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Mimicry, Self-construal and Regulatory Focus; How are they
interrelated?

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Abstract

In the present study we investigated mimicry in most minimal circumstances, the close relationship between a person's self-construal (Singelis, 1994) and a person's regulatory focus (Higgins, 1997), and whether a prevention focus facilitates and a promotion focus inhibits the mimicry effect. Numerous studies have shown that humans have a tendency to mimic behavior of interacting partners. Genschow, Florack and Wänke's (unpublished) groundbreaking findings demonstrated that consumption (drink intake) increased due to mimicking behavior from a video that resembled the consuming behavior but occurred in a completely different context. The present study was unable to replicate these findings with a different consumer product (gummy candy). Research has shown that people with interdependent self-construals are more likely to mimic behavior, whereas people with independent self-construals are less likely (van Baaren, Maddux, Chartrand, de Bouter & van Knippenberg, 2003). An interdependent self-construal is also associated with prevention focus while an independent self-construal is associated with promotion focus (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Lee, Aaker & Gardner, 2000). Only one of the correlations between peoples' chronic self-construals and regulatory foci were significant; promotion focus and independent self-construal correlated positively. Our final interest was to see if prevention focus facilitates and promotion focus inhibits mimicry. We did not find significant results to support this hypothesis. However, the mimicking condition had a significant effect on people in a prevention focus. It weakened their natural avoidance tendency, and incited them to eat more.

1. Introduction

One evening I am at a friend's house watching TV. When my friend offers me cookies, I hesitate. Thinking about my weight and the crumbs I might spread on her couch, I turn down the offer. However, a commercial comes on TV where people are eating chips. They grab chips out of a bag, bring them to their mouths and chew on them. My friend offers me her cookies again. This time I take one and bite into it with relish. Research has shown that people in a prevention focus try to prevent errors of commission and are sensitive to negative consequences (Higgins, 1997). The present paper found evidence that a possible way to inhibit this avoidance tendency of prevention focused people is the activation of mimicry, the tendency to copy other people's behavior. In the example above, I might have been in a prevention focus. I was focused on the negative outcomes such as gaining weight or dirtying the couch. Watching people eat might have triggered the tendency to mimic others and weakened my avoidance tendency. Hence, I grabbed a cookie, brought it to my mouth and took a bite.

Humans have a natural tendency to imitate other people's behavior. We often copy another person's facial expression, accent, posture or motions (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999; Dijksterhuis, Chartrand & Aarts, 2006; see Chartrand, Maddux, & Lakin, 2005; see Dijksterhuis & Bargh, 2001 for an overview) without our conscious intention (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999; Neumann & Strack, 2000; Tanner, Ferraro, Chartrand, Bettman, & van Baaren, 2008). We, for example, start shaking our foot because the person next to us is shaking their foot, and we do not even realize it. Our mimicking behavior even occurs if the person we are mimicking is not really present but only viewed in a video and if the behavior is shown in a different context. Ineichen, Florack and Genschow (2009) as well as Genschow, Florack and Wänke (unpublished) demonstrated that behavior in a sports context can lead to mimicking behavior in a consumption context. People drank more if they watched a video where a person moves their arms similar to the drinking motion. The present study addresses mimicry for consumption behavior under such minimal circumstances.

The likelihood for us to mimic behavior fluctuates from situation to situation and person to person. In the present study, we investigate how our motivational orientation, our regulatory

focus, effects our mimicking behavior. There are two tendencies to regulate our behavior when reaching goals. For instance, we can either focus on reaching the best test score, be eager to get a good tan, and be happy if we win the game (promotion focus), or we can focus on not failing the test, be vigilant to avoid a sun burn and be relieved that we did not lose the game (prevention focus) (Florack, Scarabis, & Gosejohann, 2004; Higgins, 1997). We suggest that the more prevention focused a person the more mimicry occurs, whereas the more promotion focused a person the less mimicry occurs. This assumption is based on the relationship between the regulatory focus and the self-view. We all have a view of our self, which can differ according to the way we relate to others. If we hold an *independent* self-construal, we are more focused on our own desires and attributes, and accentuate our uniqueness and differentiation from others. If we hold an *interdependent* self-construal, we are more focused on the feelings and actions of others, and accentuate our interdependence and connectedness with others (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Singelis, 1994). The way we view our self has shown to affect the way we attain goals. Recent findings demonstrate that depending on what self-construal is activated in our mind, independent vs. interdependent, we tend more towards one or the other regulatory focus. Aaker & Lee (2001) suggest that there is an association between the independent self-construal and promotion focus as well as between the interdependent self-construal and prevention focus. If we are focused on ourselves as separate from others (independent), we are more interested in the enhancing benefits of a drink such as an energizing effect (promotion focus). However, if we are focused on ourselves as part of a family (interdependent), we are more interested in preventative benefits of a drink such as the reduction of cancer risk (prevention focus) (Aaker & Lee, 2001). Our present study examines the relationship between a person's regulatory foci and self-construals.

Furthermore, the self-construal has shown to influence our tendency to mimic. An interdependent self-construal facilitates mimicry whereas an independent self-construal inhibits mimicry. For instance, if we are focused on being part of a group (interdependent) we imitate another person, e.g. rub our face, more often than if we are focused on ourselves as an individual (independent) (van Baaren et al., 2003). In the present study, we suggested that the

regulatory foci exert the same influence on mimicry. We proposed that prevention focus acts as a facilitator of mimicry and promotion focus as an inhibitor of mimicry.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Mimicry

The ability to imitate is a fundamental manner of behavior in primates, including humans. Imitation is crucial for learning processes and social affiliation (Bandura, 1977; Piaget, 1946). In instances, such as learning a sport or joining a group, imitational behavior is generally intentional and goal-oriented. However, unintentional imitation has fascinated scholars for a long time (Bandura, 1977; Bavelas, Black, Lemery, & Mullet, 1987; James 1890; Koffka, 1925; Piaget, 1946). Researchers have shown that people tend to mimic many aspects of human behavior, including gestures, mannerisms, speech patterns, syntax, accents, facial expressions, as well as moods and emotions (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999; Dijksterhuis et al., 2006; see Chartrand et al., 2005; see Dijksterhuis & Bargh, 2001 for an overview). For the present study, only relevant literature on behavioral matching will be discussed.

Early pivotal studies in the research of nonconscious mimicry were conducted by Schefflen (1964) and Bernieri (1988). Former one analyzed postures of interaction partners and their meaning in regard to liking, understanding and communication. Latter one provided first methodologically strong evidence that people who interacted, spontaneously mirrored each other's postures. Research over the last two centuries has revealed how direct and subconsciously social perception affects behavior (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999; Tanner et al., 2008). Studies have shown that priming stereotypes or trait concepts does not only automatically activate certain perceptions but also automatically influences behavior (Bargh, Chen & Burrows, 1996; Chen & Bargh, 1997; Dijksterhuis et al., 1998). Participants, for example, walked slower down a hallway after they had been primed with an elderly stereotype or interrupted the experimenter more after the concept of rudeness had been primed (Bargh et al., 1996). Chartrand and Bargh's groundbreaking study in 1999 gathered crucial data on behavioral mimicry, or what they referred to as the *chameleon effect*. This effect describes a

person's nonconscious tendency to mimic behavior such as postures, mannerisms and facial expressions of others. Their participants showed behavioral mimicry, consecutively with two separate confederates. Participants significantly smiled, rubbed their or shook their foot more often when the confederate at the time was showing this behavior. This kind of natural adaption to social partners fits the analogy of a chameleon adapting to its environment by changing its color. Chartrand and Bargh (1999) also demonstrated the automaticity and sub-consciousness of the chameleon effect. Participants were not aware of their own imitative behavior nor were they aware of particular mannerism of the confederate. In these experiments mimicry occurred in most minimal circumstances in which the interactants were strangers and without affiliation goals (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999). Neumann and Strack (2000) conducted a study that replicated these findings with a different set-up. Participants automatically imitated the tone of voice of a person who was not known nor even present. Such evidence supports the notion that mimicry occurs without any intention.

Neurological Explanation. The close relationship between perception and behavior has been described with the so-called *perception-behavior link*. It states that merely perceiving an action performed by another raises the likelihood of performing the action oneself (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999). Dijksterhuis & Bargh (2001) explain this phenomenon with shared perceptual and behavioral mental representations in the brain. The activated representation due to perceiving a behavior activates the behavior itself. There has already been much evidence supporting the theory of shared neurological systems for *thinking and doing* (Paus, Petrides, Evans & Meyer, 1993; Decety, Jeannerod, Germain & Pastene, 1991; Zajonc, Pietromonaco & Bargh, 1982). Jeannerod (1994, 1997) has demonstrated that thinking about a behavior activates the same neurons in the premotor cortex as performing the action. Earlier studies, using electrodes, revealed that participants watching a person read or arm-wrestle, exhibited subtle activity in their own face and arm muscles (Berger & Hadley, 1975). More recently, neurophysiologic studies have gathered supportive evidence for the perception-behavior link, showing that not only thinking but also *perceiving* an action activates the same neurons as performing the action. An fMRI study by Buccino et al. (2001) produced evidence that during the observation of someone else's body movements, the neural structures that are active in the observer are the

same which are involved in the execution of the movement. In line with this, Rizzolatti, Fadiga, Fogassi and Gallese (2002) found evidence that neuron circuits that are part of mental motor programs are activated during the perception of intentional motor behavior.

To sum up, many studies have supporting evidence that the tendency to mimic is automatic and outside of awareness (Chartrand & Bargh 1999; Niedenthal, Barsalou, Winkielman, Krauth-Gruber & Ric, 2005; van Baaren et al., 2003). Neither motivation nor conscious decisions are needed. The mimicry effect seems to be due to a shared system of mental representations and an automatic activation of the respective motor programs. From an evolutionary standpoint unconscious imitation might have proven profitable in flight from danger situations. Mimicry also leads to smoother interactions and greater liking which likely has helped satisfy the fundamental human need of belonging (Chartrand et al., 2005; Dijksterhuis & Bargh 2001). Newer studies investigate mimicry in regard to consumption behavior.

Mimicry and Consumption

Tanner et al. (2008) tested the mimicry effect in a very minimal social environment. The confederate was only displayed on a computer screen. Hence, no interaction or communication were possible. Participants watched the confederate, on a screen, doing a task while eating one of two available snacks. Subsequently in a seemingly unrelated task, participants mimicked the confederate's consumption behavior, eating more of the same type of snack that the confederate had eaten. This result demonstrates not only that observing another person's consumption behavior leads to a mimicking effect and influences one's own consumption behavior, it also shows that the person does not even have to be physically present. When asked how they had decided what to eat, only 11% of the sample mentioned the confederate's behavior. Evidence that supports the non-conscious character of mimicry. It has been shown that performing certain motions during the rating of a product or the intake of a drink influences consumer's judgment and consumption behavior (Förster; 2003, 2004). Arm extension, a gesture of avoidance, resulted in smaller food intake than arm flexion, a gesture of

approach. Ineichen et al. (2009) tested if just the observation of the arm extension and arm flexion gesture triggers an effect of mimicry. The authors assumed that the observation as mentioned above leads to a mental simulation process. They also recorded empathy as an independent variable that might explain individual differences in participants' mimicking behavior (Ineichen et al., 2009). In the approach condition, a short video was shown with an athlete pulling a bell bar towards himself, whereas in the avoidance condition, he pushes the bell bar away from him. While watching the video, participants were tasting a new sports drink. Curling the bell bar uses the same motion and muscles as lifting a drink. Hence, the authors assumed more drink intake occurring in the approach condition. This was true for emphatic participants; they consumed more of the drink when watching the approach video than the avoidance video. The opposite pattern was true for low-emphatic participants. However, there were no significant main effect of the type of body movement. Ineichen et al. (2009) successfully demonstrated that behavior unrelated to consumption can affect consumption behavior if it triggers the automatic habit of mimicking. However, the effect was only found in emphatic individuals.

