towards the impact that cultural differences have on the reception of marketing communications have caused a number of businesses to fail internationally (Ricks, 1983).

When curating an international marketing communication strategy, brands have to decide whether they will place focus on standardisation across borders or adopt a localisation methodology which will be centred around micro managing communications that adjust to unique characteristics of each national market (Vrontis, Thrassou, & Lamprianou, 2009). The challenge managers are facing is centred around establishing brands that translate similarly internationally. Establishing a scenario where achieving this becomes the prerogative aim in international marketing for multinational brands (Okazaki, Taylor, & Zou, 2006; Taylor, 2005).
The difficulty regarding this is centred around the design of strategy that evokes favourable emotions and brand perceptions in their consumers as well as resonates with their brand image across international marketplaces (Pae, Samiee, & Tai, 2002; Pittard, Ewing, & Jevons, 2007). Research by Okazaki and Taylor (2013) highlights that the task relating to achieving such uniformity in brand perception across markets doesn’t necessarily lead towards standardisation or localisation and therefore is flexible.

However, value systems in the nations being targeted must be taken in to account, as the significance of brands may vary among people in different cultures (M. Fischer, Völckner, & Sattler, 2010). Both cultural and social norms are susceptible to change across national borders, in a manner that a given brand image may not be appropriate or align with specific consumer groups based on their background (Okazaki et al., 2006). This could play a role in diminishing the brand perception aims of managers in some counties as the communications used in one market place may not resonate in the same way as in others.

Foscht (2008) highlighted how international brand communications face the likelihood of being better received in some countries than others if the brand image is more culturally congruent in one of the countries. Using this as a logical framework it becomes difficult to consider how uniformity could be achieved across cultures when the marketing communications are homogenous. Research has shown how companies must adopt a varied approach that is adapted to the culture of the nation they are marketing in (Albers-miller & Gelb, 1996; Mortimer & Grierson, 2010). However, with some brands achieving such perceived uniformity in brand image globally research is required to decipher whether it is the nature of the communication that causes variations culturally. Especially since the concepts of culture and communication are naturally in tandem of one another when considering international marketing strategy (Ghanem, Kalliny, & Elgoul, 2012).

Now that it has been discerned with support from numerous literature Albers-miller & Gelb, (1996); Foscht et al. (2008); Mortimer & Grierson (2010) to name a few, that there is increased difficulty in obtaining uniform result cross culturally from standardised marketing communications. The authors will explore the concept of social media marketing. The reasoning behind this is with an increase in social media marketing amongst brands coupled with the general openness and accessibility of social media platforms. This presents a problem for brands, as with their increasing use of social media marketing face the risk of their
standardised marketing communications being disseminated in different ways by their customers based on their culture.

2.1.3 Online Advertising & Social Media

From an international business perspective social networks are defined as a web of personal connections and relationships for the purpose of securing favours in personal and/or organizational action (Zhou et al., 2007). In the light of rapid technological advances over the last two decades an evident shift in global marketing communications has transpired with brands opting to focus more of the promotions online. Kaplan (2012) attributes this shift to the rising use of mobile devices globally, as their ability to extend social dialogue means they have allowed true global reach spanning across different cultures. Online marketing communications play a significant role in consumer behaviour and therefore should be prioritised by brands (Li & Lo, 2015). They also have a significant effect on the people’s attitudes towards the brand in general (Makienko, 2014; Yılmaz & Enginkaya, 2015). Of all online marketing communication channels, social media gained the most traction in recent years. The authors have therefore decided to focus our research on international marketing communications on social media networks.

The authors decided to focus our research on social media primarily due to its accessibility internationally to consumers. Social media platforms act as an efficient method to create and maintain networks internationally (Boyd & Donath, 2004). Berthon et al (2012) argue that the way social media is used globally is dependent on factors such as access to technology, culture and governmental regulation, alluding to the argument that standardised marketing communications across these platforms won’t be effective, instead he states local cultures need to be accounted for and therefore messages adapted. However, the global trend on social media platforms have been centred around standardised strategies whilst leaving room to adapt (ford et al, 2011). Okazaki & Taylor (2013) expanded to state that standardisation on social media can be effective, however factors such as countries, product categories and segmentation must be considered.

Adidas are one of the world’s largest manufacturers of athletic footwear, and other forms of apparel. Since they are such a large company they operate in many different markets across the globe. Hence, their marketing communication efforts on social media, namely Instagram fall under the strategy of standardisation. Adidas have many different Instagram pages relating to
specific segments, however their main account, which communicates to the global segment has the largest following of close to 20 million persons. Larger markets, such as the US and the UK have their own individual Instagram page, however in smaller markets such as the Swedish market, this is not the case. Instead, Adidas use their largest Instagram page, @Adidas to communicate to their significant following of close to 20 million. The Instagram page that is specifically aimed at the UK, @Adidaslondon has 1.5 million followers. Therefore it can be seen that the main page communicates their message to a much larger audience. In addition to having this page specifically for London, Adidas have an Instagram targeting the female gender demographic, @Adidaswomen, however this page only has a following of just under 3 million. Due to the English proficiency levels in Sweden it can be assumed that the Swedish consumers will be drawn to the main social media channel. Therefore, the authors of this thesis state that the form of standardised messaging that will be considered in the research is that of Adidas social media, specifically relating to their largest Instagram page, @Adidas.

2.1.4 Marketing Communication and Techniques of Brands Summary:
The key take away from this section is that standardised marketing messages are subject to the limitation of not being perceived in a similar fashion based on the cultural background of the individual receiving that message (Pae et al., 2002; Pittard et al., 2007). The research seems to side with adaptation techniques being a more ideal means of establishing favourable brand images and consumer behaviours amongst consumers internationally as they are more tailored to their specific circumstances (Albers-miller & Gelb, 1996; Foscht et al., 2008; Mortimer & Grierson, 2010). This however, is becoming increasingly less possible given the emergence of social media marketing, as social media platforms generally transmit a standardised message to all customers regardless of cultural background given their global reach (Ko et al., 2005). This presents a problem as standardised messages across social media platform are not to be considered effective (Berthon et al., 2012). Therefore, given this consideration the authors will explore in this whether brand personality is in fact perceived differently in different cultures when standardised marketing messages across social media are used.

2.2 Culture and Consumer Behaviour:
This section will explore the concept of culture, what determines it and how it has been observed in previous research to shape behaviour. The relevance of this chapter is that it establishes culture as a construct which can be investigated, as well as its relevance to a cross
cultural study such as this one. Through doing so the authors can again provide insight in to the facets of the empirical framework which will be presented later in this thesis. Finally, given the general difficulty surrounding the measurement of culture as a quantifiable construct, the authors will use this section to determine which areas of culture will be used to compare the two countries in this study.

2.2.1 Culture:

Understanding the phenomenon of culture and what contributes to the establishment and evolution of culture, especially in a national setting is pivotal to determining the role culture plays in marketing strategy. Culture is typically derived from numerous contributing factors such as language, religion, values and standards (Cateora & Graham, 2007; C. W. . Hill, 2011; Samovar, Porter, & McDaniel, 2007). It typically acts as the bedrock of a society and determines the mannerisms, perceptions and behaviours of the individuals within a cultural grouping (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Tse, Lee, Vertinsky, & Wehrung, 1988). Culture has also been observed to determine the actions of consumers and therefore is a crucial concept used to understand human behaviour (Madupu & Cooley, 2010). Cultures are generally determined based on nationality which establishes the concept of National Culture.

The cultural identity of a country is a key characteristic when observing systematic differences in behaviour between individuals of different nationalities (Steenkamp, 2001). Hofstede (2001) defines national culture as the collective programming of one’s mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of the people from another. National Cultural values are observed to often correspond with personality traits on the individual level (Carpenter & Radhakrishnan, 2000). Thus, plays an important role when attempting to determine how individuals from specific countries are inclined to behave.

Given the typical difficulty in quantifying culture, the following section will explore dimensions that can be used to measure culture in a way that’s can be used for research.

2.2.2 Cultural Identity Dimensions (The UK and Sweden):

When speculating on factors regarding national culture, a measure is required to differentiate and compare the breakdowns of different cultures. The most popular measures in cultural
studies is that of Hofstede’s cultural dimensions (1994). Hofstede’s research is considered by many academics as the flagship means in comparisons of national culture (Caillat & Mueller, 1996; Taylor, Miracle, & Wilson, 1997). His cultural dimensions are considered the most reliable cultural comparison study. Engelen & Brettel (2011) reported that between the years of 1990 and 2008 60% of all published cross-cultural studies within 14 leading marketing and business journals applied the cultural dimensions framework. Hofstede introduced a six-dimensional measure of culture which included; Power Distance, Individualism/Collectivism, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long Term Orientation/ Short Term Orientation, Indulgence/Restraint. The two countries that are being investigated within this thesis are Great Britain and Sweden; whose cultural dimensions are as follows in figure 1.

![Cultural Identity Dimensions Comparison](G Hofstede, 2018)

As can be seen within the figure above, the main differences in terms of cultural dimensions between the United Kingdom and Sweden showcased in the Masculinity dimension. Indulgence and Long-Term Orientation can be seen in the figure to portray small differences in their scores cross culturally. Additionally, within brand personality studies these cultural dimensions are said to be insignificant (Roth, 1995). Hence, these two factors will be excluded from the remainder of this study. In the same study Roth (1995) also highlighted that three other dimensions; Power Distance, Individualism/Collectivism and Uncertainty Avoidance play a role in global brand image performance of a brand. However, due to the minor variations of these dimensions between the United Kingdom and Sweden, these dimensions will also be
excluded from the remainder of this research. As masculinity is the cultural dimension with the only significant difference between the countries, this research will implement masculinity as the main determinants of national culture difference between the United Kingdom and Sweden. Additionally, it has been stated within previous research that masculinity has been highlighted as a key influencing factor in the reception of marketing communications cross culturally (Oh, Rezaei, Ismail, & Valaei, 2016).

Masculinity refers to the extremity of gender roles a country purveys in their behavioural functionality. Cultures with a high masculinity index can be identified based on the heightened emphasis they place on ideals such competition, power, success and performance (G Hofstede, 1994). Whilst cultures that score low on the masculinity index, otherwise known as feminine cultures are perceived to place greater emphasis on values such as teamwork, mutual sacrifice and living standards (Foscht et al., 2008). As per their dimensional score, the authors discern that for the remainder of the study the United Kingdom (66/100) will be classified as a masculine country, whilst Sweden (5/100) will be branded as a feminine country. Wiggins and Holzmuller (1978) state that levels of masculinity in a society form the basic dimensions of social attitude. From a managerial perspective, Chang’s (2005) research found that if marketing communication portrays the user as more masculine, then consumers who consider themselves as similar are normally more enticed to buy such a product. On the contrary, in smaller feminine countries research by De Mooij (1998) suggested that advertising is not very popular, especially when it conveys masculine values.

Now that the key difference culturally between the United Kingdom and Sweden has been discerned, the following section of the literature review will look in to the concept of gender and the role that it plays also in within a culture.

2.2.3 Gender Identity:
It has been argued that gender can connote differences based on either the biological make-up of individuals or the differences based on the cultural roles within a specific nation. At the national cultural level of countries, the set of roles dictated by social values and norms are sometimes referred to as masculine or feminine. Thus, beyond just the biological distinction, gender is used as a tool to explain differences in cultural norms, values and beliefs associated with roles of men and women (Schertzer et al., 2008). Furthermore, gender identity states that
a person’s self-concept has a significant effect on how that given individual may process or interpret information. It has been described as an essential psychological attribute that assists in distinguishing males and females from one another within a culture (Schertzer et al., 2008). Additionally, gender identities have been considered as crucial aspects in addition to culture due to the fact that they critical in shaping the way in which we live our daily lives. Gender, in a similar fashion to race or ethnicity, can function as an organising principle for a countries society, because of the cultural meanings that are given to being males or females (Schalkwyk, 2000). Given the insignificance associated with measuring race and ethnicity however in relation to this study of national culture these factors will be ignored, however this thesis will take gender as an addition to culture in determining dissemination of standardised marketing messages. As aforementioned, Adidas use many Instagram accounts to communicate, with one being that of their Adidas Women account. However, this account has a total of 3 million followers, versus the main accounts 20 million, hence the authors that focus on the largest Instagram account as this is their main means of standardised messaging.

2.2.4: Culture Effect on Consumer Behaviour

National cultural values have long been observed as influential across numerous areas. Understanding the role and the extent to which national culture influences individual behaviour creates insights in to the strength of its appeals. Previous literature has already explored the level of impact these values have on consumer behaviour in differing international markets Aaker & Williams (1998) receptivity and appeals towards advertising Albers-miller & Gelb (1996), as well as individual country of origin perceptions Gurhan-canli & Maheswaran (2000).