Genschow et al. (unpublished) carried on the research of Ineichen et al. (2009). Genschow et al. (unpublished) tested the mimicry effect also using a video with an athlete curling a barbell or pushing a barbell and a sports drink functioning as the dependent measure. Study 1 showed that the higher participants' perspective taking ability was, the more mimicking behavior was shown. In study 2, the perspective in the video was modified. One group of participants saw a video where the athlete was viewed from the observer position as in former studies. The other group saw a video that viewed the athlete from the actor's position. Previous research has shown that people are more affected when they adopt the actor's position (Jackson, Meltzoff, & Decety 2006; Lamm, Batson, & Decety 2007; Marx & Stapel 2006; Storms 1973). Genschow et al. (unpublished) successfully demonstrated that manipulating the perspective taking of individuals affects their tendency to mimic. Participants in the actor-perspective condition mimicked significantly more (drank more) when they watched an arm lifting movement than when they watched an arm stretching movement. There was no difference in drink intake for participants in the observer-perspective condition. In order to ensure these results were not

due to mimicking the motion and not different sized gulps, Genschow et al. (unpublished) tested the effect again with small one-sip-cups. This time the actor's perspective was used for all participants. They were able to replicate their significant findings in support of mimicry. It can be argued that the arm lifting and arm stretching movements trigger approach and avoidance schemas. These schemas then lead to approach or avoidance behavior such as approaching a drink or avoiding a drink. In contrast, the perception-behavior link states that the perception of a motion activates the respective motor programs. In a fourth study, one group of participants was drinking through a tube instead of a cup. This way if people in the tube condition would drink more in the arm lifting condition, the approach/avoidance schema theory was likely to be more accurate since the manner of intake does not matter here. However, the effect was only found for the cup drinking condition when the observed motion resembled the drinking motion. These results are inconsistent with an approach/avoidance priming explanation, and support the mimicry theory. Finally, in all four studies there was no effect on the evaluation of the drink. These findings support the assumption that mimicking behavior is a direct and subconscious process. The set up for the mimicking situation in our present study was modeled after the experiment of Genschow et al. (unpublished). We intended to reproduce their findings of unconscious mimicry with a gummy candy.

Moderators

There has been some research into possible moderators of the mimicry effect. Implicit and explicit goals to affiliate as well as sympathy have been found to function as facilitators that enhance the tendency to mimic (Charney, 1966; LaFrance & Broadbent, 1976; Lakin & Chartrand, 2003). However, there are also personal traits that have been shown to affect our tendency to mimic. As mentioned above, Ineichen et al (2009) found evidence that empathy plays an important role in our mimicking behavior. Chartrand and Bargh (1999) were the first to investigate if individual differences mediate the tendency to mimic. They measured the emotional and cognitive facet of empathy. The authors suggested that the cognitive facet, *perspective taking*, is more relevant for mimicry, because the perception-behavior link is an

automatic and cognitive process without a particular emotional character. Results showed that empathic concern did not mediate mimicry, whereas perspective taking did. High-perspective takers mimicked behavior significantly more than low-perspective takers.

Self-Focus. Dijksterhuis and colleagues (Dijksterhuis et al., 2000; Dijksterhuis & van Knippenberg, 2000) investigated a possible inhibitor for the perception-behavior link. They manipulated their participants' *self-focus* by putting them in front of a mirror; a technique that is known to enhance a person's self-focus (Duval & Wicklund, 1972). Some participants had been primed with the stereotype of politicians while others had not been primed. All were asked to write a short essay. Some were seated in front of a mirror. The authors expected the stereotype of longwinded politicians to lead to longer essays of primed participants. The effect, however, was only found in participants that were not seated in front of a mirror. The heightened self-focus inhibited the direct effect of perception on behavior. The authors replicated this finding in a second experiment with stereotypes of professors and soccer hooligans. Likewise, they found self-focus as an inhibitor of behavioral mimicry. Following the procedure of Chartrand and Bargh (1999), participants worked on a task together with confederates that engaged in nose-rubbing or foot-shaking. To enhance self-focus in one condition, participants had to work on a task using the pronouns I, me and mine. The mimicry effect was successfully replicated in the task that did *not* heighten the self-focus. Participants that worked on the first person pronoun task did not mimic the confederate's behavior. These findings demonstrate that self-focus or related concepts such as self-construal are factors that play a role in regard to mimicry.

2.2. Self-Construal

Research shows that mimicry is mediated by self-construal. This influence is crucial for our analysis because we infer a similar effect of self-regulatory focus on mimicry. Therefore we analyze what constitutes the self-construals and how they are related to the regulatory foci. In 1955, Hallowell wrote that people develop a notion of themselves as being separate from others. Allport (1937) suggested that we all have knowledge about the continuance of ourselves so that we know we are still the same person when we wake up. Kuhn and McPartland (1954)

defined the self as an “interiorization of one’s positions in social systems” (p. 72). A great body of research has demonstrated that the view people have of themselves in relation to their social environment differs systematically between Western and Eastern Cultures (e.g., Heelas & Lock, 1981; Hofstede, 1980; Marsella, De Vos, & Hsu, 1985; Roland, 1988; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990; Shweder, 1990; Shweder & Levine, 1984; Stigler, Shweder, & Herdt, 1990; Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai & Lucca, 1988; Triandis, 1989; Triandis & Brislin, 1980). Western cultures are known for their normative imperative of becoming independent and expressing one’s uniqueness. This aim leads to a greater focus on one’s personal feelings, thoughts, and actions, than on the feelings, thoughts and actions of others. The self is viewed as a bounded, unique and independent whole and contrasted to its social and physical surrounding. This view of the self is referred to as individualism. In contrast, many non-Western cultures stress the interconnectedness and interdependence between people. Markus and Kitayama (1991) summarize collectivism the following:

Experiencing interdependence entails seeing oneself as part of an encompassing social relationship and recognizing that one’s behavior is determined, contingent on, and, to a large extent organized by what the actor perceives to be the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the relationship. (p. 227)

Culture has been shown to be an important determinant of whether the person develops an individualist or collectivist view of the self. However, research has provided much evidence that there are individual differences. Individuals, irrespective of their culture, can tend more towards one or the other type of self-construal (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992; Cross & Markus 1991; Gardner, Gabriel & Lee, 1999; Trafimow, Triandis & Goto, 1991; Triandis, McCusker & Hui, 1990). The distinction that has been referred to as individualism and collectivism on a cultural level, has been referred to on an individual level as independent and interdependent self-construal, personal and social self or idiocentric and allocentric self (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989; Triandis et al., 1990).¹ Singelis conceptualizes the self-construal as “a constellation of thoughts, feelings, and actions concerning one’s relationship to others, and the self as distinct from others” (1994, p. 581). For those with an independent self-construal, self-representations most elaborated and accessible are personal desires,

¹ By reason of consistency, the terms *interdependent* and *independent* will be used in the present paper.

preferences, attributes, or abilities (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). An independent self-construal heightens the focus on one's own internal thoughts, feelings and behavior. The independent self comprises the aspects of the self that focus on the distinction and differentiation of the self from others (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Self-expression, autonomy and competitive behavior are highly valued by independent selves. Behavior, skills and thoughts that emphasize one's uniqueness and specialness are esteemed and enhance the self-evaluation (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). In contrast, people with an interdependent self pay great attention to an ingroup and its norms. They highly value harmony in the ingroup, the ingroup fate and the ingroup achievement (Triandis et al., 1990). The public aspect of the self is more important and they try harder to adapt to social groups and conform to obligations. The interdependent self comprises the aspects of the self that focus on the interconnectedness and interdependence with the social world (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). The most relevant self-representations are those that describe the relations to others. Using the twenty-statement task (Kuhn & McPartland, 1953), Trafimow et al. (1991) demonstrated that people with a Chinese background gave more group responses (e.g. demographic categories), and fewer idiocentric responses (e.g. attitudes, beliefs), than people with a North American background. Numerous studies with Chinese individuals show that they act according to anticipated expectations of others rather than their own wishes and dispositions (summarized in Bond, 1986). People with an interdependent self-construal value behavior such as conformity and obedience more than competition. Behavior and thoughts that highlight one's connectedness to others and help to fit in with others enhances self-esteem (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Individuals with a strong interdependent self-construal are more attentive and sensitive to other people than individuals with an independent self-construal (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). This heightened sensitivity and attention to others might result in a greater ability to take the perspective of other people. There has been some indirect evidence for this hypothesis. For example, cross-cultural research has shown that the actor/observer effect and the tendency to rate others as inferior to oneself are less pronounced in collectivistic people (Choi & Nisbett, 1998; Heine & Lehman, 1999). Vorauer and Cameron (2002) argue that "[r]eductions in these social perception biases are suggestive of superior perspective taking" (p. 1344). They also demonstrated that people with interdependent selves place more value on perspective taking and are more confident about reading other people's

mind (Vorauer & Cameron, 2002). There has also been found differences in regard to information processing styles. People with interdependent selves tend to take the entire environmental field into account and show heightened context sensitivity (Masuda & Nisbett, 2001). In contrast to this holistic and context-dependent processing style, people with independent selves show an analytic processing style. They tend to analyze objects and people separate from their context (Ji, Peng & Nisbett, 2000; Kühnen, Hannover & Schubert, 2001).

The Dual Self. Earlier studies primarily tested people's chronically accessible self-construals. However, belonging and autonomy are universal human needs that we carry around with us at all times. Hence, we can hold both views of the self, independent and interdependent. Culture influences the development of our self-construal in general, but also individual history as well as motives and situations shift our self focus. Researchers, therefore, investigated the coexistence of the two self-construals in people and the activation of them with situational primes. Trafimow et al. (1991) showed that reading a story with an independent or interdependent focus elicited the corresponding self-construal. Similarly, Brewer & Gardner (1996) successfully primed their subjects using a pronoun task, and demonstrated that the level of activated self-construal effects the processing of information about others. "Judgments of dissimilarity took significantly longer for those in the *we* prime condition than in the *they* prime condition, whereas similarity judgments were facilitated by the *we* prime" (Brewer & Gardner, 1996, p. 88). Furthermore, participants with an interdependent prime state more relationship or membership relevant self-descriptions in the twenty-statement task (Kuhn & McPartland, 1954) than participants with an independent prime (Gardner et al., 1999). They also endorse collectivist values more than individualist values. In a second experiment, Gardner et al. (1999) demonstrated that participants from a Western country were in an independent mind-set no matter if they had independent priming or no priming. The same results were found with interdependent mind-sets in participants from an Eastern country. However, priming that was "different from what was chronically encouraged by the cultural context" lead to shifts in people's value endorsements. The authors conclude that these shifts in judgments are mediated through a shift in self-construal (Gardner et al., 1999). Stapel and Koomen (2001) hypothesized that, depending on what type of self-construal is activated, social comparison will lead either to

contrast(independent self) or to assimilation(interdependent self). Their study demonstrated when the interdependent self was activated, people were in an integration mind-set and similarities to others were accentuated. In contrast, when the independent self was activated, people were in a differentiation mind-set and emphasis was put on self-distinctiveness.

In line with these results of the coexistence of self-construals, Yamaguchi, Kuhlman and Sugimori (1992) found a two-factor model as the best fit for their individualist and collectivist items. They concluded that independent self and interdependent self are not two ends of a single bipolar dimension, but are distinct aspects of self. Hence, a low independent self-construal does not have to equal a high interdependent self and vice versa. This two factor structure has also been found with Singelis' Self-Construal Scale (SCS) (1994). The SCS measures the strength of a person's independent and interdependent self. The questionnaire includes two distinct scales, half of the items constituting the independent self-construal scale, and the other half constituting the interdependent self-construal scale.²

Self-Construal and Mimicry

Van Baaren et al. (2003) suggested that assimilation vs. differentiation tendencies can also be observed in behavior. Mimicry has been shown to be an unconscious tendency to assimilate one's behavior to others. Therefore, van Baaren et al. (2003) proposed that more mimicry will occur when the interdependent self is activated than when the independent self is activated. They conducted three experiments that demonstrated how self-construal orientation moderates mimicry. In their first experiment, van Baaren et al. (2003) primed their participants with a bogus translation task with words that were either related to the independent self, or with words that were not related to the self at all (control condition). Individuals primed in the independent priming condition mimicked the confederate significantly less than did individuals in the control condition. In another experiment the authors primed the participants with a scrambled sentence task (Kühnen & Hanover, 2000). One group was primed with an independent state of self-view, another group with an interdependent state of self-view, and

² The SCS is described in more detail in chapter 4.1..

the control group did not receive any prime. The authors found a linear trend between self-construal and mimicry. Most mimicry occurred among participants manipulated with an interdependent prime, followed by mimicry in the control condition, and finally the least mimicry was observed in the independent priming condition. In their last experiment, van Baaren et al. (2003) hypothesized that the same effect on mimicry was to be found with measuring people's chronic self-construals instead of inducing them situationally. Japanese individuals have been shown to hold a chronic interdependent self-construal whereas Americans have been shown to hold an independent self-construal (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis et al., 1990). Therefore, van Baaren et al. (2003) replicated their experiment with Japanese and American subjects. As hypothesized, Japanese participants spent more time mimicking than American participants. The confederate's ethnicity, Japanese or American, did not make a difference. These results support the author's hypothesis that situationally activated as well as chronic self-construals moderate mimicking behavior. The results apply to different type of behaviors such as face rubbing or playing with a pen. The greater tendency to mimic by people with interdependent self-construals corresponds with their tendencies to pay more attention to others, to conform more to groups and to be more concerned with social interaction and positive relationships. In addition, in all three experiments participants were not aware of the confederate's mannerism or their own copying behavior.

To sum up, research has shown that a heightened self-focus inhibits the tendency to mimic, whereas perspective taking facilitates the tendency to mimic. A focus on oneself has been associated with an independent self, and a focus on other people's perspective has been associated with an interdependent self. In line with this, van Baaren et al. (2003) successfully demonstrated that individuals with interdependent self-construals tend to mimic more and individuals with independent self-construals tend to mimic less.

2.3. Regulatory Focus

The self-construals have been found in previous research to share certain characteristics with the regulatory foci. Aspects such as a focus on one's own desires and accomplishments vs. a focus on harmony with others and responsibilities seem to present a link between these mental orientations. In the present study we are going a step further than previous research on mimicry and we postulate that regulatory focus has similar effects on mimicry as self-construal. Whereas self-construal constitutes the view of oneself, the regulatory focus describes a motivational state with avoidance and approach strategies to attain goals. In the influential text 'Beyond Pleasure and Pain' in 1997, Higgins revolutionized the avoidance-approach theory of people's motivation. Traditionally, the hedonic principle, also called pleasure principle, had been applied to interpret people's motivation in all kinds of areas in psychology (Higgins, 1997). However, all the investigations on avoidance-approach motivation had ignored differences and relations between the type of desired end-state and the mean to approach it. The hedonic principle is silent on *how* people approach pleasure and avoid pain, and their tendencies towards one or the other. Higgins (1997) introduced a new theory of regulatory focus which helps explain *what* strategies people use in order to reach their desired end-states and *why* they use them. Higgins (1997) proposed that the regulatory focus differs in a person depending on the type of need. He distinguished the main types of needs into the need for nurturance and the need for security. "Nurturance-related regulation involves a promotion focus, whereas security-related regulation involves a prevention focus" (Higgins, 1997, p. 1281). In relation to desired end-states, we can differentiate between motivation that is aroused by ideals (hopes, wishes, aspirations) or motivation that is aroused by oughts (obligations, duties, responsibilities). Self-regulation by ideals elicits a promotion focus while self-regulation by oughts elicits a prevention focus (Higgins, 1997). The end-state differs according to the type of regulatory focus. In a promotion focus a person strives for aspirations and accomplishments while in a prevention focus a person strives for responsibilities and safety.

A person in a promotion focus experiences the presence and absence of positive outcomes as pleasure and pain, respectively. A person in a prevention focus experiences the presence and

absence of negative outcomes as pain and pleasure, respectively. In other words, each type of regulatory focus entails a different sensitivity to gains and losses. People in a promotion focus are more sensitive to possible gains, and people in a prevention focus are more sensitive to possible losses (Florack & Hartmann, 2007; Zhou & Pham, 2004). Hence, the sensitivity towards positive outcomes in a promotion focus leads to a behavioral tendency to approach matches and a motivational state of eagerness (Förster, Higgins, & Idson, 1998; Higgins, 1997; Higgins, Friedman, Harlow, Idson, Ayduk and Taylor, 2001). One ensures to acquire hits (gains) and prevent errors of omission (non-gains) when promotion focused. This results in a more risky and less conservative pursuit of the goal (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). Promotion focused participants work faster than prevention focused participants, but accumulate more errors (Förster, Higgins & Taylor Bianco, 2003). In contrast, the sensitivity towards negative outcomes in a prevention focus leads to a behavioral tendency to avoid mismatches and a motivational state of vigilance (Förster et al., 1998; Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). Individuals in a prevention focus ensure to make correct rejections (non-losses) and prevent errors of commission (losses). This results in a more careful and safe pursuit of the goal. Prevention focused people work slower than promotion focused people, but accumulate less mistakes (Förster et al., 2003).

Depending on the regulatory focus and type of desired end-state, people experience different kinds of pain or pleasure. People in a promotion focus who fail to attain their ideals experience dejection-related emotions such as sadness, disappointment or dissatisfaction. People in a prevention focus who fail to meet their oughts experience agitation-related emotions such as anxiety or anguish (Higgins, 1997; Higgins, Bond, Klein & Strauman, 1986). These different emotional experiences have been found on a chronic level (Strauman & Higgins, 1988; Scott & O'Hara, 1993; Strauman, 1989). The stronger the actual vs. *ideal* discrepancies of participants, the stronger were their symptoms of depression. The stronger the actual vs. *ought* discrepancies, the stronger were their symptoms of social anxiety. The regulatory focus was also found to have an impact on the intensity of the emotions. The greater the chronic promotion (prevention) focus, the stronger were the emotions of happiness (ease) that participants experienced if they attained their goals (Higgins, Shah & Friedman, 1997).

Similar to the coexistence of independent and interdependent self-construal, people possess a general tendency towards promotion or prevention behavior, but either focus can also be situationally induced. The regulatory focus can be induced momentarily, for instance, with gain-nongain or nonloss-loss framing (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Shah, Higgins & Friedman, 1998), by eliciting past promotion or prevention related memories (study 5, Higgins et al. 2001), or achievement goals vs. failure avoidance (Lockwood, Jordan & Kunda, 2002). The easiest way to manipulate the regulatory focus is via an elicitation of ideals or oughts in a priming task (see Higgins et al., 1994). Florack et al. (2004) primed the regulatory focus by asking their participants what they would *pursue* choosing from a list of positive things that could happen during their vacation (promotion priming), or they were asked what they would *avoid* choosing from a list of negative things that could happen during their vacation (prevention priming). Florack and Hartmann (2007) produced gain-nongain and nonloss-loss situations with the provision of chocolate bars. In the promotion group, participants were winning the chocolate bars for correct answers whereas in the prevention group, participants lost chocolate bars for wrong answers.

Chronic regulatory focus has been tested via response latencies, self-discrepancies and questionnaires. Higgins et al. (1994) used a Selves Questionnaire and calculated the discrepancies between self and other standpoint on self-chosen attributes. Participants with great ideal discrepancies indicated a promotion focus whereas great ought discrepancies indicated a prevention focus (see also Keller & Bless, 2006; Shah et al., 1998). In 2001, Higgins et al. (2001) developed a Regulatory Focus Questionnaire (RFQ)³ that assesses the chronic promotion and prevention orientations regarding people's subjective history of past success. The questionnaire examines individuals' experiences of success in obtaining past prevention and promotion goals. It consists of two psychometrically distinct subscales, assessing promotion and prevention focus independently. In 2002, Lockwood et al. developed another questionnaire that directly assesses chronic promotion and prevention goals. It also consists of two separate subscales designed to measure promotion and prevention goals (promotion $\alpha = .81$, prevention

³ The RFQ is further described in chapter 4.1..

$\alpha = .75$) (Lockwood et al., 2002). More recently, Keller and Bless (2008) published a questionnaire to assess chronic regulatory concerns in the performance domain.⁴

A number of studies have demonstrated that the motivational subsystems of promotion and prevention affect consumer's goals and product choices (Florack, Scarabis & Gosejohann, 2005). Depending on the regulatory focus, Safer (1998) found differences in the preference for products (cars and apartments) concerning luxury and reliability. Luxury is associated with accomplishment, a promotion goal, and reliability is associated with safety, a prevention goal. Participants preferred products that were high on the scale relevant to their regulatory focus. In a promotion focus, individuals preferred product alternatives that were more luxurious than reliable. The reverse was found for individuals in a prevention focus. Florack et al. (2004) found different brand preferences (sun lotion) for promotion focused individuals than prevention focused individuals. Participants in a promotion condition were more likely to choose sun lotion that was advertised with attaining tan and fun (a promotion-goal). Participants in the prevention condition were more likely to choose sun lotion that was advertised with avoiding sunburn (a prevention-goal). Zhou and Pham (2004) demonstrated that participants that were engaged with a more speculative investment product (promotion prime) were more likely to choose the promotion-relevant toothpaste brand (e.g. tooth-whitening), whereas participants that were engaged with a more secure investment product (prevention prime) were more likely to choose the prevention-relevant toothpaste brand (e.g. cavity prevention).

Regulatory Focus and Self-construal

Few scholars have investigated the antecedents of the self-regulatory foci. Chronic differences have been explained via socialization processes that put emphasis on either ideals or oughts, and styles of child-caretaker interactions (Higgins & Loeb, 1998; Higgins & Silberman, 1998). Cross-cultural studies have shown that Asian subjects possessed a higher sensitivity towards negative information about the self. A heightened self-criticism in interdependent cultures

⁴ The questionnaire by Keller and Bless (2008) is described further in chapter 4.1..

might result from a learning process to improve the self in order to adapt to social contexts and fit in with the group, and might be due to a prevention motivated goal to avoid failure and mistakes in the future (Heine, Lehman, Markus & Kitayama 1999). Ideals involve aspirations that are more likely to be personal, whereas oughts involve duties and obligations that are more likely to be interpersonal. Lee et al. (2000) proposed a new theory that links an individual's self-construal to his/her regulatory focus. They suggested that the independent goals of differentiating oneself from others and emphasizing one's achievements and autonomy are more consistent with a promotion focus. The aim to distinguish oneself positively from others leads to a focus on "[...]positive features of the self and potential gains in situations[...]" (Lee et al., 2000, p. 1123). In contrast, the interdependent goals of harmoniously fitting in with others and emphasizing one's social role and interconnectedness with others are more consistent with a prevention focus. The aim to maintain social connections may lead to a focus on "[...]potentially negative aspects of the self and situations in an attempt to avoid future social mishap" (Lee et al., 2000, p. 1123).