There have been several studies exploring the differences in behaviours of individuals cross culturally (Hall, 1989; C. Hill, 2002; Overby, Woodruff, & Gardial, 2005). Generally, the findings align towards a preposition that the culture of individual consumers has significant influence on their consumption decisions and behaviours (Hall, 1989; C. Hill, 2002) Which stems primarily from the role that culture plays in the process of how individuals evaluate independent stimuli (Hall, 1989). The culture of an individual acts similar to a lens according to Overby, Woodruff and Gardial (2005) which plays a role in determining the relative importance of attributes, consequences, or desired end states for consumers. This established a scenario where behaviours of individuals of different nationalities could be predicted to exhibit
differences, even when exposed to the same information, resulting from differences in their national cultures.

2.2.5 Culture and Consumer Behaviour Summary:
This section of the literature review explored the concept of national culture, as well as the effect that the national culture of an individual has on their behaviour and receptivity to independent stimuli. The key takeaway from this section was that culture has been observed in numerous literature to act as a lens, which could produce different behaviours in individuals from different cultures when exposed to a homogenous stimulus (Hall, 1989; C. Hill, 2002; Overby et al., 2005). This section explored the role that the gender of an individual also has on shaping behaviour. With the literature alluding to the fact that gender identity also shapes the manners in which individual process information and their resulting behaviours Schertzzer et al. (2008) and will therefore be considered as an additional facet that determines dissemination of standardised messages on social media. Finally, with the use of G Hofstede (1994) cultural dimensions, the authors distinguished that the only measurable difference between the United Kingdom and Sweden in regards to national culture relevant to this is levels of masculinity. The United Kingdom is considered a masculine country, whilst Sweden is considered a feminine one. Therefore, masculinity will be the determining factor in this study when differentiating the two countries national culture, given the dimensions significance in brand personality studies Roth (1995) and the significant role it plays in the dissemination of marketing communications (Oh et al., 2016).

2.3 Brand Personality and Communication
This section will explore brand personality as a construct, as well as its relationship to the behaviour of the individual who perceives it. Now that it has been discerned that social media channels are transmitting standardised marketing messages across a multicultural consumer base, it becomes important to explore the extent to which culture and gender alters its dissemination. This section will provide insight in to the brand personality scale selected by the authors to measure perception in the two countries. It will then explain the managerial and economic implications that brand personality strategy leads to as a means of determining its importance. As well as completing the Initial framework that the authors will use to determine whether national culture alters the dissemination of standardised marketing messages cross-culturally.
2.3.1 Brand Personality

Marketing literature has in recent years explored the relevant importance of brand personality in managerial practises (Aufreiter & Elzinga, 2003; Wentzel, 2009). Brand personality refers to the set of human characteristics and features consumers strongly associate with a brand (Aaker, 1997). In distinguishing the personality of a brand, consumers apply their prior knowledge and experiences of the brand as a means of classifying it (C. W. Park, Milberg, & Lawson, 1991). Previous literature has explored numerous areas that determine a brand’s personality in the minds of its customers (Batra, Lehmann, & Singh, 1993; Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009; Tong & Hawley, 2009; Wentzel, 2009). The consensus is that brand personality is established through marketing conducted by the company that comes in the form of Advertising, Celebrity/Influencer endorsement and Event sponsorship (Batra et al, 1993; Tong & Hawley, 2009) In addition to this Brakus et al. (2009) explored how physical experiences with a brand can shape how it is perceived. Whilst further studies also explored the effect that the behaviour of individuals associated to the brand such as employees Wentzel (2009) and spokespersons also has an influence on its perceived brand personality (Grohmann, 2009). The authors acknowledge that given the difficulty associated with measuring how brand personality is shaped culturally by individual physical experiences alone, this thesis will not consider this factor. When a brand personality is strongly developed and ideal in the perceptions of the consumer, previous literature has shown that it increases the brand’s perceived value and perception amongst its consumers (Arora & Stoner, 2009; Tong & Hawley, 2009). Strong and favourable perceptions of a brand’s personality have been discovered to establish an attractive brand image (B. J. Kim, Baek, & Martin, 2010). A phenomenon which has consequently been linked positively to overall brand equity and brand loyalty, which the authors explore in greater detail in the following section of this literature review.

Now that the concept of brand personality has been explored, the following section of this literature review will discuss the framework that the authors have selected to quantify the phenomenon of brand personality as a way of statistically comparing the differences in perception of brand personality between the two countries in the study.

2.3.2 Aaker’s Brand Dimensions Scale:

The perception of human personality traits are inferred on the individuals behaviour, personal characteristics, attitudes, and beliefs (B. Park, 1986). On the other hand, the perception of brand personality is influenced by direct or indirect contact that the customer has with the brand. In
order to measure this perception Aaker (1997) developed a framework of brand personality dimensions. By isolating these distinct dimensions versus treating brand personality as a unidimensional construct, the different types of brand personalities can be distinguished, and the multiple ways in which the brand personality construct influences consumer preference may better understood by researchers, marketers, and companies alike. What is deemed to be one of the most important factors, is that the framework and scale are generalizable across multiple product categories (Aaker, 1997). This fact is further argued as a generalisable framework and scale enables researchers to gain a better understanding of the symbolic use of brands in general rather than the symbolic use of brands within a specific industry, product category, or market. As a result, the symbolic nature of brands can be understood at the same level as the utilitarian nature of brands, which tends to be captured by models that are generalizable across product categories.

This model includes five dimensions of brand personality as can be seen in the figure 3 below. The five dimensions that brand personality are divided up into include Sincerity, Excitement, Competence, Sophistication, and Ruggedness. These in turn, have additional levels of traits which make them up. It is not uncommon for researchers to explores the phenomena of brand personality as a whole. However, it can be argued that there are several reasons for focusing research on the dimensional level. Aaker (1997) herself, states that by isolating the distinct dimensions versus treating brand personality as a unidimensional construct, many types of brand personalities can be found. The authors support this claim, as they believe that by isolating the dimensions they will be able to produce insights as to where these variations occur between the two cultures. Additionally, one can find multiple ways in which the brand personality construct influences consumer preference may be understood better’ (Maehle, Otne, & Suppehellen, 2011). Aaker’s Dimensions of Brand Personality is the theory that will be implemented within this thesis as a means of measuring perceived brand personality of respondents from both cultures.
Figure 2: Dimensions of Brand Personality (Aaker, 1997)

Now that the means used to measure brand personality in this study have been explored. The authors will look in to the effect that brand personality has been observed to have in previous literature to shape marketing strategy. The relevance to this study of this is that it allows the authors to determine in which context the findings within this study will be useful from a managerial standpoint.

2.3.4 Brand Personality in Marketing Strategy

Parker (2009) suggests that if firms have a solid understanding of brand personality and the benefits surrounding its utilisation through strategy, they can develop effective means of marketing communications as result. It is a typical practise by marketing managers to carefully design a brand personality they intend to attach to their brand in the minds of their consumers. This is as individuals use their understanding and engagement with symbolic brands to attempt to determine its value (Aaker, 1997). It could be expressed therefore that in scenarios where an individual’s perceived personality of a brand is attractive and mirrors their own perceived self-image, stronger relationships between the consumer and that brand are established. Thomson, MacInnis, & Park (2005) explored how consumers were more likely to build strong emotional attachments to symbolic brands. There is also research to suggest that brands that are perceived
to have very strong personalities when consumed may alter an individual’s perception of self. Kim & John (2008) findings suggest that brands with very strong personalities play a role in the altering of the consumers own self-perception.

Marketing managers can also place emphasis on using brand personality as a means of distinguishing their brand from that of their competitors (Arora & Stoner, 2009; Chu & Sung, 2011). Therefore, managers curate strategy and invest in brand related activities to attempt to ensure that customers’ perception of the brand is identical to their intended brand personality (Burnett & Hutton, 2007). This suggests that only through curating strategy that adjusts (Or are least are conscious) to factors that may lead to alternative interpretations of a brand can manager hope to achieve intended brand personality matching actual brand personality amongst customers. In practise however, the difficulty surrounding achieving this objective is rigged based on the factors that could influence perception in individuals. Factors such as the age, gender, cultural background amongst many others play a role in altering the perception of a brands personality in an individual. Not accounting for those factors and the impact they have on brand personality could lead to a scenario where the consumers don’t necessarily perceive the brand as the company had intended (Malär, Nyffenegger, Krohmer, & Hoyer, 2012).

Various studies have been conducted and found direct influences that perceived brand personality has on the performance of the company (Aaker, 1997; Ha & Janda, 2014). There are major managerial advantages that align with the concept of brand personality. Research by Louis and Lombart (2010) determined the impact that brand personality has on a consumer’s behaviour towards those brands and provides explanations as to why these behaviours take place. Several accompanying studies provide further managerial implications regarding brand personality that could be considered when determining marketing strategy. These include brand personalities’ impact on purchase intention (Wang, Yang, & Liu, 2009), brand commitment & attitudes (Louis Lombart 2010), brand relationship quality Aaker (1997) and brand trust (Ambler, 1997; Ha & Janda, 2014). The following section of the literature review however will focus more on brand personalities impact on brand loyalty within brand equity.

Now that is has been determined by the authors the numerous ways in which brand personality can affect different KPI’s within a business organisation. The authors will explore in greater detail the relevance of brand personality marketing strategy in regards to brand equity, most specifically brand loyalty a core component within brand equity. The relevance of this section
is that the authors can then start to explore means in which the findings of this study can be used to alter brand equity.

2.3.5 Brand Equity

Brand equity relates to the strength of a brand mainly concerning consumers’ responses to that brand which are triggered by marketing activity. The concept of brand equity, despite its in-depth discussion in marketing literature has no universal definition. However, the general consensus around its meaning is centred around the added value a brand provides to a product or service, especially in comparison to a homogenous unbranded offering (Keller, 2009). When managed correctly brand personality can exhibit significant effects on brand equity according to research. Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey (2005) found that brand personality acts as one of the most important factors that influence brand equity in the mind of the consumer. Therefore, strong personalities which allow brands to stand out from its competitors are effective in creating brand value in the mind of the consumers (Freling & Forbes, 2005). It is therefore essential in the creation of brand equity for managers to encompass brand personality strategy. As through designing a brand equity management strategy that is centred around brand personality, firms are better positioned to achieve customer satisfaction, and increase profit levels from their customers, especially within the sportswear industry (Rajagopal, 2006). In the context of Aaker’s brand personality scale, previous literature has shown that within the sportswear industry some dimensions correlate better with the creation of brand equity. This research showed that scoring high in Competence and Sincerity was linked to increased brand equity in sportswear and therefore companies should invest in advertising, endorsements and sponsorships in a way that promote these aspects of their brands image (Radder and Huang 2008, Tong and Hawley, Misra 1990). Another example of this can be traced to research conducted by Maehle, Otnes, & Suppehellen (2011) who explored a positive relationship between sportswear brands that were perceived to be high in Sincerity were linked to an ideal that those sportswear brands were high in quality, performance and displayed a family orientated image.

Of the components that attribute to brand equity, the authors have decided to focus in greater detail on the concept of brand loyalty. The reason brand loyalty has been specified is its measurability when related to individual personality factors, which the authors will discuss later in this literature review. The following section of this literature will therefore explore the concept of brand loyalty and how it can be shaped and determined in individuals through brand
personality strategy. The relevance of this to the study is that if it can be determined how brand loyalty is impacted in relation to brand personality the authors can discern how brand loyalty could vary culturally due to standardised marketing messages on social media.

2.3.5.1 Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty refers to the extent that individuals remain rigged in their commitment to a certain brand or product. For the purpose of the research objectives the authors opted to explore the phenomenon of affective brand loyalty and its resulting impact on overall brand equity. Affective loyalty refers to when individuals express favourable feelings and emotions towards a brand. As well as a feeling of connection between consumer and brand establishing a preference for that brand (Grohmann, 2009). Where congruency exists between consumer and brand, there is an increased likelihood of positive emotions towards the brand (Malär et al., 2011; Nikhashemi & Valaei, 2018). In this scenario, academic research has shown that establishing ideal brand personalities can directly lead to heightened levels of affective brand loyalty (Ha & Janda, 2014; Nikhashemi & Valaei, 2018). Brand loyalty has been identified as a priority in various literature for firms due to the benefits of establishing a loyal customer base (Eakuru & Mat, 2008; Kuenzel & Vaux Halliday, 2008; Nikhashemi & Valaei, 2018). This is due to its links that have been discovered between brand loyalty and reduced-price sensitivity in consumers, as well as the increased likelihood of word of mouth marketing by consumers (Schiffman, L, O’Cass, A, Paladino, A, & Carlson, 2013). All of which are related to increased likelihood of improved financial performance of the brand. This study will therefore determine the effect that altered brand personality perceptions could have on brand loyalty cross culturally. Das (2014a, 2014b) explored the correlation between brand loyalty and profitability, finding that just a small increase in affective loyalty can result in sizeable growth in profitability. In the sportswear industry, the major firms compete for both market share and brand loyalty, which places great emphasis on them optimising their strategy in regard to their brand personality (Tong & Hawley, 2009). In order to align with the ideals of their customers they are targeting.