Lee et al. (2000) conducted several studies to investigate the effect of self-construal orientation on self-regulatory focus. Self-construal was operationalized either through the SCS (Singelis, 1994) or a situational framing that introduced a team or an individual event. The self-regulatory focus was operationalized via a frame manipulation with scenarios that either emphasized the potential gains (promotion focus) or the potential losses (prevention focus). Their first results showed that participants who scored high on the independent scale perceived promotion-framed scenarios to be more important than prevention-framed scenarios. In contrast, participants who scored high on the interdependent scale perceived prevention-framed scenarios to be more important than promotion-framed. In another study, participants' self-construal was situationally manipulated with an independent frame (individual goal) or interdependent (group goal) framing. The findings of the first experiment were replicated. In another experiment, American participants evaluated the promotion focused scenario to be more important than the prevention focused one, when in the independent framing. This framing is consistent with the self-construal that is culturally promoted in the U.S., the independent self. However, when they were in the interdependent framing, which is

inconsistent with their culturally promoted self-construal, American participants evaluated the prevention-focused scenario slightly more important. In contrast, Chinese participants evaluated the prevention focused scenario to be more important than the promotion focused one, when in the interdependent framing. This framing is consistent with the self-construal that is culturally promoted in China, the interdependent self. However, when they were in the independent framing, which is inconsistent with their culturally promoted self-construal, Chinese participants evaluated both types of scenarios similarly important. The effect here was not reversed as with the American sample but it was eliminated (Lee et al., 2000). These results suggest that the regulatory focus is influenced by the type of self-construal, chronically accessible or situationally activated. Finally, Lee et al. (2000) conducted a study on the moderating effect of self-construal on regulatory focus by assessing affective responses. Prevention focus is known to elicit feelings along the agitation dimension whereas promotion focus is associated with emotions along the dejection dimension. The authors proposed that if the chronic or situational self-construal activates the respective self-regulation focus, this can also be assessed via the respective type of emotions. Results supported their hypothesis. American participants expressed more happiness- and/or dejection-related emotions that are associated with promotion focus than the relaxation- and/or agitation-related emotions that are associated with prevention focus. The reverse pattern was found for Chinese participants. They experienced more agitation-related (prevention related) emotions. The effect in the Chinese sample was driven by the negative emotions. This result is in line with the notion that interdependent individuals focus more on negative information in order to improve themselves, whereas independent individuals focus more on positive information in order to enhance themselves (Heine & Lehman, 1999). Overall, Lee et al. (2000) found strong evidence that self-construal is an important moderator of regulatory focus.

The possibility that one's self-construal is an antecedent of one's self-regulatory focus offers new explanations for differences between Western and Eastern cultures, such as positivity biases and self-enhancement. American individuals have been found to hold up to five times as many positive than negative attributes in their self-concept (Holmberg, Markus, Herzog & Franks, 1996). This pattern was not found among East Asian cultures. Kitayama, Markus,

Matsumoto and Norasakkunkit (1997) found a reversed effect among Japanese participants who seemed more focused on negative self information. If we assume that these individuals were in a prevention focus and eager to avoid failure, the results show their attention towards negative aspects in order to eradicate them (Heine & Lehman, 1999). In line with these findings, Yeh (1996) revealed that even positive statements about the self by Japanese individuals tend to relate to the absence of negative dispositions (e.g. I'm not lazy.) This result can be explained by the sensitivity towards the presence and absence of negative features in a prevention focus.

Aaker and Lee (2001) proposed that persuasive messages that emphasize promotion or prevention benefits that are consistent with one's active goal will lead to enhanced persuasion effects. We recall that the goals of the interdependent self are characterized by fulfilling social roles, obligations and fitting in, whereas the goals of the independent self are characterized by autonomy and positively distinguishing oneself. Aaker and Lee (2001) situationally activated the independent or interdependent self-construal, and created promotion- or prevention-framed advertisements or stories. Distinct self-construals were activated by inducing the participants to think of themselves as individuals or as members of a team. Regulatory focus was framed either via approaching good benefits or avoiding bad outcomes, or via an emphasis on winning or losing. Participants in the independent priming condition had more positive impressions of the advertising, or better recall of information, that was compatible with a promotion focus. In contrast, participants in the interdependent priming condition had more positive impressions of the advertising, or better recall of the information, that was compatible with a prevention focus. For instance, people that experienced a grape-juice advertisement with a picture that showed a family and a text that emphasized the family (interdependent prime) recorded better impressions of the advertisement that featured prevention-framed benefits such as minimizing risk of cancer or heart disease than the advertisement that featured promotion-framed benefits such as an increase in energy and fun. Aaker and Lee (2001) infer that the underlying process of this effect is goal compatibility between an independent self and promotion focus as well as between an interdependent self and prevention focus. The results suggest that distinct views of the self are related to different self-regulatory foci by distinct types of (consumption) goals.

In line with these results, Briley & Wyer (2002) demonstrated that inducing a group mindset leads to a focus on minimizing negative outcome (=prevention focus). Participants were instructed to perform a task either as individuals or as part of a group. The inducing of a group mindset is interpreted as automatically activating an interdependent self-construal. The authors operationalized the avoidance of negative consequences indirectly via preference ratings for equality in interpersonal situations. Briley and Wyer (2002) proposed that individuals who desire to minimize negative outcome are more likely to prefer compromise solutions than egoistical solutions, because compromise solutions reduce the possibility to incur dissatisfaction on others (Briley & Wyer, 2002). The results showed that subjects “[...]endorsed equality-related proverbs more strongly when they had been led to believe they were participating in groups [...]” (Briley & Wyer, 2002, p. 405). The authors argue that the concern about negative consequences is upheaved by the experienced responsibility to other group members and the responsibility to the group’s cohesiveness and harmony, typical for an interdependent self-view (Briley & Wyer, 2002). In another experiment, Briley and Wyer (2002) exposed participants to national symbols of their country. American participants were provided with pictures including the American flag or Superman, whereas Chinese participants were provided with pictures including the Great Wall or a Chinese Dragon. Participants exposed to symbols of their own culture showed an increased tendency to use first person *plural* pronouns and an increased tendency to allocate resources equitable. The authors suggest this effect is due to not only an increased feeling of membership but also the activation of a prevention focus which results in the increased preference for equality. In order to show that the increased preference for equality is really mediated by a tendency to avoid negative choice outcomes (=prevention focus), Briley and Wyer (2002) demonstrated that subjects choosing the compromise options mentioned problems they would like to avoid more frequently than aspects they found appealing. These results suggest that activating an interdependent self-construal (or group mind-set) leads to a prevention focus (a tendency to avoid negative outcomes).

3. Hypotheses

Based on the findings and literature summarized in the previous chapter, we postulated three hypotheses regarding mimicry, regulatory focus and self-construal. Ineichen et al. (2009) successfully demonstrated that a behavior unrelated to consumption can affect consumption if mimicry is triggered and if the participants are very empathic. People with high empathy ratings drank more liquid while watching an athlete on a video pulling a bell bar towards himself (similar arm motion) than people watching an athlete on a video pushing a bell bar away from himself (dissimilar arm motion). Genschow et al. (unpublished) demonstrated that the mimicry effect occurs for all participants when viewing the athlete from an actor's position in contrast to a third person position. For our first hypothesis, we intended to replicate this effect: mimicry for consumption behavior and under minimal circumstances. The experimental material and set-up was similar to Genschow et al. (unpublished).

Hypothesis 1: The observation of a movement in a context unrelated to consumption makes consumption more likely, if the observed motion resembles a consumption motion than if the observed motion does not resemble a consumption motion.

The foundation of our second hypothesis are findings which show a relation between the regulatory focus and the self-construal. Lee et al. (2000) showed that participants who were primed with or showed a chronic independent self perceived promotion-framed scenarios to be more important than prevention-framed scenarios. In contrast, participants who were primed with or showed a chronic interdependent self perceived prevention-framed scenarios to be more important than promotion-framed. Aaker and Lee (2001) activated the independent or interdependent self-construal situationally, and created promotion- or prevention-framed advertisings or stories. Participants in the independent vs. interdependent priming condition had more positive impressions of the advertising, or better recall of information, that was compatible with a promotion vs. prevention focus. In addition, Briley & Wyer (2002) demonstrated that inducing a group mindset (interdependent self) leads to a focus on minimizing negative outcome (prevention focus). Following this research, we hypothesized that a positive correlation exists between the strength of a person's prevention (promotion) focus

and the strength of their interdependent (independent) self. In other words, we expect individuals in a chronic prevention focus to have a more accessible interdependent self than individuals in a promotion focus. The reverse applies to individuals in a promotion focus; their independent self is expected to be more accessible.

Hypothesis 2: The more a person holds a chronic prevention focus, the stronger is their interdependent self and the more a person holds a promotion focus, the stronger is their independent self.

Research has shown that a heightened self-focus inhibits the tendency to mimic whereas the ability of perspective taking enhances it (Dijksterhuis et al., 2000; Dijksterhuis & van Knippenberg, 2000; Chartrand & Bargh, 1999). Van Baaren et al. (2003) demonstrated that more mimicry occurs if the interdependent self is activated than if the independent self is activated. Participants primed with an interdependent task, showed less mimicking behavior, such as foot shaking, than participants primed with an independent task. We inferred from this effect of independent/interdependent self on mimicry, and the aforementioned relationship between regulatory focus and self-construal, a similar influence of promotion and prevention focus on mimicry. We hypothesized that the more people hold a prevention focus, the more likely they mimic behavior whereas the more people hold a promotion focus, the less likely they mimic behavior.

Hypothesis 3: The mimicking effect postulated in hypothesis 1 is more pronounced in individuals the stronger they hold a prevention focus, and less pronounced in individuals the stronger they hold a promotion focus.

4. The Study

The study was divided into two parts, an online questionnaire and a lab session. The purpose of the online questionnaire was to assess people's chronic self-regulatory foci and self-construals as well as their predilection for gummy candy. About two weeks later, participants partook in a mimicry experiment. In this way participants were less able to link the questionnaire themes to the experiment and allowed us to divide the participants into the experimental conditions in regard to their regulatory focus, sex and predilection for gummy candy.

4.1. Sample

Sixty-three friends volunteered for the diploma study. To make possible gender effects apparent, it was aimed for a sample with an even number of men and women. In addition, the range of age was kept small in order to decrease variance. Two participants were removed from the original sample due to missing data. The time of the experiment was standardized in order to prevent hungry participants⁵. However, nine participants had not eaten lunch or anything else for more than five hours previous to the tasting. Therefore, these participants were removed from the analysis. The final sample size consisted of 52 people, 23 male and 29 female participants. The participants' ages ranged from 20 to 33 years with an average age of 26. The majority of 22 people stated their occupation was studying, 14 people stated working, and 16 people stated studying and working.

4.2. Online Questionnaire

Procedure. The first part of the study was conducted in May 2011. The questionnaire was distributed via the online platform Unipark. The participants received an invitation per e-mail with the link to the questionnaire. The participants had a time period of three weeks to fill out the online questionnaire. The participants' data was collected anonymously. For this reason an anonymous code was created in order to match the first data from the online questionnaire with the second data from the experiment. The following text introduced the participants to the online questionnaire and instructed them on how to create their code. The original German version is included as appendix A.1..

⁵ More information on controlling for participants satiation will be provided in chapter 4.2..

Welcome to my Diploma study,

The following questions deal with the way we reach our goals. There are no wrong or right answers. Your opinion counts.

Your data is recorded anonymously, treated confidentially and not shared with third parties.

An anonymous code will be created in order to match the data of the two test dates. Even so, your identity remains anonymous.

Thank you for your participation in my project.

Best regards,

Irene Mokry

Please create your anonymous code now. The code consists of the first two letters of your mother's maiden name, followed by your mother's date of birth.

If, for example, your mother's maiden name was Smith and she was born on the 12.07.1955, then your code is: sm12071955

This code is crucial for the entire study. Please take your time and type it correctly.

Regulatory Focus. The participants' chronic regulatory focus was assessed via online testing. Three different questionnaires were utilized; a translation of the RFQ by Higgins et al. (2001), the regulatory focus questionnaire by Sassenberg (unpublished), and a new regulatory focus questionnaire by Keller and Bless (2008).

The original RFQ was developed by Higgins et al. (2001) following his famous article on the theory of self-regulation (Higgins, 1997). Using item distributions, exploratory factor analysis and reliability analyses, the authors tested a pool of items. Their final questionnaire consists of 11 items. A factor analysis vindicated a two factor model with promotion and prevention items loading on one factor, respectively. Furthermore, prevention subscale and promotion subscale exhibited good internal and re-test reliabilities. In the present study a German translation was administered. Participants had to rate their agreement on a 5-point scale (1 = never or seldom, 5 = very often). Separate promotion focus (Cronbach α = .51) and prevention focus (Cronbach α = .76) scores were computed by averaging the ratings after recoding reversed items. In comparison to the newer questionnaires, the RFQ relates specifically to the past and assesses the subjective history of attaining promotion and prevention focus goals. For example, the prevention scale included items such as 'Growing up, did you ever act in ways that your parents thought were objectionable?' whereas the promotion scale included items such as 'How often

have you accomplished things that got you psyched to try even harder?'. The full English and German RFQ versions are attached as appendix B.2..

The regulatory focus questionnaire by Sassenberg (unpublished) consists of 22 items. 10 items create the prevention subscale and 12 items create the promotion subscale. It inquires about an individual's general dispositions, and characteristics in relation to goal pursuit. (A promotion item: 'My motto is, "no risk, no reward"' / 'Mein Motto lautet, „wer nicht wagt, der nicht gewinnt“.'; A prevention item: 'I always follow rules and regulations.' / 'Ich halte mich eigentlich immer an Regeln und Vorschriften.'). In the present study, participants again indicated their agreement with each item on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The respective items were added together into a promotion scale with a reliability of .68 (Cronbach's α) and a prevention scale with a reliability of .70 (Cronbach's α). Sassenberg's questionnaire can be seen in appendix B.3..

The new regulatory focus questionnaire by Keller and Bless (2008) assesses especially the performance aspects of promotion and prevention focused self-regulation. The promotion and prevention scales are uncorrelated and show good internal reliabilities (Keller & Bless, 2008). A sample item of the promotion scale reads: 'In situations in which my performance is being judged, I often feel the desire to do well.' A sample item of the prevention scale reads: 'In situations in which my performance is being judged, I often feel tense and unwell.' Respondents are asked to indicate their agreement with each item on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). In the present study, items were combined into a promotion and a prevention scale, yielding a Cronbach α of .77 and .80, respectively. The full questionnaire is attached as appendix B.4..

Self-Construal. In 1994, Singelis developed an instrument to measure the two types of self-construal, independent and interdependent. He started out with 45 items in the initial SCS. Items not loading high enough on either factor or loading similarly high on both factors were dropped. The scale, then, consisted of 24 items, 12 items for each factor. The two subscale scores were uncorrelated. Confirmatory factor analysis showed that the two-factor model was a better fit than the one-factor model (Singelis, 1994). Reliability analysis yielded good results for both subscales ($r=.69-.74$) (Singelis, 1994, p. 586). Apart from a good face validity, Singelis

construct-validated the SCS with an Asian American and Caucasian American sample. In line with theory, Asian Americans were higher on the interdependent dimension whereas Caucasian Americans responded more independently. In recent years six additional items were added to improve internal reliabilities. The final scale comprises 30 items, 15 items for each subscale. A sample item for the independent subscale reads: "I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects." A sample item for the interdependent subscale reads: "I will sacrifice my self interest for the benefit of the group I am in." Participants indicate their agreement with the statements in a 7-point Likert-type format (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). For the analysis at hand, items were added together to create an independent self-construal measure and an interdependent self-construal measure. Reliability analysis yielded only a Cronbach α of .57 for the Independent self-construal scale and .53 for the interdependent self-construal scale. The full English and German Versions are attached as appendix B.5..

Predilection for Gummy Candy. The usage of a specific food entails the influencing factor of people's preferences. Therefore, the predilection for gummy candy was inquired at the end of the online questionnaire. We had to ask for the preference for gummy candy without pointing the participants' attention towards it. Therefore, the preferences for ten products (chocolate, cookies, cake, gummy candy, fruits, vegetables, noodles, meat, fish) including gummy candy were collected on a 5-point scale (1 = very much, 5 = not at all). The ratings for the gummy candy were used to categorize participants into strong preference, strong dislike and no strong partiality. The participants were also asked if they were vegetarians or vegans. One vegetarian declined to eat gummy candy, due to the ingredient gelatin, and was removed from the sample. No participant was on a strict diet or had a food allergy that influenced their ability to eat gummy candy.

4.3. Lab Session

The second part of the study was conducted in June 2011. The participants were provided via e-mail with a link to an online poll on the scheduling platform Doodle. They were asked to sign up for a date and 30 minute slot for their second test. The experiment took place at facilities of the Psychology department of the University of Vienna. It was conducted two weeks after the deadline of the online questionnaire, and took place on seven days over a time period of 3 weeks. Up to three participants were tested simultaneously on three separate computers.

Procedure. After welcoming the participants, they were asked to sign a consent form and to quote their anonymous code. In order to reduce the influence of people's hunger and satiation, the testing time for all days was scheduled from 1 pm to 3 pm. In addition, participants were asked to eat some rice crackers and drink some water at the beginning of the experiment. They were told that the crackers and water were needed to neutralize their taste buds for the following tasting. Then the participants started the experiment at the computer. The subjective feeling of hunger was inquired with two items ('How hungry are you right now'; 'How great is your craving for food at the moment?') on a 4-point scale (1 = extremely, 4 = not at all). For the analysis, they were combined into one measure of hunger (Cronbach's α .85). Information about their previous meal was also recorded ('Did you eat lunch?'; 'How long ago did you eat your last meal?'). After answering these questions, they were provided with a bowl containing exactly 30 jellies and were instructed not to start eating until the video started. The participants did not know that the jellies in the bowl were counted. They were asked to read the text on the screen before advancing to the video. A cover story was invented to explain the food tasting and the video without informing the participants about the object of study. The text introduced a new gummy candy containing electrolytes, designed to be used during sports (see full text in appendix A.2.). In order to standardize the eating motion and make the eating motion identical to the mimicry motion, we also instructed the participants to eat the jellies individually. After reading this brief information, participants were able to start the video. Both videos lasted two minutes and were filmed from the view of the protagonist with only the arms and hands visible. In the mimicry condition, the video viewed a person standing and curling weights from the waist to the chest. In the control condition, the video viewed a person standing and twisting the

weights with the wrists sideways. Once the video was over, the bowl was removed immediately. To round off the cover story participants were asked to answer questions on a 7-point scale (1 = entirely true, 7 = entirely false) concerning their like or dislike of the new jellies ('I like these new sport gummies. '; 'I would recommend these sport gummies to a friend. '; 'These sport gummies appeal to me. '; 'I would buy these sport gummies. '), and their ability to think themselves into a sport situation ('I was able to imagine myself doing sport. '; 'I remembered my last sporty activity. '). The four like/dislike items were combined into one measure of liking with a reliability of .92 (Cronbach's α). In addition, participants were asked if they knew the original snack and how much they liked the new ones in comparison to the originals. Participants were also queried for suspicions about the object of study.

In the final part of the lab session, the affect, mood and positivity of the person was recorded. Participants filled out the German translation (Krohne, Egloff, Kohlmann & Tausch, 1996) of the original English *Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)* (Watson & Clark, 1988). The PANAS items were combined into one measure of affect, yielding a reliability of .82 (Cronbach's α). Mood was recorded via the rating of nine adjectives (joyful, happy, delighted, merry, gloomy, worried, frustrated, upset, miserable) on a 7-point scale according to their momentary mood (1 = fits entirely, 7 = does not fit at all). The items were added up to create one measure of mood (Cronbach's α .93). The full English and German version are attached in appendix B.1.. In order to control a possible positivity effect of the arm approach video (see Cacioppo, Priester, & Bernstein, 1993), participants were asked to rate the pleasantness of ten Chinese characters. The responses were combined into one measure of positivity (Cronbach's α .60). Finally, after participants completed the demographic section of the questionnaire, they were thanked for their participation and offered some chocolate as a thank you. To ensure waiting participants did not overhear the object of the study, participants were promised a de-briefing via e-mail in the following week.

5. Results

Sample Split. Three variables were taken into consideration for the distribution of the sample amongst the video conditions (mimicry/control); regulatory focus, sex and predilection for gummy candy. In order to analyze the interaction between regulatory focus and mimicry, an even amount of participants with strong promotion focus and accordingly strong prevention focus were divided up into the two video conditions (mimicry/control). Based on the data of the regulatory focus scales of Sassenberg (unpublished), each individual's stronger focus was calculated. People with a strong promotion focus, a strong prevention focus or even foci were distributed as evenly as possible between experimental conditions. To make possible gender effects apparent, we tried to distribute male and female participants as evenly as possible to the video conditions (mimicry/control). In order to prevent an over-representation of people with strong or weak predilection to gummy candy, we tried to distribute the participants based on their predilection (as obtained from the online questionnaire). After the study all participants that had not eaten for over five hours prior to the experiment were removed from the sample. The final sample consisted of 26 participants of each video condition. The mimicry sample was comprised of 10 men and 16 women, of which 8 participants had a stronger promotion focus, 8 a stronger prevention focus and 10 had even foci. 10 of these participants liked gummy candy (very much), 9 participants were indifferent to it and 7 participants did not like it (at all). The control sample was comprised of 13 men and 13 women, of which 5 participants had a stronger promotion focus, 12 participants a stronger prevention focus and 9 had even foci. 12 of these participants liked gummy candy (very much), 9 participants were indifferent and 5 participants did not like it (at all). None of the participants correctly guessed any of our hypotheses.

Self-regulation. Studies (Higgins et al., 2001; Keller & Bless 2008) have shown that the two self-regulatory foci are separate psychological constructs that exist simultaneously. Hence for each regulatory focus questionnaire, a promotion and a prevention scale were calculated. For each questionnaire and each person two values were computed; one estimating their strength of promotion focused self-regulation and the other estimating their strength of prevention focused self-regulation. A factor analysis was conducted with the three pairs of regulatory foci. The analysis suggested a three factor model. The prevention scale and promotion scale of

Higgins et al. (2001) and Sassenberg (unpublished) loaded on one factor, respectively. As expected, one factor represented the construct of prevention focused self-regulation and the other represented the construct of promotion focused self-regulation. However, the promotion and prevention scale of Keller and Bless (2008) did not load highly on these two factors. Each showed high loadings on a third factor. This result coincides with an unexpected significant positive correlation between the two scales, $r(50) = .38, p < .05$. In line with earlier studies, the promotion and prevention scales of Higgins et al. (2001) and Sassenberg (unpublished) barely correlated negatively, $r(50) = -.02, p > .05$; $r(50) = -.06, p > .05$. The regulatory focus scales of Keller & Bless (2008) seemed to assess constructs which are significantly related and which differ from the constructs of the two other regulatory focus scales.