Brand Personality and Loyalty Summary

This section of the Literature Review explored the concept of brand personality, how it is measured and the relevance to this study. The key takeaways from this section is that perception of brand personality has been explored in previous literature to be shaped in by culture as well
as gender Malär et al. (2012) which provides insight in this study for the authors to build on in order to achieve the research goals. Additionally, this chapter determined that where congruency exist between consumer and brand there is a likelihood to increased levels of affective brand loyalty for that brand (Ha & Janda, 2014; Malär et al., 2011; Nikhashemi & Valaei, 2018). A phenomenon that is linked to increased levels of customer profits and customer satisfaction especially within the sportswear industry (Rajagopal, 2006). Increased affective brand loyalty also directly attributes to increased brand equity, which in turn could result in decreased price sensitivity in consumers (Sciffman 2013). Finally this section explored the tool in which the authors will measure brand personality in this study as a means of quantifying it to better determine whether differences exist cross culturally.

2.4 Masculinity, The Big Five and Brand Personality

This final section of the literature review will explore the dimension of Masculinity as a means of determining personality traits that can be associated to individuals within a country based of the level of masculinity associated to that culture. This will be done using research that places personality predictors on individual in a country based on its cultural dimensions. Once these personality predictors have been established the authors can connect these to brand personality as a means of establishing a link between personality of individuals in a country based on their Hofstede score alone and the relation that as to brand personality. Through doing so the authors may be able to determine whether congruency between individuals within a country and their resulting perceived personality of a brand can be tracked to theorise which brand personality dimensions are most ideal within the separate cultures.

In a similar fashion to which brand personality maps out the perceived traits of a brand, the Big Five factor model of human personality distinguishes the structure of an individual’s personality. The significance of the “Big five” in this study is its relationship to Hofstede’s cultural dimensions. Hofstede’s scale provides us with measurable dimensions of national culture, however fails to inform us on how these dimensions reflect in the form of personalities of individuals within than culture. This provides the authors with limitations regarding measuring how affective brand loyalty can be determined. As without an understanding of personality dimensions within a culture, it cannot be determined which brand personality dimensions are deemed as most attractive to the individuals within these community resulting in affective brand loyalty.
The Big Five model, similar to Aaker’s brand personality model is also comprised of five key dimensions. These dimensions score individuals based on their levels of Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Neuroticism (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1997).

Extraversion relates to the individual’s levels of optimism, excitement, assertiveness, ambitiousness and gregariousness (Robie, Brown, & Bly, 2005). Openness is centred around an individual’s willingness to explore new ideas as well as their fascination towards novelty and aesthetics (Gunkel, Schlaegel, Langella, & Peluchette, 2010; McCrae & Costa, 1997). Agreeableness is reflected in an individual’s levels of cooperation amongst others as well as their friendliness and their warmth. Conscientiousness highlights the levels of perseverance, industriousness, dependability and trustworthiness of an individual (Martin, 2002). Finally, Neuroticism describes the state or extent of emotional instability, anxiety and stress individual displays. Also, in a similar fashion to the Brand personality model, individuals are given a score on all five dimensions and are likely to score high on some dimensions and lower on others (McCrae & Costa, 1997).

Research by Hofstede & McCrae (2004) established a link between the culture and personality and effectively translated the cultural dimension scores in to individual personality predictors. These can be used to more accurately determined the personality profiles of individuals within a culture based on that nations Hofstede score. Given the emphasis on this study to only one Hofstede dimension, which was Masculinity due to its significant difference in level between the United Kingdom and Sweden. The authors will only highlight research of Hosftede and McCrae study that relates to Masculinity levels resulting in differences in personality predictors traits amongst individuals. These are displayed in Figure 3
Masculine cultures, as explored previously in this literature review places greater emphasis on ideals that are centred around competition and ego such as money, intangible rewards etc (Hofstede 1994). Unlike feminine culture who place greater emphasis on relationships, quality of life etc (Hofstede 1994). The following paragraph will map out the relationship of these cultural groups in regards to the big five.

Highly masculine counties were found to house individuals more open to experience when compared to feminine countries (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). A phenomenon that could be linked to the competitive nature of the society. However, the relationship between the two dimensions was significantly weaker here than it was in the other personality predictors (ADJ. R2 = 0.13). Coupling the weak relationship with the lack of conclusive theory to explain the relationship by Hofstede and McCrae (2004) the authors decided to omit this predictor from the study. Highly masculine countries were also found to house individuals who exhibited heightened levels of Neuroticism (ADJ. R2 = 0.55) (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). These findings have been supported and are conclusive with other similar studies. Arrindell, Steptoe, & Wardle (2003) conducted a study amongst students which also showed that symptoms of depression were higher in masculine countries compared to feminine ones. Whilst another study by Hofstede displayed that higher levels of job stress were exhibited by employees in masculine
countries compared to feminine countries amongst employees within the same international organisation based in different international locations. Finally, there was a negative relationship between Masculinity and individuals who exhibited high levels of Extraversion (ADJ.R2 = 0.46). Extraversion was observed to be a more prevalent trait amongst individuals from feminine cultures. Which Hofstede alluded to could be linked to the differences in the cultural value autonomy and the placing of pleasure over expertise in feminine countries (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004).

These findings assist the authors in linking personally traits of individuals within a culture to preferences for brands within that culture. The authors want to express that the use of the Big Five is strictly to assist in establishing predictors from Hofstede dimension of masculinity. The model that will be implemented within this thesis to measure brand personality within the two cultures is that of Aaker’s dimensions of brand personality. The following section will explore how these personality traits have been observed to translate in to brand preferences for brands that have specific perceived brand personalities. As understanding this will authors to theorise what dimensions should be emphasised in the two countries to promote ideal results.

2.4.1 Big Five and Brand Personality

Big five personality traits have been observed in literature to coincide with preferences for certain brands. Now that Big five Personality predictors have been established, the authors will explore how these personality dimensions have been observed to correlate with brand preferences amongst certain brand personality preferences using previous research (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). Through doing so the authors can theorise what brand personality traits could be deemed as most attractive amongst individuals within a certain country, resulting in the increased likelihood of positive effects on affective brand loyalty as supported by previous literature (Grohmann, 2009; Ha & Janda, 2014; Nikhashemi & Valaei, 2018). The authors could also explore whether gender plays a role in preferences towards brands once personality traits of the individuals based on culture have been taken in to account. Research by Fischer & Arnold (1994) hypothesised that gender is a factor in the decision-making processes that relate to an individual’s influences regarding consuming certain brands. Further research by Grohmann (2009) explored that the personality of a brand had a greater effect on affective loyalty in women than in men. Whilst more specified findings by Piacentini & Mailer (2004) found that male and females can form preferences in a manner that are inconsistent with one another. Their
research showed that males and females with similar personality traits can exhibit preferences for brands with contrasting brand personality traits. Thus, making it of importance for the authors to explore the relationship between big five personality and preference in brand personality by gender also.

Research by Mulyanegara, Tsarenko, & Anderson (2009) explored ideal brand personality traits for individuals based on their aspects of their personality as well as their gender. This research found that males from Feminine countries, who according to the personality predictors within this research are likely to be more Extraverted than their counterparts from Masculine countries Hofstede & McCrae (2004) are attracted to brands that are deemed as Exciting. However, in determining the matrix of Exciting is their study, Mulyanegara et al. (2009) adopted an adjusted brand personality scale that combined traits from Aaker's (1997) model from both Excitement and Ruggedness dimension, and therefore the authors opted to omit this research from their investigation due to the inconsistency. It was also found in this research, that males from masculine countries were likely to place greater emphasis on the level of Competence of brands they consume (Mulyanegara et al., 2009). This could be attributed to the fact that individuals within these countries are predicted to be more neurotic, Hofstede & McCrae (2004) and therefore are more likely to stray from brands that they cannot trust, due to their nature to of expressing anxiety and worry. The same study also attributed that males in highly masculine countries are more attracted to and therefore more likely to engage with brands that they consider to be Sincere. This again is due to the fact that individuals in highly masculine countries are predicted to be more Open to Experience than those in feminine ones ( Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). However, the researchers did not provide a theory to explain this relationship. The authors can therefore only theorise that due to their willingness to try new things and explore new ideas Gunkel et al. (2010); McCrae & Costa (1997) who are open to experience tend to be drawn to new brands portray preference to brands that they consider to be genuine, real and honest in lieu to ones that they a cannot trust. Whilst in the same study, when it came to females, highly sincere brands were shown to be preference of females in more feminine countries instead of in masculine countries as it was amongst males (Mulyanegara et al., 2009). This was highlighted as due to predictors that stated that individuals within feminine countries are more extraverted that in masculine ones ( Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). The fact that there were inconsistences between the preference towards high sincerity brands amongst males and females with different personality types was in accordance with the research from (Piacentini & Mailer, 2004). The preference for Sincere brands amongst extraverted females
again was provided with no explanation by the researchers. However, the authors can assume that given their nature to exhibit heightened levels of assertiveness, ambitiousness and gregariousness Robie et al. (2005), as well as their likelihood to be expressive and outspoken that they find affinity in brands that they consider to be Wholesome Original and Real (Aaker, 1997). Which aligns with the fact that individuals may consume brands as a means of projecting their own self-identity (Hogg, Cox, & Keeling, 2000).

The final section of the literature review explores research that links Masculinity to Big Five dimensions that were in turn used to explore where congruency can be expected between individuals in a culture and brands with certain personalities. The key takeaway from this section is that in accordance with research from Hofstede & McCrae (2004) individuals in masculine countries can be foreseen to have the personality traits of high neuroticism, high openness to experience and low extraversion. Whilst, individuals in feminine countries can be predicted to have low levels of neuroticism, low levels of openness to experience and high levels of extraversion. This is turn with support from the research from Mulyanegara et al. (2009) was used by the authors to theorise that men in masculine countries have a preference to brands they consider to be high in competence and sincerity in comparison to men in feminine countries. Whilst females in feminine countries have a preference to for high sincere brands in comparison to females in masculine countries. The relevance of this to this study is that the authors can determine how standardised marketing messages are being disseminated by both men and woman in the two countries, and whether that perceived brand personality of these groups can be connected with higher or lower levels of affective brand loyalty by these groups.
3 Empirical framework:

Now that literature has been explored in relevant to the research objectives of this study, the authors use this research to establish a framework in which the results of this study will be analysed. This will form the basis of this research and provide hypothesis for which this study will be based on. This section will exhibit the authors frameworks that will be used to measure the hypothesise.

The first research question of this study is;

Do national culture and gender identity play a role in the perception of brand personality of international brands in the sportswear fashion industry?

The authors have opted to measure this in the form of how standardised marketing messages from Adidas on social media can result in differently perceived brand personality for individuals in the United Kingdom and Sweden. As explored in the previous section, Adidas does not have a specified Instagram page for Sweden, therefore it is assumed by the authors that individuals in Sweden are most likely to engage with Adidas on social media via its primary Instagram page (@Adidas). This primary Instagram page for the brand communicates in English and communicates to individuals from various cultural backgrounds. Therefore, given the international marketing nature of this social media platform fuelled by its global reach, the marketing messages transmitted by this page are considered by the authors to be standardised marketing messages.

Standardised marketing messages face the possibility of being disseminated in different ways based on the characteristics of the individual receiving it. Both the national culture of the individual Hall (1989); C. Hill (2002); Overby et al. (2005) and the gender of the individual (Foscht et al., 2008; Mulyanegara et al., 2009; Schertzer et al., 2008) have been observed to alter the way the message is interpreted. Which in turn can lead to differences in the way individuals from certain national cultures perceive that brands personality.