Therefore, a second factor analysis without the scales of Keller & Bless (2008) was conducted. The results were more satisfactory. The analysis suggested a two factor model with the two prevention scales loading on one factor as well as the two promotion scales loading on another factor. All four loadings exceed .8 in the rotated component matrix. Due to these results, the scales of Keller & Bless (2008) were excluded from the main calculations in the study. Finally, a comprehensive prevention scale and promotion scale were computed by means of combining the prevention scales and the promotion scales of Higgins et al. (2001) and Sassenberg (unpublished), respectively.

Hypothesis 1. We hypothesized that the observation of a movement in a context unrelated to consumption makes consumption more likely, if the observed motion resembles a consumption motion than if the observed motion does not resemble a consumption motion. Individuals who watched the mimicry video were expected to eat more candy than individuals who watched the control video. Watching a person lift weights resembles the motion of lifting food to one's mouth (mimicry video), whereas the motion of just holding the weights and twisting the wrists does not (control video). This difference would represent an effect of mimicking behavior even in a non-interactive situation and with non-food related material. The effect was not found. On average, participants watching the mimicry video did not eat more jellies ($M = 5.96$ $SE = .64$) than participants watching the control video ($M = 7.35$, $SE = .76$, $t(50) = -1.40$, $p = .085$).

Hypothesis 2. We hypothesized that the accessibility of prevention focus and interdependent self-construal, as well as the accessibility of promotion focus and independent self-construal would correlate positively. The results of the Pearson correlation show the expected positive relationship between a person's regulatory prevention focus and the accessibility of their interdependent self-construal. The stronger a person tended towards a prevention focus, the more accessible was their interdependent self. However, this correlation was weak and failed to reach significance, $r(50) = .19, p = .089$. In line with this result, there was a negative correlation between the regulatory prevention scale and the independent self-construal scale. The stronger the tendency towards a regulatory prevention focus, the less accessible was the independent self-construal. This negative relationship was also weak and missed the level of significance, $r(50) = -.19, p = .084$. The correlations are depicted in figure 1.

There was a significant positive relationship between the regulatory promotion focus and the accessibility of the independent self-construal, $r(50) = .34, p < .01$. The stronger a person tended towards a promotion focus, the more accessible was their independent self. The correlation is illustrated in figure 2. There was a very weak correlation between the regulatory promotion scale and the interdependent self-construal scale, which was unexpectedly in a positive direction but not significant, $r(50) = .11, p = .22$. Overall, Singelis' independent self-construal scale was stronger correlated with both regulatory foci than the interdependent self-construal scale.

FIGURE 1

Scatterplots displaying the correlation between prevention focus and interdependent self-construal (left) and between prevention focus and independent self-construal (right).

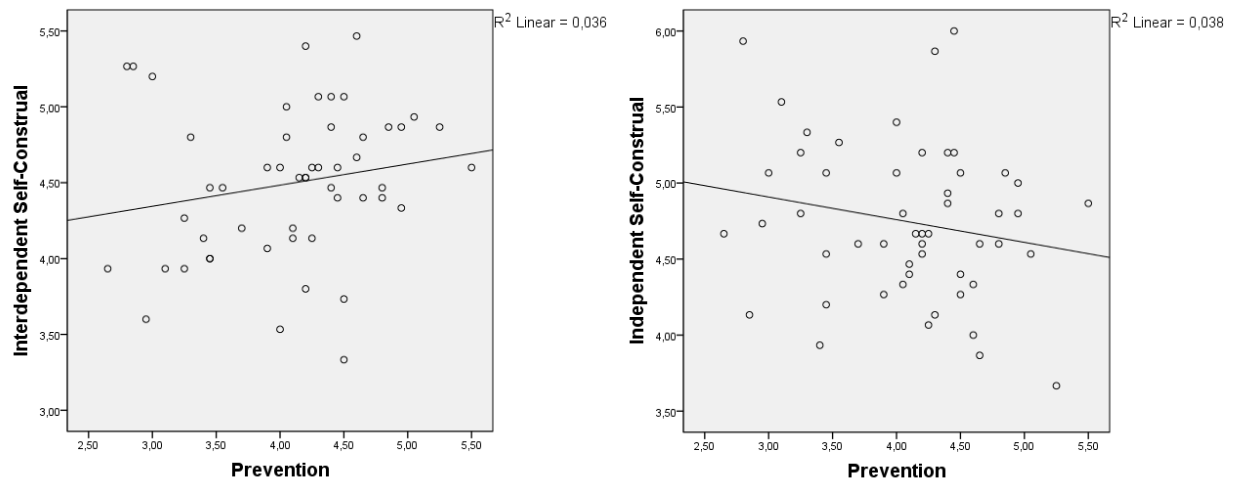
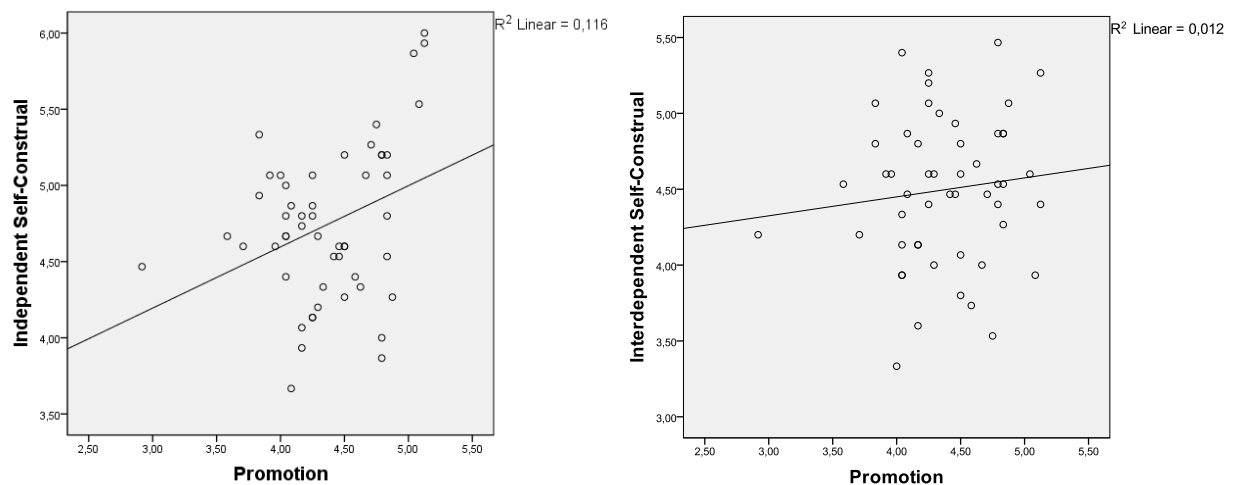


FIGURE 2

Scatterplots displaying the correlation between promotion focus and independent self-construal (left) and between promotion focus and interdependent self-construal (right).



Hypothesis 3. We expected prevention focus to be a facilitator and promotion focus to be an inhibitor of mimicry. The more participants are in a prevention focus the more mimicking behavior would occur whereas the more participants are in a promotion focus the less mimicking would occur. To examine the interaction between self-regulatory focus and video condition, we ran a multiple regression analysis ($R^2 = .21$). The amount of candy eaten served as the dependent measure in all analyses. As predictors we entered the dummy-coded movement

(-1 = arm lifting, +1 = wrist twisting), the promotion and prevention focus, as well as the interaction between the foci and the movement.

Variables Controlled for in the Regression. In all regressions in step 3 and 4, the following variables were included as possible confounders; sex, jelly preference, lunch, lunch-time, satiation, affect, mood and positivity. After excluding the extreme cases of people who had not eaten for over five hours, satiation and lunch did not affect the amount of jellies they ate, neither did people's sex, previously recorded jelly preference, affect, mood or positivity ratings.

Interaction of Self-Regulation and Video . The two-way interactions of video condition and the two regulatory foci as well as all relevant lower order terms were included as predictors. An overview of the regression results is presented in Table 1. The interaction between prevention focus and the video conditions was significant, $\beta = -1.82$, $t(46) = -2.04$, $p = .047$. But the intake of jellies in the mimicry video condition did only rise minimally with the level of participants' prevention focus. The correlation between intake and prevention focus was not significant, $r(24) = .10$, *ns*. The significant interaction was driven by a negative relationship in the control video condition. People's intake and their level of chronic prevention focus correlated negatively in the control condition, $r(24) = -.50$, $p < .01$. The more prevention focused people were, the less jellies they ate in the control video condition. Figure 3 and 4 illustrate the correlations in scatterplot form. There was no significant interaction between promotion focus and video condition, $\beta = .95$, $t(46) = .68$, *ns*. The expected negative correlation between promotion focus and mimicking behavior was too weak to reach significance, $r(24) = -.22$, *ns*. Figure 5 displays the slight decrease of jellies eaten with a gain in promotion focus.

TABLE 1

Multiple Regression Analysis to Test the Interaction Effects of Self-Regulatory Foci and Video Condition on the Consumption of Jellies.

	B	SE B	β	t	p
Constant	15.57	5.80		2.69	.010
Video	3.61	5.80	1.01	.62	.537
Prevention Focus	-1.00	0.77	-.19	-1.31	.198
Prevention F. x Video	-1.57	0.77	-1.82	-2.04	.047*
Promotion Focus	-1.16	1.13	-.14	-1.02	.312
Promotion F. x Video	0.77	1.13	.95	.68	.498

NOTE $R^2 = .21$.

FIGURE 4

Scatterplot displaying the correlation between jelly intake and prevention focus in the control video condition.