As was mentioned within the literature review, the only significant difference between the two national cultures of the United Kingdom and Sweden is levels of Masculinity (G Hofstede, 1994). Therefore, Masculinity will represent the sole national cultural dimension used by this framework to differentiate the two countries. The additional element of the effect that gender has on the reception of these messages on perceived brand personality will also be explored.
This established a framework that measures whether standardised marketing messages by Adidas on Instagram leads to differences perceptions in the brand personality of Adidas. It filters perception based on the differences in masculinity, as well as the additional filter of gender. The brand perception of Adidas in the two countries will be measured by the Aaker (1997) brand personality scale.

\[ H^1 \] Individuals from the UK and Sweden exhibit significant differences in Brand Personality based on standardised marketing on Instagram by Adidas.

\[ H^2 \] Males and Females from the UK and Sweden exhibit significant differences in Brand Personality based on standardised marketing on Instagram by Adidas.

The second research question of this study is;

*Can the classification of a national culture as Masculine or Feminine be used to determine brand preferences of Male and Female consumers in that country within the sportswear fashion industry?*

Upon understanding the extent to which national culture as well as gender has of the perceived brand personality based on standardised messages. The authors opt to use these findings to
determine whether brand preferences in the sportswear industry can be determined in individuals based on their country’s masculinity classification and gender alone.

Previous literature has provided insight into how individuals from masculine cultures can be predicted to be more Neurotic and Open to experience than their counterpart from feminine cultures (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). Whilst on the contrary individuals from more feminine countries can be predicted to express higher levels of extraversion. Mulyanegara et al. (2009) states that based on an individual’s personality profile and gender it can be determined which brand personality dimensions are the most attractive to that individual leading to a preference. In relevance to this study, it was observed that brands which are high in Sincerity and/or Competence for men in masculine countries and brands that are high in Sincerity for women in Feminine countries were the ones that established brand preferences (Mulyanegara et al., 2009).

This framework applies Hofstede & McCrae's (2004) personality predictors to the UK and Sweden based on their respective statuses as masculine and feminine cultures. These personality predictors in accordance with perceived brand personality of Adidas will provide insight into whether brand preference exists, as according to the research of (Mulyanegara et al., 2009). This framework may therefore be able to determine brand preference, by comparing perceptions of a specific brand personality dimension cross culturally amongst Adidas consumer. Theory states that individuals who exhibit preference for a specific brand personality dimension are more likely to perceive that dimension higher in brands that they consume (H. Kim & John, 2008). Therefore, when compared cross culturally the dimension to which one group is theorised to have preference over another should be perceived to a greater level by that group.

This framework is developed to determine whether standardised messaging on social media by Adidas is effective in creating brand preferences cross culturally amongst males and females by enhancing the brand personality group that these groups consider more attractive.
Figure 5: Perceived Brand Personality’s effect on Brand Preference

$H^3$ – Male consumers of Adidas in the United Kingdom score Adidas as significantly more Competent than male consumers of Adidas in Sweden?

$H^4$ – Male consumers of Adidas in the United Kingdom score the Adidas as significantly more Sincere than male consumers of Adidas in Sweden?

$H^5$ – Female consumers of Adidas in the United Kingdom score Adidas as significantly more Sincere than female consumers of Adidas in Sweden?
4 Methodology:

This section discusses the authors choice of research philosophy, research purpose, research approach, and research technique. Additionally, it discusses the data collection techniques that are implemented in the research. Lastly, reliability and validity of the authors research is discussed.

Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill (2009) present a model appropriately named the Research Onion. The onion consists of many layers and processes that the researchers must complete in order to develop a sound research methodology. The process starts in the outer layers of the onion and work their way into the middle in which the final step of the methodology, the data collection and data analysis, is reached. The first step that the authors must complete is that of formulating a research philosophy. This chapter will follow the format of the onion in order to explain the different stages of the methodological development.

4.1 Research Philosophy:

The research philosophy can be viewed as the set of assumptions about the way in which one understands the world (Saunders et al., 2009). According to Saunders et al. (2009) there are four main research philosophies, positivism, realism, interpretivism, and finally pragmatism. Interpretivism is a philosophic stance that emphasises the differences between humans that are present in society. Interpretivism has a subjective view and focuses to a large extent on the details of situations and the details that lie behind these (Saunders et al., 2009). This further emphasises the difference between conducting research on people, rather than on objects such as goods and/or products. Realism is a philosophical stance that is related largely to scientific enquiry. Realism states that what the mind and the senses show us is the absolute truth, thus arguing objects have an existence that is independent of the human mind. It is stated by Saunders et al. (2009) that if research reflects the philosophy of positivism then the authors of said research will most likely adopt the philosophical stance of a natural scientist as only phenomena that can be observed will lead to the production of data. Pragmatism argues that if the research questions that are investigated do not suggest unanimously that the authors must either implement a positivist or interpretivist philosophy then pragmatism is perfect as it is a combined version of the two (Saunders et al., 2009).

The authors have chosen to implement a positivist philosophy within their thesis. To generate a research strategy to collect this data the authors are likely to use an existing theory, in this
case Aaker's (1997) dimensions of Brand Personality to measure the results of the aforementioned hypotheses. These hypotheses will be tested and will either be refuted or confirmed, in order to reach the research objectives. Furthermore, it is believed that the research is undertaken, in a value-free way. Thus, the researchers claim to be independent to the process of collecting data in the sense that there is little the researcher can do to alter the data itself. Additionally, the researcher is independent of, neither is affected nor affects the topic that is being researched (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.2 Research Approach:
There are two main approaches to conducting research, including inductive and deductive (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). Induction starts by collecting data, where in most cases this data is qualitative, in order to assist the researchers in acquiring a broad understanding of the phenomena or concept that is being investigated. The second step is to interpret the collected data and analyse it, in which the results will be used to form a theoretical framework. Deduction is seen as the opposite of induction from the sense that it involves the development of a theory that is subjected to rigorous testing within research. It is argued that deductive approach has most commonly been used within quantitative research however, it has been known to be present in qualitative research as well. The first step associated with deduction involves establishing a premise or an idea based on a theory. The next step focuses on the reading of literature in order to allow the authors to discover whether their theory will contribute to a deeper understanding of the concept. Finally, the third step is to collect data and to empirically test the theory to be able to either accept or reject it (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). However, there are some cases where using an inductive or inductive approach may limit the research, in which an abductive approach may be more suitable (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009). Abduction is a combination of induction and deduction as it moves back and forth between the two main approaches. This approach may begin with the researcher identifying an interesting phenomena based on observation. One can then move towards theories that can be linked to the observation where upon one finally conducts data collection to confirm the research question developed earlier (Saunders et al., 2009).

Deduction is the research approach that was chosen by the authors as it is most suitable for this thesis. During the early stages of deciding what the authors would like the topic of this thesis to be they made an observation regarding how sportswear fashion is perceived differently in
their separate cultures. Upon researching the authors discovered a theory that was used to determine how brand personality was perceived by consumers (Aaker, 1997). The authors developed hypothesis based on the theory predicting how brand personality would be perceived differently by the two cultures in question. The next step is that of conducting the investigation, in which the authors implement 42 traits developed by Aaker (1997) in order to determine how brand personality is perceived by the respondents.

4.3 Research Strategy:
A research strategy is defined as a plan of action that is implemented by the authors in order to achieve their goal, which is in turn how they will answer their research question (Saunders et al., 2009). Some examples of research strategies include: case studies, experiments, surveys, action research, grounded theory, ethnography, and archival research. From the aforementioned options, the authors are of the opinion that Surveys are the most applicable (Saunders et al., 2009). This strategy allows the researchers to gather data and use quantitative techniques to analyse said data. Additionally, it is argued that the data collected using a survey can be analysed to suggest possible reasons for relationships between independent and dependent variables and to produce models of these possible relationships (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009).

4.4 Data Collection:
Within this thesis, the authors utilize both primary and secondary data. The primary data consists of results that were gathered from a survey, otherwise known as a questionnaire, sent out to Generation Y individuals from both Sweden and the United Kingdom. The secondary data refers to existing data and theories that were obtained from previous literature and academic journals.

4.4.1 Primary Data:
As aforementioned, primary data will be utilised in order to provide the authors with insight pertaining to the research objectives. This primary data will consist of questionnaires that are completed by consumers of Adidas from both Sweden and the United Kingdom. A questionnaire, whether in the form a schedule, and interview form, or a measuring instrument, is a formalised set of questions for obtaining information from respondents (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Any successful questionnaire has three main objectives. The first being to translate the
information required to meet the research objectives into questions that respondents complete. Secondly, it must encourage and motivate the respondent to become cooperative, involved and willing to complete the entire survey. Finally, it should minimize the possibility for response error (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

4.4.2 Questionnaire Design and Administration:

The first part of a questionnaire should consist of an explanation of the underlying reasons for having respondents fill out the survey. It is a quick introduction to the topic and the authors explain why they want the respondents to fill in the survey. Dillman (2007) argues that in order to receive as a high a response rate as possible, this explanation should be on the first page of the questionnaire (as cited in Saunders et al., 2009). He additionally suggests that the authors may want to include a logo on the front page to add interest and set the questionnaire apart from others. Since the respondents’ results were measured and saved on Qualtrics, and the authors accounts were part of an account owned by Jönköping International Business School, the universities logo was located in the top left corner on every page. This could increase the number of respondents complete the survey as it the logo presents a level of heightened credibility.

The questionnaire was made up of 17 questions, which can be seen in appendix 7.1, where the first three questions are demographic questions asking nationality, age, and gender of the respondents. The next question asks if the respondents own any Adidas apparel, where if they said “Yes” some context questions will be asked, and if they say no then these will be skipped. If the respondents answered yes then the following questions include the frequency in which they use Adidas sportswear apparel, the contexts in which they wear their Adidas apparel, and how often the respondents frequent Adidas social media pages. These are to gather an overall understanding of how the respondents use Adidas apparel in their respective nationalities. Next the respondents are prompted to watch a short Adidas commercial, showcasing an example of their use of standardised marketing on social media. The video presented in the survey is a genuine standardised marketing message that Adidas frequented on their primary Instagram page. They are then asked how many of the endorsers that they recognise as this may affect their results. On the next page the authors explain what the consumers are to expect in the next section. In addition, they state that there are no right or wrong answers thus attempting to minimalize the risk of participant error and participant bias. The respondents are presented with a total of 42 traits, spread over 5 pages, and are subsequently asked to describe the extent to
which they find the traits as descriptive of the brand Adidas. The 42 traits are divided into their dimensions, hence the five pages represent the five dimensions identified by (Aaker, 1997). A Five-Point-Likert scale will be used to simplify the task of analysing the data during the analysis section of the thesis. The Likert scale will range from not at all descriptive to extremely descriptive as is recommended within previous literature (Bearden & Netemeyer, 1999). The respondents are given a sixth option which they can choose if they do not understand the meaning of the trait from a descriptive standpoint or feel that is not applicable to Adidas. Finally, the respondents are asked to describe Adidas in three words. They are then thanked for taking part in the questionnaire and that their results have been recorded.

The questionnaire will be administered through the social media pages of both authors of this thesis. The authors posted the link on social media platforms such as Facebook and Twitter. They then encouraged their peers to complete the questionnaire by providing a little background to their research. This acted as a cover letter since it explained the premise of the thesis which in turn provided a larger incentive for potential respondents to complete the survey.

4.4.3 Secondary Data:
Secondary data refers to the action of reanalysing existing data that have been gathered from previous literature or organizations, allowing that data to contribute to the ongoing research and its purpose through providing useful information (Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al. (2009) argues that there are three main types of secondary data; these include survey based data, documentary data, and data compiled from numerous sources. The secondary data that is used within this thesis include the cultural identity dimensions (G Hofstede, 2018). The different scores that Sweden and the UK had, specifically that of masculinity are implemented within the analysis section of this thesis.

4.5 Sampling:
To explore the research objectives, the authors must use the sample that can provide the best answer for the research question and best test the hypotheses. Sometimes, within research it is possible to collect data from every member of the population, which is known as a consensus. However, for most research questions and objectives it is of limited possibility for the authors to either collect or analyse all the data available to them due to time and financial restrictions amongst others. Sampling therefore provides a number of different methods and techniques that can be implemented in order to reduce the amount of required data (Saunders et al., 2009). This
can be accomplished by only collecting data from a smaller percentage of the population, in which the results of research can sometimes be generalised. For this thesis, it is impractical to conduct research using the entire population as the countries being examined are the United Kingdom and Sweden. Therefore, the authors must use sampling to reduce the size of the population and make generalisations. There are two main types of sampling; including probability sampling and non-probability sampling. During probability sampling each case being selected from the population is known and is usually equal for all cases. This is not the case for non-probability sampling as the probability of each case being selected from the population is unknown. For the purpose of this thesis, non-probability sampling is the most relevant technique.

4.5.1 Sample Size:
Since the data that is collected within thesis is that of a quantitative nature, the sample size will be significantly larger than if it were of qualitative nature (Saunders et al., 2009). Surveys will be conducted by respondents in both the United Kingdom and Sweden, hence the number must be large enough in each country to allow for inaccuracies. Around 100 respondents from each of the countries was deemed to be appropriate by the authors based on previous literature. This allows for there to be some anomalies such as surveys that are not completed in a fashion that ensures reliability. Some examples of this include the survey being completed too quickly, which can be monitored by Qualtrics, the online platform that will be used by the author in this study to collate and store the results (Qualtrics, 2018).

4.5.2 Purposive Sampling:
Purposive or judgemental sampling enables you to use your judgement to select cases that will best enable you to answer your research question and to meet your objectives (Saunders et al., 2009). One of the most popular strategies associated with purposive sampling is that of homogeneous sampling. Homogeneous sampling focuses on one particular sub-group in which all the sample members are the same, which enables the researcher to study the group in a greater depth (Saunders et al., 2009). Since the authors are conducting research based on having generation Y individuals as respondents this is the best possible sample. The authors of this thesis plan to use social media as the communication channel in which their message will be communicated to consumers. Due to this fact, the sample will be based on those who are more likely to be active on this communication platform. Generation Y are individuals that are born
after 1981 and before 1999 with one key characteristic being their early and frequent exposure to technology (Bolton et al., 2013). Generation Y individuals rely largely on technology for entertainment purposes, as well as a tool for interaction with their peers, and other general research purposes. In addition to the increased usage of social media amongst generation Y individuals, an investigation states that 53% of social media users follow a brand (Bolton et al., 2013), hence are exposed to marketing messaging from brands on the platforms. Due to the limitation that the authors do not have access to certain resources that would simplify the process of increasing the sample size outside of their peer group they opted for the use purposive sampling. The authors of this study are both members of Generation Y, hence aspects of the sample will include their peers. One of the authors is British origin whilst the other is Swedish origin so the sample in parts may feature the inclusion of their peers from the respective countries.

4.5.3 Snowballing:
Since the sample size was deemed to be appropriate at 100 respondents from each country the authors were required to implement snowballing as a sampling technique. Due to the sheer size of the sample that was deemed appropriate by the authors, purposive sampling did not provide a large enough number of respondents. The process of snowballing is to identify a case within the population, then ask this case to identify additional cases. This process is repeated until the number of respondents is deemed to be appropriate. The authors opted for this process upon realisation that they would fall short of the number of respondents. Hence, prompting them to seek further references from individuals who had already completed the survey.

4.6 Credibility and Quality of Research:
It is argued that a researcher cannot guarantee that their findings will be completely accurate, however the researcher can reduce the risk of collecting faulty data by emphasizing two core concepts; reliability and validity (Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al. (2009) defines reliability as the extent to which the data collection techniques or analysis procedures of said data will yield consistent findings. Validity makes reference to the extent to which the data and research candidly show their real meaning or not (Saunders et al., 2009). The next section will explain in greater detail the precautions and considerations made by the authors to control for validity and reliability.
4.6.1 Data Reliability:

Robson (2002) proposes that there are four main threats to research reliability; subject or participants error, subject or participants bias, observer error, and observer bias (as cited in Saunders et al., 2009).

Subject or participant error is the threat of receiving different responses from consumers at different moments. This risk may occur due to the respondent not understanding a question, or basing their answer according to their current mood at the given time of answering the survey. This risk for the most part occurs during personal interviews or surveys, it is less likely to occur during online surveys. The authors deem it a difficult task to completely control factors pertaining to time in the distribution of this survey, especially consider the nature of the study as cross cultural. However, precaution was made in the distribution of the surveys to limit the possibility of subject/participant error.

Subject or Participant bias occurs when the respondent answers a question in a way that they may deem to be most appropriate. For example, a respondent may want to portray that they love the brand in question, Adidas in this case, because they feel that this is the correct answer and they want to assist the authors. The authors have stated firmly in the survey that they want the respondents to answer the questions as openly and honestly as possible in order to increase the reliability of their answers, as well as expressing that there were no right or wrong answers in regard to the survey. Subject or participant bias may also occur due to personal risk, which was controlled for by the authors choosing to have the respondents remain anonymous.

Observer error is the risk associated with the way in which questions are asked by interviewers, hence this risk largely applies to qualitative research. As the authors of this thesis use a survey to gather data, the questions are asked in the exact same way for each of the respondents, which in turn eliminates the likelihood observer risk.

Observer bias is the risk that occurs when an observer prompts the respondent to answer in a certain way that they have deemed to be more favourable. This risk has been reduced again due to the authors having expressed within the survey instructions that there are no right or wrong answers, thus attempting to ensure that respondents answer questions in the way that they feel is correct. Mitchell (1996) outlines that there are three main methods that can be implemented in order to test reliability, specifically within quantitative research, in addition to comparing the
collected data to previously collected data from other literature (as cited in Saunders et al., 2009). These three methods include, test re-test, internal consistency, and alternative form.

Test re-test estimates reliability based on the comparison of collected data, with other data collected in as similar a setting as possible. This therefore means that the survey should be administered twice to same sample. The authors are of the view that this will not be possible in the administration of this survey. Primarily due to the time restraint, as well as the increased difficulty of administrating a re-test in a study that offers no tangible reward to respondents, due to lack of resources. Therefore, will not implement a re-test in this study.

Internal consistency measures the consistency of responses across all the included questions or a sub-group of the questions within the questionnaire. The most common method used to complete this reliability test is Cronbach’s Alpha test (Saunders et al., 2009). This test will be implemented by the authors during the analysis section of the thesis. It is argued that when the authors select which scale they are going to implement into their study it is important that they choose one that is reliable. In order for the scale to be deemed reliable it must score at least a .7 (Pallant, 2016).

Alternative form offers another sense of reliability as it compares responses to a question with the responses to another question, which acts as the same question phrased in an alternative way. This tends to be common within longer surveys, and it is argued that it is difficult to ensure that the questions are equivalent, hence the authors did not include the alternative forms of questions within their survey.

4.6.2. Data Validity:
Prior to using a survey to collect data, it is required to complete a pilot test. The purpose of conducting a pilot test is to refine the survey to ensure that the respondents have no problem with answering questions, and that there are no problems with collecting the data (Saunders et al., 2009). Additionally, this technique will allow the authors to obtain some general assessment of the questions’ validity, as well as some reliability of the data which will be collected. Before the pilot test is sent out to respondents, it is argued by Saunders et al. (2009) that the authors should contact an expert to examine the sustainability and structure of the questions. The authors have access to a tutor for their thesis namely an assistant professor in business administration and PhD in Business Administration, specialising in marketing, whom they
discussed the layout and design of their survey with. Upon receiving feedback, the authors made changes to the layout by adding additional questions concerning the context in which respondents use Adidas sportswear apparel etc. The number of people who should take part in the pilot test is completely dependent on the size of the research, the funds that the researchers possess, and the timeframe in which the investigation must be completed. For large surveys this number should be somewhere between the 100 and 200 persons’ mark, whereas the general rule of thumb for student driven surveys, then a minimum of 10 will suffice.
5 Empirical Data & Discussion:

In this section, the authors present the results that were gathered from the questionnaire they distributed to respondents. Tables containing data will be provided to better portray the findings, after which those findings will be discussed. The questionnaire was administered by the authors to their peers using purposive, and snowball sampling as was mentioned in the previous section.

5.1 Preparing the Data Set

This section explains the processes undertaken by the authors relating to the data to ensure it was valid for the resulting discussion. Initially, the data is cleaned based on demographics and other inaccuracies. Proceeding the cleaning of the data, the brand personality dimensions’ scores collected from the respondents is tested for reliability.

Table 1: Total Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequencies: Total Respondents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>36,7</td>
<td>38,2</td>
<td>38,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>43,7</td>
<td>45,5</td>
<td>83,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>15,6</td>
<td>16,2</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>96,0</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4,0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 above contains the total number of respondents that had partaken in the questionnaire. As can be seen, the total number of questionnaires that were started and recorded was 327. The 13 respondents that are missing from the sample include respondents that had begun filling in the questionnaire did not complete it. Therefore, the total number of completed questionnaires is 314. To be able to begin the process of analysis the authors are required to clean the total data sample. Immediately, it becomes apparent that out of the total sample, n=314, 51 of the respondents were not from the United Kingdom or Sweden. Therefore, of the total number of completed surveys, n=314, 120 were of British nationality, 143 were of Swedish nationality,
and 51 respondents were from other countries. These 51 respondents are excluded from the sample on the premise that they do not assist the authors in answering the research questions. The research focuses purely on Swedish and British therefore respondents from other countries were excluded from the data set. Therefore, the total number of respondents from the investigated countries becomes n=263 as can be seen in Table 2 below.

The next step was that of filtering out respondents that are not part of generation Y seeing as these respondents are within the incorrect age demographic. As was mentioned previously in this study, generations Y consumers were the focus group for the authors. Given the timeframe that this survey was published, Generation Ys were qualified as being between the ages of 20-30. Table 4.2 below shoes the number of respondents present within each age demographic.

Table 2: Respondents Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequencies: Age of Respondents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-19</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3,0</td>
<td>3,0</td>
<td>3,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>72,6</td>
<td>72,6</td>
<td>75,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>17,1</td>
<td>17,1</td>
<td>92,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31&lt;</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7,2</td>
<td>7,2</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next stage was to clean the data of incomplete questionnaires, and answers that were deemed to be examples of participant errors or participant bias. Some examples of these errors include questionnaires that were completed much faster than the average time of that respondents needed to complete the survey. Additionally, the respondents who had clicked through the entire questionnaire choosing the same number on the Likert scale were deleted to increase the reliability of the total data. The cleaning of data decreased the total number of respondents included in the sample from 263 to 205. As can be seen in Table 3 below, once the sample had been scanned for anomalies the authors created a cross-tabulation, describing the number of British versus Swedish respondents, as well as the number of each of gender within their respective nationalities.
### Table 3: Cross-tabulation Nationality vs Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>British</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% within Nationality</td>
<td>48,9%</td>
<td>50,0%</td>
<td>1,1%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Gender</td>
<td>45,5%</td>
<td>43,8%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>44,9%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>22,0%</td>
<td>22,4%</td>
<td>0,5%</td>
<td>44,9%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swedish</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>54</th>
<th>59</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>113</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% within Nationality</td>
<td>47,8%</td>
<td>52,2%</td>
<td>0,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Gender</td>
<td>54,5%</td>
<td>56,2%</td>
<td>0,0%</td>
<td>55,1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>26,3%</td>
<td>28,8%</td>
<td>0,0%</td>
<td>55,1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>99</th>
<th>105</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>205</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% within Nationality</td>
<td>48,3%</td>
<td>51,2%</td>
<td>0,5%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Gender</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>48,3%</td>
<td>51,2%</td>
<td>0,5%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen above, the total number of British nationals within the sample is 92, and the total number of Swedish nationals is 113. The ratio of women to men is similar in the samples of both countries. The authors acknowledge that there was one respondent from the United Kingdom that identified as “other” but for the remainder of this explanation of the ratio between genders they will be overlooked. Since both countries have a similar ratio of men to women, the generalizability of results increases.

5.1.1 Scale Reliability:

As was previously mentioned within the methodology section, after the data was cleaned and all the unusable respondents had been removed from the sample, the next step is to complete a reliability analysis. In order to test reliability, Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient was implemented.
Table 4: Case Processing Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case Processing Summary</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cases</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>94,1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excluded</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Reliability Analysis of Scale and Dimensions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability Statistics (Reliability test of Brand Personality Model)</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Inter-Item Correlation</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brand Personality Model</td>
<td>0,933</td>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimensions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincerity</td>
<td>0,836</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement</td>
<td>0,886</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>0,867</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophistication</td>
<td>0,786</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruggedness</td>
<td>0,667</td>
<td>0,302</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Table 5 above. During the reliability analysis, all the cases were present. The total sample and number of cases present during the Cronbach Alpha coefficient is the same, n = 205. This confirms that the authors have included all respondents in the reliability analysis ensuring that the analysis is accurate. The number of Items that were tested is 42, which represents the 42 traits that are used to measure brand personality. The most important figure in the reliability test is Cronbach’s Alpha. Anything below .7 and the data is deemed unreliable. However, as can be seen in Table 5 above, the alpha for the Dimensions of Brand Personality scale is .933 This confirms that the scale that the authors have chosen to measure brand personality is reliable. Additionally, it states that the data gathered from the respondents is reliable. In addition to testing reliability of the brand personality dimensions’ scale, the authors also tested the reliability of each of the dimensions. This is to ensure that the authors can complete other analytical tests in SPSS using one of the dimensions. As can be seen above, all dimensions display a Cronbach’s Alpha that is higher than 0.7, except for ruggedness which has an alpha of .667. This lower Alpha score may be attributed to the size of the dimension as it only has 5 traits. Scales that have a low number of items, the general rule of thumb is 10, are
prone to receiving lower scores, hence the authors used an alternative reliability test technique to ensure that ruggedness is reliable. The authors therefore implemented the technique, Inter Item Correlation, in which Briggs and Cheek (1986) recommend that optimal range of Inter Item Correlation is between .2 and .4 (as cited by Pallant, 2016). As can be seen, the Inter Item Correlation score for ruggedness is .302 hence it is deemed as reliable.