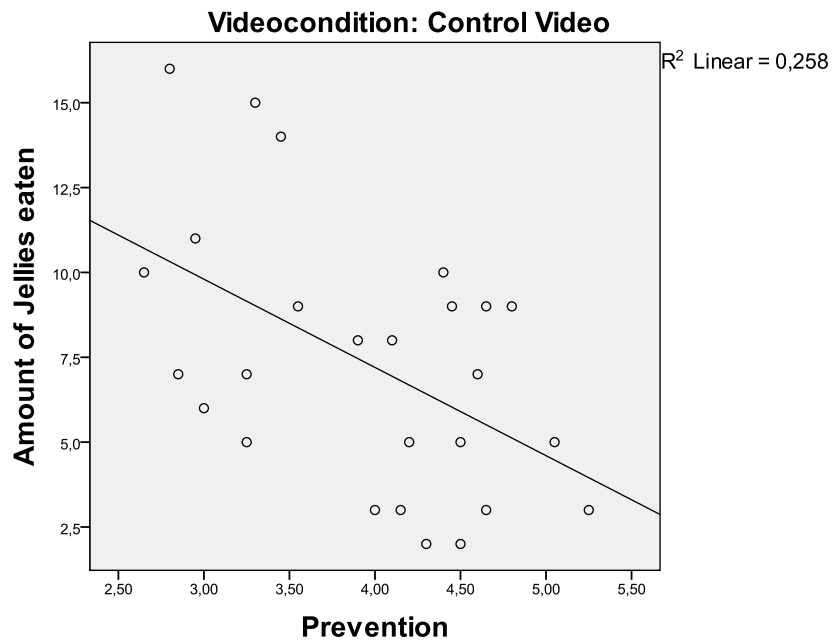
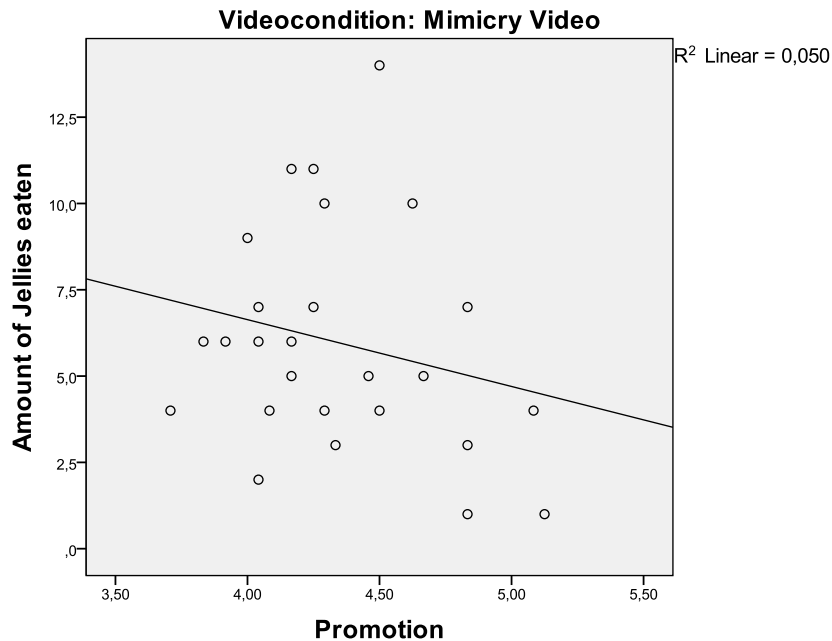


FIGURE 5

Scatterplot displaying the correlation between jelly intake and promotion focus in the mimicry video condition.



The inhibited mimicry effect for promotion focused participants existed for our sample (figure 5) but was too weak to yield a significant result. The greater focus on one's own desires and wishes seems to weaken the tendency to mimic others. The heightened mimicry effect for prevention focused participants was not found (figure 3). The greater focus on others and the context did not strengthen the tendency to mimic others. However, there was a significant effect of the video condition. In the control condition, the stronger participants held a prevention focus the less jellies they ate (figure 4). We interpret this as a kind of avoidance behavior, a tendency typical for people in a prevention focus. The mimicry video condition seems to break open this behavioral pattern. The significant negative trend is eliminated in the mimicry condition. We conclude that the avoidance tendency of prevention focused individuals was weakened by the mimicry effect.

Self-Construal. A second regression was conducted ($R^2 = .07$), including the two self-construals as main predictors as well as their interactions with the video condition. The interaction between prevention and video condition remained significant, $\beta = -2.14$, $t(46) = -2.28$, $p < .05$. This is evidence that although regulatory focus and self-construal are two related constructs,

the prevention interaction effect was stable and independent from the self-construal. Furthermore, there was a significant interaction between independent self and video condition found, $\beta = 2.30$, $t(46) = 2.18$, $p < .05$. The stronger people's independent selves were, the less jellies they ate in the mimicry condition. The correlation reached significance, $r(24) = -.39$, $p < .05$ (figure 6). There was no significant interaction between interdependent self and video condition. There was only a minimal and negative correlation between interdependent self and intake of jellies in the mimicry condition, $r(24) = -.12$, *ns*. These results partially correspond to the findings of van Baaren et al. (2003) who found that activating the independent self reduced the mimicking tendency whereas activating the interdependent self increased it. We were able to replicate the inhibiting influence of the independent self-construal on mimicry. However, the interdependent self did not yield any effect.

TABLE 2

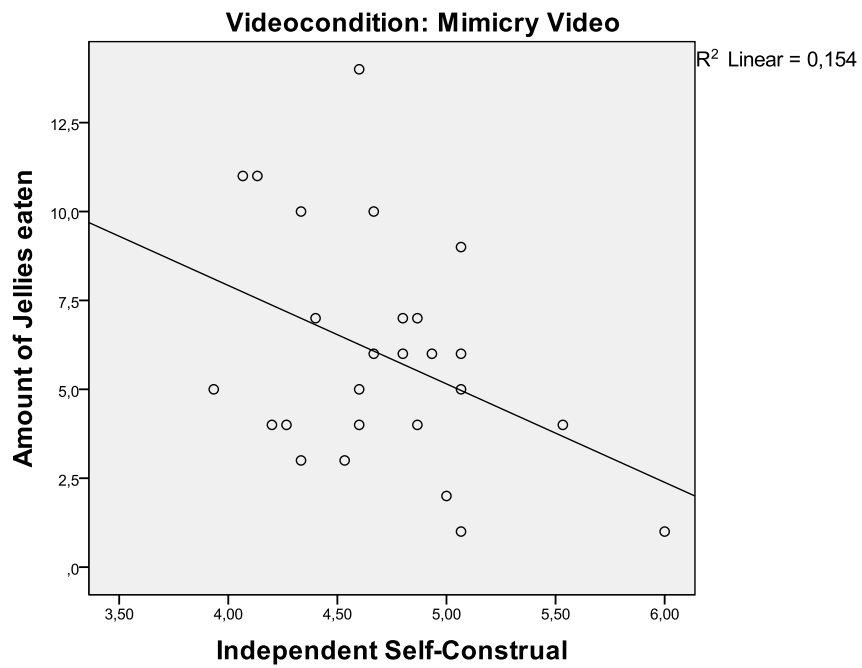
Multiple Regression Analysis to Test the Interaction Effects of Self-Regulatory Foci and Video Condition on the Consumption of Jellies *Including Self-Construals and their Interactions with Video Condition*.

	B	SE B	β	t	p
Constant	14.62	7.46		1.96	.057
Video	-9.29	7.46	-2.60	-1.25	.220
Prevention Focus	-0.41	0.81	-.08	-.50	.617
Prevention F. x Video	-1.85	0.81	-2.14	-2.28	.028*
Promotion Focus	-1.10	1.19	-.13	-.92	.362
Promotion F. x Video	-0.40	1.19	-.49	-.34	.737
Independent Self	-0.67	1.03	-.10	-.65	.519
Interdependent Self	0.27	0.99	.04	.27	.787
Independent S. x Video	2.24	1.03	2.99	2.18	.035*
Interdependent S. x Video	1.92	0.99	2.43	1.93	.060

Note $R^2 = .07$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .11$ for Step 2.

FIGURE 6

Scatterplot displaying the correlation between jelly intake and promotion focus in the mimicry video condition



6. Discussion

Our study failed to replicate a mimicry effect under minimal circumstances with consumption behavior. Although this general effect of mimicry was not found, there was an effect of the mimicry condition on prevention focused participants. In the control condition a significant negative trend indicated that a person ate less jellies the more prevention focused they were. This trend was reversed in the mimicry condition indicating that mimicry inhibited their avoidance tendency. In addition, the results of the correlations between independent/interdependent self-construal and promotion/prevention focus were only partially significant: The more a person was in a promotion focus, the more accessible was his independent self.

Mimicry

In the present study, we tested the mimicry effect for a consumption behavior. The experimental set up was taken over from Ineichen et al. (2009) and Genschow et al. (unpublished). The participants were watching a video that was unrelated to consumption while sampling a gummy candy. The video showed a person from the actor's position either pulling weights (mimicry condition) or twisting the weights (control condition). We hypothesized that a video showing a motion similar to an eating motion would trigger the mimicry tendency, and lead to a greater amount of jellies eaten than in the control condition. Ineichen et al. (2009) and Genschow et al. (unpublished) had found significant mimicry effects in similar studies with videos from the third person view and the intake of a drink, but only for very emphatic individuals or individuals with strong perspective taking abilities. Genschow et al. (unpublished) replicated the experiment while situationally enhancing the ability of people to take the other's perspective by viewing the athlete from an actor's position. This way they successfully found a mimicking effect in individuals in general. Participants, who watched the mimicking video from the first person view, drank more liquid than participants who watched the control video from the first person view. The present study intended to extend these findings with a different product. We tested the mimicry effect on the consumption of gummy candy. However, there was no mimicking effect found. People did not eat more candy in the mimicry video condition than in the control video condition.

One possible explanation for the missing effect of mimicry is the usage of hands in both video conditions. In the mimicry video, the protagonist is lifting the arms towards the face which is similar to the motion of taking in food. The control video shows the protagonist twisting the weights with the wrists. This motion also involves the hands and therefore, might be too similar to the food intake motion. Further studies should investigate this possibility and use a control video that, for instance, uses a foot motion. Nevertheless, Genschow et al. (unpublished) were able to find a mimicry effect with the same video material. The ability to take perspective has been shown in past studies to be a facilitator for mimicry (Chartrand & Bargh 1999; Genschow et al., unpublished). The view of the actor's position seems to automatically activate the process of taking the viewed person's perspective and leads to the mimicking effect. However, each individual's ability to take other people's perspective might influence how easily the perspective of a viewed person might be internalized. The general ability of perspective taking was not assessed in the present study, and might have had an effect on the results.

Regulatory focus and Self-construal

Our second hypothesis stated that regulatory focus and self-construal are related in the following; a prevention focus correlates with an interdependent self and a promotion focus correlates with an independent self. Lee et al. (2000) demonstrated in a number of studies that the situational or chronic self-construal of a person affects their importance judgments of information which was either promotion or prevention framed. For instance, Chinese participants, who are known to tend more towards an interdependent self, judged information that was presented in a prevention frame more important than information presented in a promotion frame, and vice versa. Aaker and Lee (2001) replicated these findings with advertising messages and persuasion effects as well as information and recall effects. Individuals with a situationally primed independent self-construal had more positive impressions of an advertising in a promotion frame whereas individuals with a situationally primed interdependent self-construal had more positive impressions of an advertising in a prevention frame. More support for this relation between self-construal and regulatory focus has been found by Briley and Wyer (2002) who demonstrated that inducing a group mind-set (interdependent self) lead to a tendency to avoid negative outcome (prevention focus).

In our present study, we tested this relation in a more direct way. We assessed the chronic self-construals with the SCS (Singelis, 1994) and the chronic regulatory foci with the RFQ (Higgins et al., 2001) as well as Sassenberg's regulatory focus questionnaire (unpublished). We conducted Pearson correlations between the self-construal scales (interdependent & independent) and the regulatory focus scales (prevention & promotion). Only one correlation yielded a significant result. Promotion focus correlated positively and significantly with independent self-construal. Individuals in a self-regulatory promotion focus are likely to hold an independent self-construal and vice versa. This result supports earlier findings (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Lee et al., 2000). People that see themselves as separate from others are more likely to focus on ideals and gains, and use more risky approach strategies. We suggest that this relationship is based on the similarity between a focus on one's own ideals and accomplishments, and a focus on one's own abilities and uniqueness. The hypothesized positive correlation between prevention focus and interdependent self-construal was found but not significant. There seems to have been a weak association between a person's focus on assimilation and harmony with others, and their focus on oughts and responsibilities. We assume that a larger sample might yield more significant results in the future. In addition, the usage of an additional instrument to measure the self-view of a person would be a possibility to raise the reliability of the self-construal measurement.