To compare the mean scores of the five dimensions that are used to define brand personality the authors placed the individual traits into their dimensions. The authors placed the respective traits into their respective dimension after which they worked out the mean score that every individual respondent had for each dimension.

The formula:

\[
\text{Mean Score within that particular Subcategory} = \frac{\text{Sum of Individual Score per Trait in a particular Category}}{\text{Number of Traits answered within 1–5 on Likert–Scale in that Category}}
\]

As was mentioned in the methodology, to account for potential misunderstandings or language barriers, the authors implemented a sixth option in the Likert scale which symbolized that the respondent did not understand the trait. If a respondent chose this option, they would score a 6. The authors excluded the score 6 and lowered the denominator by the number of traits answered by the number of 6’s present within the dimension. This was done to prevent inaccurate data collection caused by a misunderstanding. By allowing the 6 to be included in the formula for working out the mean score then the scores would not be accurate. Rather the authors assume that it is more accurate to generalize the dimension based upon how the respondent answered the other traits in the same category. They then replaced all the responses where a respondent had chosen that they do not understand the trait. The scores were replaced with that respondents mean score within that specific sub category.

This generated a mean score for each dimension within brand personality for every respondent. Hence the authors were left with 207 respondents mean scores in the five dimensions. Some respondents will not have mean scores for every one of the five dimensions. This may be a result of the fact that they filled in a majority of the questionnaire before growing tired and not completing the last pages which consisted of the final dimensions’ traits. However, to increase
the total number of respondents the authors have chosen to include these partial answers as the respondents still provide a mean score for three out of the five dimensions for example.

5.2 Culture’s Impact:

5.2.1 Culture’s effect on Brand Personality:
National culture is a fundamental factor that distinguishes consumers of one country from those of another country. Indeed, a country’s values have long been identified as a factor that influences consumer behaviour (Dwyer, Mesak, & Hsu, 2005), it can be theorised that they impact brand personality of a multinational brand such as Adidas. Due to the fact that the purpose of this research is to determine whether culture affects the perception of brand personality of Adidas, the logical first step is to compare the mean scores that the two nationalities scored each trait and dimension. After which the authors conduct a T-test with national culture as the independent variable. This test in turn would compare the perception of brand personality based on the nationality of participants and deem whether there is a significant difference in their perception or not in accordance to H₁.

\[ H₁: \text{states that “Individuals from the UK and Sweden exhibit significant differences in Brand Personality based on standardised marketing on Instagram by Adidas.”} \]

This hypothesis will be accepted if the independent T-test comparing nationalities depicts a significant difference in at least one of the five brand personality dimensions. It will be rejected if the T-test depicts no signs of significant difference in any of the five brand personality dimensions.

The average mean score for British and Swedish participants are presented in appendix 7.2 below. The first noticeable aspect of the appendix 7.2 is that the British mean score per dimension is always higher than it is for the Swedish nationals. The dimension with the largest difference in means between the nationalities is ruggedness. Swedish nationals were scored with a 3.3090 whereas the British nationals received a score of 3.6163, thus leaving the difference at 0.3073. Additionally, for 4 out of the 5 dimensions with the exception of ruggedness, the trait with the highest mean score per dimension is the same for both the British and Swedish nationals. Therefore, it can be witnessed that the British and Swedish sample perceive the same traits to be the most descriptive of Adidas within 80% of the dimensions.
Within the dimension of ruggedness, the British population stated that the trait that was most descriptive of Adidas was that of western, whereas the Swedish population of the sample stated that was outdoorsy. This can be attributed to the difference in how British and Swedish nationals consume the sportswear, and the context in which they use the products. Within the questionnaire, a question stating the context in which the respondents used the sportswear brands.

Table 6 shows the results of an Independent Samples T-test that was conducted using the mean scores for the five dimensions as the test variables, and nationality as the grouping variable. This test was conducted to show whether nationality leads to a significant difference in the perception of the brand personality dimensions between the two cultures. Through conducting the T-test the authors attempted to discover whether any significant differences of brand perception between the two cultures occurred before taking in to account additional filter that is gender in accordance with H⁰. Through conducting this test without this extra layer embedded, the authors could more effectively discern the role that culture as a national phenomenon plays in the perception of a brand amongst individuals cross culturally.

If it can be statistically determined that perceptions of Adidas express significant differences amongst Generation Y’s in Sweden and the UK, then the authors can begin to build on the works of Markus & Kitayama (1991) that determined it is cultural beliefs and norms that shape perceptions of individuals. By understanding an individual’s perception of Adidas based on their cultural background, it becomes an effective tool in measuring the cultural differences that contribute to these deviations. This can then be used to explore whether the brand should place greater focus on adapting or standardizing marketing communications when dealing directly with these two cultures in accordance with the works of Vrontis et al (2009).

Table 6: Nationality Comparisons T-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sincerity</td>
<td>2,007</td>
<td>,158</td>
<td>1,192</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>,235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement</td>
<td>,232</td>
<td>,631</td>
<td>2,784</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>0,006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>,403</td>
<td>,526</td>
<td>3,028</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>0,003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophistication</td>
<td>,496</td>
<td>,482</td>
<td>,661</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>,509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruggedness</td>
<td>,549</td>
<td>,460</td>
<td>3070</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>0,002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Within the P-value column the authors found that results vary in different dimensions. If the P-value score is larger than 0.05 (P-Value > 0.05) then there is not a significant difference in perceived brand personality between the two nationalities. This is the case for both Sincerity and Sophistication as their values are larger than 0.05, with scores of (P Value = 0.235) and (P Value = 0.539) respectively. However, within the dimensions, excitement, competence and ruggedness the P-values are less than 0.05 hence there is a significant difference between the two groups. The P-values are as follows, Excitement = 0.006, Competence = 0.003, Ruggedness = 0.002. This in turn means that there is a significant difference in the perception of brand personality within these three dimensions between Swedish and British generation Y’s.

The findings that are seen above in Table 6 confirms that H1 is accepted as they statistically show that there is a significant difference in three of the five dimensions of brand personality.

As was mentioned within the literature review, culture typically stems from nationality, hence the concept of national culture has become of interest. It is argued that national culture has been identified as a key characteristic when observing systematic differences in behaviour between individuals of different nationalities (Steenkamp, 2001). The results that are shown in Table 7 above demonstrate this fact vividly.

After accepting H1, the authors will next discern whether the introduction of Gender as an additional filter will lead to further variances in perceived brand personality in accordance with H2.

5.3 Gender’s Effect on Brand Personality:

After concluding that National culture had altered perceptions of brand personality of Adidas, thus accepting H1. The following section focuses on exploring whether differences in gender had a further impact on perceived brand personality of Adidas, in accordance with H2. This will be explored by conducting two-way ANOVA tests across the five brand personality dimensions on the factors of national culture and gender. As through doing so the authors can determine whether any significant differences exist in perception of brand personality score of Adidas between gender groups in coherence with cultural groups.
If it can be statistically determined that perceptions of Adidas express significant differences amongst Generation Y’s on the factors of both gender and their nationality. Then the authors can theorise that gender plays an additional role on top of national culture in shaping the perception of brand personality in individuals, findings which will align with previous literature (Foscht et al., 2008; Malär et al., 2012). This may assist in determining if standardised marketing messages could lead to differences in brand personality perception cross culturally that may not align with the brand’s ideal brand image (Albers-miller, Gelb, Albers-miller, & Gelb, 1996).

\[ H^2: \text{states that “Males and Female groups from the UK and Sweden exhibit significant differences in Brand Personality based on standardised marketing on Instagram by Adidas.”} \]

This hypothesis will be accepted if at least one of the five brand personality dimensions depicts a significant difference in nationality*sex. It will be rejected if results depict no signs of significant difference in any of the five brand personality dimensions across nationality*sex. The following tables will show the results of two-way ANOVA tests that were conducted on the perceived five brand personality dimensions of Adidas by respondents. The tests were conducted on the factors of National culture and Gender identity. The tests were executed to explore whether significant differences in the five brand personality dimensions of Adidas occurred using gender and nationality as factors. Statistical significance will be realised where P values are <0.05. Through conducting this test with this extra filter of gender embedded, the authors could more effectively discern the effect that culture and gender paired together as a national phenomenon has on the perception of a brand amongst individuals cross culturally.

All of the two-way ANOVA tests completed in this section of the study will be implemented under the same conditions. A Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances was conducted by the authors on all five ANOVA tests to ensure the usability of the data. The purpose of this test was to explore whether the variances within responses by the groups within the tested dimension were equal (Pallant, 2016). In the event that they were not for any of the five dimensions, the authors will not include the results of that dimension’s in this section for analysis as the inconsistencies could dilute the reliability of the results. Variances in data were not equal, and they are reliable if the Levene’s test score was >0.05. These results of the Levene’s test scores on each dimension for their ANOVA tests are shown in Table 7.
As can be observed four of the five dimensions of brand personality exhibited results deemed reliable enough to analyse by Levene’s test. Ruggedness however, did not and will therefore be excluded from this section of the research by the authors, given the unreliability of the results.

5.3.1 ANOVA Testing the Dimensions of Brand Personality:

The result of the two-way ANOVA test on the factors of National culture and Gender identity on the dimension of Sincerity is displayed in Table 8 below;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sincerity</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>0.536</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main effect of Nationality*Gender was recorded as not statistically significant (P Value=0.536). Meaning that there is no statistical evidence to support the premise that the perceived brand personality of Adidas on the dimension of Sincerity differs culturally between gender groups. The result of the two-way ANOVA test on the factors of Nationality and Gender identity on the dimension of Excitement is displayed in Table 9 below;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excitement</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>0.583</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The main effect of Nationality*Gender was recorded as not statistically significant (P Value=0.583). Meaning that there is no statistical evidence to support the premise that the perceived brand personality of Adidas on the dimension of Excitement differs culturally within gender groups. The result of the two-way ANOVA test on the factors of Nationality and Gender identity on the dimension of Competence is displayed in Table 10 below;

Table 10: Two-Way ANOVA Test for Competence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>2,158</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2,158</td>
<td>4,631</td>
<td>,033</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main effect of Nationality*Gender was recorded as statistically significant (P Value=0.033). Meaning that there is statistical evidence to state that the perceived brand personality of Adidas on the dimension of Competence differs culturally within gender groups. The result of the two-way ANOVA test on the factors of Nationality and Gender identity on the dimension of Sophistication is displayed in Table 11 below;

Table 11: Two-Way ANOVA Test for Sophistication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sophistication</td>
<td>2,758</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2,758</td>
<td>4,822</td>
<td>,029</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main effect of Nationality*Gender was recorded as statistically significant (P Value=0.029). Meaning that there is statistical evidence to state that the perceived brand personality of Adidas on the dimension of Sophistication differs culturally within gender groups.

National culture and gender both influence the perceived brand personality of Adidas in two of the four testable dimensions (Competence and Sophistication). These findings reaffirm the previous research that states that both those filters can lead to different perceptions of a brands personality (Foscht et al., 2008; Malär et al., 2012). Providing the authors with heightened insight that when publishing standardised messages across social media platforms, Adidas are
under the increased likelihood that those messages will lead to differences in the way their brand is perceived amongst both cultural groups as well as gender groups within that culture.

*The findings that can be observed in the above tables provide evidence to confirm that H² is accepted as they statistically determine that there is a significant difference in two of the four testable dimensions of brand personality.*

The following section will take these findings further and explore the concept of establishing brand preferences through brand personality. The authors will explore whether standardised marketing messages on social media can be effective in creating brand preference cross culturally. It has been observed that standardised marketing messages on social media could lead to variations in perception of brand personality based on national culture and gender (H¹ and H²). The authors will now explore if those differences in perception can still be favourable if they align with the ideal brand personality for sportswear for individuals in those culture and gender-based groups.

### 5.4.1 Brand Preferences Establishment

Brand preference stems from the narrative that certain brand personality traits could cause an individual to exhibit stronger inclinations towards that brand. It’s based on the notion that, where congruency exists between consumer personality and brand personality, there is an increased likelihood of positive emotions towards the brand (Malär et al., 2011; Nikhashemi & Valaei, 2018). Therefore, individuals who exhibit specific personality behaviours could be observed to have heightened preference towards brands who exhibit traits that those individuals consider more desirable. If standardised messages are being disseminated in way that leads to Adidas’ brand personality being perceived by those groups in a way they consider preferential, then it can be stated that they are working to great effect. However, if standardised messages lead to the brand personality of Adidas being perceived in a way by those groups that do not improve their brand preference, then it can be stated that the standardised messages are not the most effective way of increasing brand preference cross culturally.

The authors have opted to explore the concept of brand preference stemming from brand personality cross culturally using previous literature. The authors have used research by Hofstede & McCrae (2004) to determine what the personalities of individuals in a country based on their classification as masculine or feminine. The authors then build on the works of
Mulyanegara et al. (2009) to determine what brand preferences individuals in these countries have based on their personalities. The only measurable difference between the United Kingdom and Sweden is masculinity. Research states that individuals in masculine countries exhibited heightened levels of Neuroticism and Openness to Experience whilst lower levels of Extraversion (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). As a result of this and in accordance with research conducted by (Mulyanegara et al., 2009) the authors state:

- Neurotic men (British) exhibit a brand preference to brands who score high in Competence
- Open to Experience men (British) exhibit brand preference to brands that score high in Sincerity
- Extroverted females (Swedish) exhibit brand preference to brands who score in Sincerity

This section considers how brand preference is affected by gender within different cultures. If perception of a brand personality dimension by one cultural gender segment is higher than that of the other, for example competence, then it can be suggested based on previously developed theory, that that dimension (competence) plays a greater role in creating brand preference for that set of individuals. This will be tested through conducting an independent samples T test between the same gender in two cultures, to explore whether significant differences exist in their perception of the investigated dimension. Statistical difference will be observed in results that signify a P-Value <0.05. Thus, allowing the authors to statistically accept or reject $H_3$, $H_4$ and $H_5$ based on how theory had predicted brand preferences between groups can be determined by culture.

Only respondents who are consumers of Adidas are considered, as individuals who do not own Adidas apparel are unlikely to score brand personality based on its representation to their individual identity (H. Kim & John, 2008). The authors assume in this research that owners of Adidas have a preference for the brand due to the fact that they consume it. Therefore, are measuring to see whether consumers of the brand are recorded as scoring the dimensions that theory has stated are their ideals (competence), higher than the same gender in the other culture.

5.4.2: Independent Samples T-Test Competence, Swedish & British Male Consumers

The results of the independent samples T-test between British and Swedish male consumers on their perception of brand personality dimension competence is displayed in Table 12 and 13.
Table 12: Mean and Standard Deviation for Competence (Swedish and British Male Consumers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>3.9863</td>
<td>.59124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>3.5614</td>
<td>.69075</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: Independent Samples T-test Competence (Swedish and British Male Consumers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>1,265</td>
<td>.264</td>
<td>2,930</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perception of Competence amongst British male Adidas consumers is recorded as statistically significant. Thus, there is statistical evidence to state that British male Adidas consumers perceive the brand as more Competent than the Swedish counterparts as P Value = 0.004. This aligns with the findings of Mulyanegara et al. (2009) who state that neurotic men are more likely to have a preference to a Competent brand than men who aren’t considered neurotic. This is based on the personality predictors by Hofstede & McCrae (2004) who predict individuals from masculine cultures are more neurotic than those from feminine ones. The authors therefore state that competence plays a larger role in the preference of Adidas for British male consumers than it does for Swedish male consumers.

The findings that can be observed in the above tables provide evidence to confirm that $H_3$ is accepted as they statistically determine that there is a significantly higher difference in perception of Competence of Adidas amongst British male Adidas consumers than Swedish male Adidas consumers.

5.4.3: Independent Samples T-Test Sincerity, Swedish & British Male Consumers

The results of the independent samples T-test between British males and Swedish males Adidas consumers on their perception of the brands sincerity is displayed on Table 14 and 15.

Table 14: Mean and Standard Deviation for Sincerity (Swedish and British Male Consumers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sincerity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>3.3596</td>
<td>.66553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>3.2099</td>
<td>.61807</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 15: Mean and Standard Deviation for Sincerity (Swedish and British Male Consumers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sincerity</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.763</td>
<td>.385</td>
<td>1,048</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>.298</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perception of Sincerity amongst British male Adidas consumers is recorded as higher (Mean = 3.3596) than that of Swedish male Adidas consumers (Mean=3.2099), but not with significant difference (P Value =0.298). Meaning there isn’t enough statistical evidence to support the statement that British male Adidas consumers perceive the brand as more Sincere than Swedish counterparts. Thus this finding contradicts Mulyanegara et al. (2009) who state that open to experience men are more likely to have a preference to a sincere brand than men who aren’t considered open to experience. This is based on the personality predictors of Hofstede & McCrae (2004) stating individuals from masculine cultures are more Open to experience than those from feminine ones. The authors therefore cannot state that sincerity plays a larger role in the preference of Adidas for British male consumers than it does for Swedish male consumers.

The findings that can be observed in the above tables does not provide evidence to confirm that $H^4$ can be accepted and therefore it is rejected. As it does not determine that there is a significant difference in perception of Sincerity of Adidas amongst British male Adidas consumers than Swedish male Adidas consumers

5.4.4: Independent Samples T-Test Sincerity, Swedish & British Female Consumers

The results of the independent samples T-test between British females and Swedish females Adidas consumers on their perception of the brands Sincerity is displayed in Table 16 and 17.

Table 16: Mean and Standard Deviation for Sincerity (Swedish and British Female Consumers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sincerity</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>British</td>
<td>3.4403</td>
<td>.57364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>3.3133</td>
<td>.53361</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 17: Mean and Standard Deviation for Sincerity (Swedish and British Female Consumers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sincerity</td>
<td>.819</td>
<td>.368</td>
<td>1,006</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>.318</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perception of Sincerity amongst Swedish female Adidas consumers is recorded as lower (Mean = 3.3133) than that of British female Adidas consumers (Mean=3.4403), but not with significant difference (P Value =0.318). Hence, there is no evidence to support the statement that Swedish female Adidas consumers perceive the brand as more Sincere than British female Adidas consumers. This contradicts Mulyanegara et al. (2009) who state that *extraverted* women are more likely to have a preference to a sincere brand than women who aren’t considered Extraverted, when based on the personality predictors of Hofstede & McCrae (2004) who predict individuals from feminine cultures are more Extraverted than those from masculine ones. The authors can therefore not state that sincerity plays a larger role in the preference of Adidas for Swedish female consumers than it does for British female consumers.

*The findings that can be observed in the above tables does not provide statistical evidence to confirm that H5 can be accepted and therefore it is rejected. As it does not statistically determine that there is a significantly higher difference in perception of Sincerity of Adidas amongst Swedish female Adidas consumers than British female Adidas consumers*

The following section of this study will take the findings from sections 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4 as well as the hypothesis in order to discuss their relevance towards the research objectives of this study.

5.5: Discussion of Empirical Findings

Now that all hypotheses have be statistically test by the authors of this study, it is important to discuss what these findings means in relation to the overall research questions related to this study. The empirical discussion will be split in to two sections as a means of tackling both research questions separately.
5.5.1 Culture and Genders Effect on Perception of Brand Personality

The first research question of this study was as followed:

*Does national culture and gender identity play a role in the perception of brand personality of international brands in the sportswear fashion industry?*

The authors attempted to quantify the role that both national culture, and gender identity had on the perception of brand personality of Adidas. This was tested by showing respondents a standardised marketing message from Adidas’ social media page and then testing respondents on their perception of Adidas’ brand personality based on a survey developed on Aaker’s Brand Personality model (1997). The following hypotheses were constructed the author to determine statistically whether both the national culture and the gender of the respondent affected the way in which they perceived the standardised message.

**Table 18: Hypothesis regarding Research Question 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$H^1$: Individuals from the UK and Sweden exhibit significant differences in Brand Personality based on standardised marketing on Instagram by Adidas</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H^2$: Males and Female groups from the UK and Sweden exhibit significant differences in Brand Personality based on standardised marketing on Instagram by Adidas</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both hypotheses were accepted as it was determined that both National culture alone and National culture in congruence with gender caused differences in the perception of standardised messages. Findings that were supported by numerous academic articles (Hall, 1989; C. Hill, 2002; Overby, Woodruff, & Gardial, 2005). The countries observed in this study only had one core difference in the Hofstede Cultural dimensions which was Masculinity, therefore formed the key observation surrounding national culture in this study. Other elements that attribute to national culture such as language and religion (Cateora & Graham, 2007; C. W. Hill, 2011) were not taken in to account in this study which could limit the extent to which it can conclusively answer the first research question.
It was discerned that significant differences in the perceived brand personality of Adidas were exhibited between the dimensions of Excitement, Competence and Ruggedness between the two countries. The additional filter of gender continued to exhibit significant differences in perception of Competence and Ruggedness between gender groups alike. This reaffirms the role that these two factors play in altering perceived brand personality. These findings also reaffirm the fact that standardised marketing messages present a challenge to marketing managers in achieving a homogenous brand ideal cross culturally. Not adjusting marketing messages in a way that accounts for difference in national culture and gender reduced the likelihood that the brand will be perceived in the same way across cultures, which aligned with research by (Malär et al., 2011; Pittard et al., 2007; Samiee et al., 2004). Which could lead to weakened business performance in countries that didn’t perceive the brand in the way in which managers intended. Within the sportswear fashion industry, Competence has been observed as being an ideal brand personality trait to increase performance and overall brand equity, so brands should advertise in a way that purveys competence (Radder & Huang, 2008; Tong & Hawley, 2009). Given the higher perception of competence within UK individuals that Swedish individuals in regard to confidence in this study, it could be suggested that more effort if focused towards purvey confidence in the more feminine countries. A strategy that may not be easily executable within a standardised marketing strategy.

It can be stated that factors within the standardised message can be attributed for shaping perception of brand personality within these group. The message alone only accounts for part of what shapes brand personality in the mind of the consumer. Factors such as celebrity endorsement can also affect perception of brand personality from an alone context (Batra et al, 1993; Tong & Hawley, 2009). Which could be argued was the key reasoning behind shaping the differences in perception amongst the groups, given the fact that the standardised message we showed the respondents featured 25 different celebrities, coming from 9 separate nationalities, ranging from the ages of 22-38 from 10 different fields (7 different sports) (Larbi, 2017).

There was a possibility that if these individuals recognised only a small number of them, they could have based their perception of the message and ultimately the brand on as according to McCracken's (2011) transfer model. This may have resulted in respondents recognising the endorsers most synonymous with their cultural and gender backgrounds. Of the 25-man cast in the advert, only one was of British heritage, none were of Swedish heritage. Establishing a
scenario where there was a likelihood that there the respondents recognised only a low concentration of the cast list and their perceptions were shaped strongly by the few they did recognise leading to the significant differences in perception based on national culture and gender in the findings. However, in the survey distributed respondents were asked how many of the cast list they had recognised. 95% responded with more than half, thus relinquishing the likelihood that one or two celebrities within the advert were responsible for causing the significant differences in perception. However, this role that celebrity endorsers play in the cultural dissemination of standardised marketing messages cannot be ignored or downplayed. As celebrity presence in advertisements have been found to lead to differences in perception of brand personality cross culturally (Paek, 2010) and therefore brands opting to use standardised marketing messages on social media should be cautious to the differences it could have on brand personality perception from one cultural group to another.

The following section will take in to account H³, H⁴ and H⁵ and how their findings have assisted in the exploration of the second research question.

5.5.1: Using Masculinity to Predict Brand Preference Within the Sportswear Industry

The second research question is as followed;

Can the classification of a national culture as Masculine or Feminine be used to determine brand preferences of Male and Female consumers in that country within the sportswear fashion industry

The authors attempted to explore the extent to which the classification of a national culture as masculine or feminine can be used to predict which brand personality dimensions were most important in establishing brand preference within gender based culture groups. The dimensions which were assumed to create a preference were determined using previous theory attaining to personalities of individuals based on their culture (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004) and research surrounding brand preferences based on consumer personality (Mulyanegara et al., 2009). The following hypotheses were developed to answer the research question.
Table 19: Hypothesis regarding Research Question 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Accepted/Rejected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H³: Do male consumers of Adidas in the United Kingdom perceive the brand as significantly more Competent than male consumers of Adidas in Sweden?</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H⁴: Do male consumers of Adidas in the United Kingdom perceive the brand as significantly more Sincere than male consumers of Adidas in Sweden?</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H⁵: Do female consumers of Adidas in the United Kingdom perceive the brand as significantly more Sincere than female consumers of Adidas in Sweden?</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the three hypotheses constructed, only one was accepted by the authors. This resulted in findings which do not allow the authors to answer the second research question. The authors are unable to state for sure that the answer to the second research question is either yes or no. Rather, authors suggest that the model based on the theories of Hofstede & McCrae (2004); Mulyanegara et al. (2009) are not developed enough to be able to predict what brand personality dimensions are most important to specific gender groups based on their national culture. This stemmed mainly from the fact that the Mulyanegara et al. (2009) research used an adapted model to Aakers (1997) to measure brand personality meaning that many of their findings did not translate fluidly as highlighted earlier in this study.

One of the key restrictions in regards to the answering this research question based on the three hypotheses was the inclusion of Sincerity, as can be observed in two of the three tests. The authors realise that sincerity as a dimension is difficult to explore in a cross-cultural study regarding sportswear. Previous research has linked sincerity as a key dimension in all individuals’ decision to buy sportswear (Radder & Huang, 2008; Tong & Hawley, 2009) due to the perception that sportswear brands that are considered high in sincerity are associated to high levels of quality and performance (Maehle et al., 2011). It was unlikely to establish significant differences in consumers’ perception of sincerity between the groups even if previous literature had suggested there would be, as consumers who purchase Adidas regardless of their culture are likely to perceive it as Sincere.
The differences in perceived brand personality of competence within male groups was interesting and did align with findings from previous literature including (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004; Mulyanegara et al., 2009). This may be attributed to high levels of neuroticism amongst men in masculine countries and therefore the preference for a brand that can be trusted (Arrindell et al., 2003). This provides ground for the discussion that marketing messages by sportswear brands should emphasise levels of competence in masculine countries. Thus, establishing an argument against the use of standardised messages in favour of more culturally adapted messages.
6 Conclusion:

This section provides a summary of the results that were discovered within the Empirical Data and Analysis section. It also provides an answer to the research question. Additionally, the implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research are addressed.

Based on the results that were obtained during this investigation, the authors have concluded that national culture influences perceived brand personality. The authors observed key differences in the perception of Adidas’ brand personality amongst British and Swedish respondents. Initial results showed significant differences in the perception of the brand within three of the five brand personality dimensions: These include Excitement, Competence, and Ruggedness. This became a basis for the authors to expand their scope of exploration to other factors that may fuel the differences in cultural perception of the brand. Additionally, gender identity as an additional layer to national culture also found significant difference in perceived brand personality. These include competence and sophistication. This argument fuelled exploration into brand preferences and whether it can be predicted based on a cultures masculinity index.

Additionally, it was found that males in masculine cultures have a tendency to be attracted to brands that score a higher level in competence. The authors suggest that this stems from the relationship between a culture with higher masculinity, for example the United Kingdom, possessing individuals that tend to have heightened levels of Neuroticism. This was portrayed mainly amongst the male demographic of the sample, from the masculine culture which in this case is the UK. This finding agrees with previous literature conducted by Mulyanegara et al. (2009) who argued that males with high Neuroticism levels are attracted to brands that they deem trustworthy. On the other hand, this study was unable to confirm that a culture’s classification as masculine or feminine can be used to determine brand preference. Based on a framework building on the theories of Mulyanegara et al. (2009), the authors explored whether brand preference in British men and Swedish women can be measure in their perception of Adidas as a highly sincere brand. However, the data that was gather within this thesis did not provide enough statistical evidence to agree with theory developed in previous literature. Hence, prompting the authors to reject the notion that brand preference in groups can be predicted solely by a country’s masculinity index. More research in to the topic is therefore required.
6.1 Practical and Managerial Implications:

The results gather from this thesis state that culture does in fact affect perceived brand personality within the sportswear apparel industry. To best obtain the brand personality that companies want people to associate with their brand, they must market in a way which impacts the five dimensions of brand personality or abandon standardised messages in favour of adaptation. This research suggests that it would be difficult to obtain a homogenous brand personality in different cultures using standardised marketing alone. This is specifically the case in cultures that differ in levels of masculinity.

Based on this research alone, marketing efforts in the sportswear apparel industry should be segmented between masculine and feminine culture countries, as individuals within masculine countries display favourable behaviours towards competent brands, especially amongst the male demographic. Through adapting the marketing communication efforts companies within the industry can increase the likelihood of favourable consumer behaviours such as brand loyalty and increased brand equity within these markets.

Adapted marketing efforts could in turn be a more attractive proposition for a company attempting to establish a homogeneous brand personality across several cultures. As this thesis has shown, due to differences in personal norms within cultures, standardised messages alone will more likely cause differences in perception of the brand personality in multiple markets. Hence by segmenting their marketing, companies may simplify the task of creating the desired brand personality for said aforementioned markets. Which could lead to brand preferences in those markets as brands could tailor their communications to appeal to dimensions that those cultures find desirable.

If brands within the sportswear industry are adamant on the use of standardised marketing messages. This research suggests that they focus on messaging that accentuates their sincere side most prominently. As previous research states that this is the one dimension that most consistently results in positive performance within this industry.
6.2 Limitations:
To fully understand the relevance of this paper, it is important to display the shortcomings and limitations we encountered during the process. During the methodology section of the thesis the authors discovered that the theoretical framework they choose was not translatable. This is limitation because both British and Swedish respondents alike were asked to fill in a survey that was written in English. Since some traits were difficult to understand for the Swedish respondents, there were cases in which they chose the Do Not Understand alternative. Although Swedish literacy in English is rather high, there is a potential that some wording for specific traits may have been misunderstood or misinterpreted by Swedish respondents.

6.3 Future Research:
This thesis focused primarily on the sportswear apparel industry, using Adidas as the main objective for the investigation. To fully understand the impact that culture has on perceived brand personality it would provide an interesting comparison to investigate the effects within another industry. Additionally, investigating the impact that different endorsers and types of endorsers have on perceived brand personality would be interesting for future research. As was stated in the empirical findings and analysis, the authors did not investigate how endorsers play a role in the perception of brand personality. Different cultures will recognise and connect with different endorsers for a company using standardised marketing messages. Hence investigating culture, and endorser recognitions effect on perceived brand personality would provide an interesting topic for future investigation. Finally, it could be interesting to examine behaviours amongst more heterogeneous cultures to explore in greater detail the effect that culture has on brand personality perception.
7 References:


8 Appendixes:

8.1 Ero & Karlsson Questionnaire

Start of Block: Block 3

Q10 This Questionnaire is part of a Master Thesis, written within the International Marketing programme at Jönköping International Business School by Liam Karlsson and Emmanuel Ero. The purpose of this research is to understand the role that cultural background plays in the perception of marketing communications by Brands that operate internationally. At the start of this survey you will be asked 3 demographic questions. After which you will then be shown a 1 minute video commercial before being prompted to describe your perception of the brand by grading certain descriptive words based on their relativity. The survey as a whole will take around 5-7 minutes to complete.

End of Block: Block 3

Start of Block: Demographics

Q1 What Is Your Nationality?
   British (1)
   Swedish (2)
   Other (3)

Q2 How Old Are You?
   ▼ (1) ... 31 (5)

Q3 How Do You Identify?
   Male (1)
   Female (2)
   Other (3)

End of Block: Demographics

Start of Block: Behaviours
Q4 Do you own any Adidas apparel?
   Yes (1)
   No (2)

Skip To: End of Block If Do you own any Adidas apparel? = No

Q5 How often do you wear Adidas apparel?
   Daily (1)
   A few times a week (2)
   Weekly (3)
   Less than once a week (4)

Q6 In which of the following contexts do you wear Adidas Products? (Choose all that apply)
   □ Going to the gym / training (Athletic Wear) (1)
   □ Going out with friends / to university (Casual Wear) (2)
   □ Going to formal events (Formal Wear) (3)
   □ Staying home (Relaxed Wear) (4)
   □ None of the Above (5)

Q7 How often do you visit Adidas social media pages?
   Often (1)
   Occasionally (2)
   Rarely (3)
   Never (4)

End of Block: Behaviours

Start of Block: Adidas Advertisement

Q8 Please Watch This Short Advertisement Before Proceeding With The Survey
Q9 How many of the endorsers in this advert do you recognise?

- None of them (2)
- Some of them (less than half) (3)
- Most of them (more than half) (4)
- All of them (5)

End of Block: Adidas Advertisement

Start of Block: Block 9

Q28 The following section will require you to select how descriptive the provided adjectives are of Adidas as a brand to you. There are no right or wrong answers. Feel free to answer as honestly as possible. If you do not understand the adjective or do not feel it applies in any context feel free to use the "I Do Not Understand/Not Applicable" option.

End of Block: Block 9

Start of Block: Brand Personality Dimensions
Q10 To what extent do you believe that the following traits describe Adidas?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Not at all Descriptive (1)</th>
<th>Barely Descriptive (2)</th>
<th>Somewhat Descriptive (3)</th>
<th>Mostly Descriptive (4)</th>
<th>Extremely Descriptive (5)</th>
<th>I Do Not Understand / Not Applicable (6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Down to earth (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Orientated (2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Small-town (3)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Honest (4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sincere (5)</td>
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<td>Real (6)</td>
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<td>Wholesome (7)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Original (8)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cheerful (9)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sentimental (10)</td>
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<td>Friendly (11)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

End of Block: Brand Personality Dimensions

Start of Block: Aakers
Q23 To what extent do you believe that the following traits describe Adidas?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Not at all Descriptive (1)</th>
<th>Barely Descriptive (2)</th>
<th>Somewhat Descriptive (3)</th>
<th>Mostly Descriptive (4)</th>
<th>Extremely Descriptive (5)</th>
<th>I Do Not Understand / Not Applicable (6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daring (12)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Trendy (13)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Exciting (14)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spirited (15)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cool (16)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Young (17)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Imaginative (18)</td>
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<td>Unique (19)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Up to date (20)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Independent (21)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contemporary (22)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

End of Block: Aakers

Start of Block: Aakers 3
Q24 To what extent do you believe that the following traits describe Adidas?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Not at all Descriptive (1)</th>
<th>Barely Descriptive (2)</th>
<th>Somewhat Descriptive (3)</th>
<th>Mostly Descriptive (4)</th>
<th>Extremely Descriptive (5)</th>
<th>I Do Not Understand / Not Applicable (6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reliable (23)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardworking (24)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Secure (25)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intelligent (26)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technical (27)</td>
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<td>Corporate (28)</td>
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<td>Successful (29)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leader (30)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Confident (31)</td>
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</table>

End of Block: Aakers 3

Start of Block: Aakers 4
Q25 To what extent do you believe that the following traits describe Adidas?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Not at all Descriptive (1)</th>
<th>Barely Descriptive (2)</th>
<th>Somewhat Descriptive (3)</th>
<th>Mostly Descriptive (4)</th>
<th>Extremely Descriptive (5)</th>
<th>I Do Not Understand / Not Applicable (6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upperclass</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Glamorous</td>
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<tr>
<td>Good looking,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Charming</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
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<tr>
<td>Smooth</td>
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</table>

End of Block: Aakers 4

Start of Block: Aakers 5

Q26 To what extent do you believe that the following traits describe Adidas?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Not at all Descriptive (1)</th>
<th>Barely Descriptive (2)</th>
<th>Somewhat Descriptive (3)</th>
<th>Mostly Descriptive (4)</th>
<th>Extremely Descriptive (5)</th>
<th>I Do Not Understand / Not Applicable (6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outdoorsy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
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<tr>
<td>Western</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tough</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rugged</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

End of Block: Aakers 5
Q29 Finally, please describe Adidas in three words. Again, there are no right or wrong answers.

7.2 Dimension and Trait Mean Score Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>British</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Swedish</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>MEAN</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>MEAN</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Down to Earth</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>3,2670</td>
<td>1,07125</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>3,0799</td>
<td>0,98848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Orientated</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>2,5330</td>
<td>1,20831</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>2,5214</td>
<td>1,04150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Town</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>2,1420</td>
<td>1,18329</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>2,1505</td>
<td>1,08711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honest</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>3,4421</td>
<td>0,98967</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>3,3572</td>
<td>0,99457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>3,4421</td>
<td>0,95540</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>3,3479</td>
<td>0,98824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>3,7796</td>
<td>0,96813</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>3,7007</td>
<td>0,97890</td>
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<tr>
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