Mimicry and Regulatory Focus

Our final hypothesis extended previous research. Prevention focus is associated with an interdependent self-view and promotion focus is associated with an independent self-view. Furthermore, an interdependent self-view has been shown to facilitate mimicry whereas an independent self-view has been shown to inhibit mimicry. Therefore, we hypothesized that prevention focus facilitates mimicry while promotion focus inhibits mimicry. The multiple regression analysis yielded no significant results for the interaction between promotion focus and video condition. However, there was the assumed negative correlation between promotion focus and jelly intake in the mimicry condition which indicates that the more pronounced the promotion focus of a person was, the less jellies they ate. This tendency suggests that the greater the focus on one's own ideals and accomplishments, the less likely we mimic the behavior of others. Unfortunately, it was too weak to reach significance.

The interaction between prevention focus and video condition was significant. However, there was only a minimal, non-significant raise in mimicry (jellies eaten) in the weight lifting (mimicry) condition. The significant interaction was driven by a significant negative correlation in the control video condition. In other words, the more participants tended towards a prevention focus in the control condition, the less candy they ate. An avoidance tendency is typical for people in a prevention focus who tend to be vigilant, use more conservative strategies and are eager to prevent errors of commission. We assume that the negative trend in the control video reflects this. The avoidance tendency seems to be stronger than the greater context sensitivity and adaptation to others and norms. The prevention focused participants in our experiment were likely in a state of vigilance and were trying not to do something wrong, were careful not to seem greedy, or were more conscious of the negative effects of candy. The mimicry effect eliminated this avoidance tendency; the negative trend from the control video condition was reversed for the mimicry condition. In the consumption situation that we created the drive to mimic and the drive to avoid seem to have been competing forces. In other words, triggering the tendency to mimic behavior weakened the avoidance behavior of prevention focused individuals.

In another multiple regression, we included the independent and interdependent self-construals as separate terms. The prevention interaction effect remained stable which indicates that, although related, regulatory foci and self-construals are not identical constructs. We were able to replicate the inhibiting effect of an independent self-construal on mimicry (Baaren et al., 2003). The more accessible a person's independent self-view, the less jellies they ate in the mimicry condition. We did not find a facilitating effect of an interdependent self-view on mimicry. The present study used a rather small sample and tested the influence of the regulatory foci on mimicry under minimal circumstances. Further studies with larger samples might yield more significant results. It is also recommendable to investigate the effect of prevention and promotion orientation on the tendency to mimic in more classical settings with confederates present, and with non-consumption related behaviors.

Conclusion Numerous studies have demonstrated the unintentional tendency of humans to mimic behavior. There seems to be an underlying process of automatic activation of respective

neural motor programs. Recently, Genschow et al. (unpublished) found evidence that participants consume more of a drink as a result of mimicking a motion from a video that was unrelated to consumption. Unfortunately, we were unable to replicate the mimicry effect with gummy candy. Nevertheless, our analysis found a weak inhibiting effect of promotion focus on mimicry. The more pronounced the promotion focus of a person was, the less mimicking behavior they showed. Although not statistically significant, the tendency matches further significant results; promotion focus and independent self-construal correlated, and independent self-construal inhibited mimicry. Our results do not support the hypothesis that prevention focus represents a facilitator of mimicry. In line with this, the interdependent self-construals of participants did not facilitate mimicry either which contradicts earlier findings (Baaren et al., 2003). However, we found only a non-significant relationship between prevention focus and interdependent self-construal. Nevertheless, we were able to find a mimicry effect on prevention focused participants. Mimicry significantly weakened the avoidance tendency of prevention focused individuals, and incited them to consume more jellies. People that were careful not to do something wrong, such as seem greedy, were stimulated by the mimicry video to eat more candy.

7. Kurzzusammenfassung

Die vorliegende Studie untersuchte Mimikry unter minimalen Umständen, sowie den Zusammenhang zwischen dem Self-construal (Singelis, 1994) und dem regulatorischen Fokus einer Person (Higgins, 1997), als auch ob ein Prevention Fokus den Mimikry Effekt verstärkt während ein Promotion Fokus diesen vermindert. Viele Studien haben bewiesen, dass Menschen eine Tendenz besitzen das Verhalten ihrer Interaktionspartner zu kopieren. Genschow et al. (unpubliziert) bahnbrechende Ergebnisse zeigen, dass der Konsum eines Getränkes anstieg aufgrund des Kopierens eines Verhaltens das auf einem Video gezeigt wurde und der Trinkbewegung ähnelte aber in einem ganz anderem Kontext auftrat. Dieses Ergebnis konnte mit einem anderen Produkt (Sportgummis) in der vorliegenden Studie nicht repliziert werden. Die Forschung hat gezeigt, dass Menschen mit interabhängigen Self-construals mit größerer Wahrscheinlichkeit Verhalten kopieren, während Menschen mit unabhängigen Self-construals weniger wahrscheinlich Verhalten kopieren (van Baaren et al., 2003). Ein interabhängiges Self-construal hängt mit dem Prevention Fokus zusammen und ein unabhängiges Self-construal hängt mit dem Promotion Fokus zusammen (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Lee et al., 2000). Daher untersuchten wir die Korrelationen zwischen den chronischen Self-construals und den regulatorischen Fokussen der Probanden. Jedoch erzielte nur der erwartete positive Zusammenhang zwischen Promotion Fokus und unabhängigen Self-construal Signifikanz; Menschen die sich selbst als unabhängig von anderen wahrnehmen, sind mit größerer Wahrscheinlichkeit mehr auf Gewinne aus und zeigen risikofreudigere Strategien. Unsere letzte Analyse untersuchte ob Prevention Fokus Mimikry fördert und ob hingegen Promotion Fokus Mimikry hemmt. Wir fanden keine signifikanten Ergebnisse um diese Hypothese zu untermauern. Nichts desto trotz, die Mimikry Versuchsbedingung hatte einen signifikanten Effekt auf Probanden im Prevention Fokus. Mimikry schwächte deren natürliche Vermeidungstendenz und regte diese an mehr zu essen.

8. References

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Appendix A - Test Instructions

A.1. Introduction to Online Questionnaire

Herzlich Willkommen zu meiner Diplomarbeitsstudie,

Die folgenden Fragen beschäftigen sich damit wie wir Ziele erreichen. Es gibt keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten. Deine Meinung ist gefragt.

Deine Daten werden anonym erhoben, streng vertraulich behandelt und an keine Dritten weitergegeben.

Ein anonym Code wird erstellt damit die Daten der zwei Testzeitpunkte zusammengeführt werden können. Deine Identität bleibt trotzdem anonym!

Ich danke dir für deine Teilnahme an diesem Projekt.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen,

Irene Mokry

Erstelle nun einen anonymen Code. Dieser besteht aus den ersten zwei Buchstaben des Mädchennamens deiner Mutter, gefolgt vom Geburtsdatum deiner Mutter.

z.B. hieß meine Mutter als Kind Musterfrau und ist am 12.07.1955 geboren, dann ergibt es den Code: mu12071955

Dieser Code ist für das Gelingen der gesamten Studie relevant. Bitte nimm dir Zeit ihn richtig einzugeben.

A.2. Experiment Cover Story

Der traditionelle Wiener Süßwarenhersteller Egger arbeitet an einer neuen Variante der schon bekannten ‚Sportgummis‘. Die neuen Sportgummis wurden mit Elektrolyten ergänzt und sind als Snack für während und nach dem Sport gedacht. Durch übermäßiges Schwitzen beim Sport kommt es zum Verlust von Elektrolyten. Diesem Verlust kann durch das gezielte Zuführen von Elektrolyten (Natrium, Kalium, Chlorid, Magnesium etc.), wie z.B. in Sportgetränken, entgegengewirkt werden.

Durch die Zusätze hat sich der Geschmack der neuen Sportgummis leicht verändert. Du kannst diese jetzt testen. Ich bitte dich, die Gummis einzeln zu essen und dich auf den neuen Geschmack zu konzentrieren.

Währenddessen wird dir zwei Minuten lang ein Video mit Sportinhalt gezeigt. Es gibt mehrere Videos mit unterschiedlichen sportlichen Aktivitäten. Per Zufallsverfahren wird dir eines der Videos zugeteilt. Bitte beachte nur das Video auf deinem Computer. Du kannst so viele Gummis essen wie du willst.

Appendix B - Questionnaires

B.1. PANAS

Original English Version (Watson & Clark, 1988)

This scale consists of a number of words and phrases that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate **to what extent you have felt this way during the last 12 months**. Use the following scale to record your answers:

very slightly	a little	moderately	quite a bit	extremely
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

interested	irritable
distressed	alert
excited	ashamed
upset	inspired
strong	nervous
guilty	determined
scared	attentive
hostile	jittery
enthusiastic	active
proud	afraid

German Translation (Krohne et al., 1996)

Dieser Fragebogen enthält eine Reihe von Wörtern, die unterschiedliche Gefühle und Empfindungen beschreiben. Lesen Sie jedes Wort und tragen dann in die Skala neben jedem Wort die Intensität ein. Sie haben die Möglichkeit, zwischen fünf Abstufungen zu wählen.

Geben Sie bitte an, wie Sie sich **im Verlauf der letzten 12 Monate** gefühlt haben.

ganz wenig oder gar nicht	ein bisschen	einigermaßen	erheblich	äußerst
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

aktiv	stolz
bekümmert	gereizt
interessiert	begeistert
freudig erregt	beschämt
verärgert	wach
stark	nervös
schuldig	entschlossen
erschrocken	aufmerksam
feindselig	durcheinander
angeregt	ängstlich

B.2. RFQ - Regulatory Focus Scale (Higgins et al., 1997)

Original English Version

This set of questions asks you about specific events in your life. Please indicate your answer to each question by circling the appropriate number below it.

never or seldom		sometimes		very often
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

1. Compared to most people, are you typically unable to get what you want out of life?

2. Growing up, would you ever "cross the line" by doing things that your parents would not tolerate?
3. How often have you accomplished things that got you "psyched" to work even harder?
4. Did you get on your parents' nerves often when you were growing up?
5. How often did you obey rules and regulations that were established by your parents?
6. Growing up, did you ever act in ways that your parents thought were objectionable?
7. Do you often do well at different things that you try?
8. Not being careful enough has gotten me into trouble at times.
9. When it comes to achieving things that are important to me, I find that I don't perform as well as I ideally would like to do.

never true		sometimes true		often true
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

10. I feel like I have made progress toward being successful in my life.
11. I have found very few hobbies or activities in my life that capture my interest or motivate me to put effort into them.

certainly false				certainly true
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Items -1, 3, 7, -9, 10, and -11 are Promotion scale items.

Items -2, -4, 5, -6, and -8 are Prevention scale items.

German Translation

Zum Beantworten der untenstehenden Fragen wähle bitte jeweils eine der 5 Optionen.

nie oder selten		manchmal		sehr häufig
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Fällt es dir im Vergleich zu Anderen schwer, deine Vorstellungen umzusetzen?

Hast du in deiner Jugend Grenzen überschritten und Dinge getan, die deine Eltern nicht tolerierten?

Wie oft hast du Dinge erreicht, die dich anspornten, dich danach noch mehr anzustrengen?

Strapaziertest du in deiner Jugend häufig die Nerven deiner Eltern?

Wie oft hieltest du dich an die Regeln und Vorschriften deiner Eltern?

Tatest du in deiner Jugend Dinge, welche deine Eltern als verwerflich bezeichnet hätten?
 Bist du häufig erfolgreich, wenn du etwas Neues versuchst?

Zum Beurteilen der untenstehenden Aussagen kreuze bitte eine Ziffer zwischen 1 Überhaupt nicht zutreffend und 5 Sehr zutreffend an.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend		manchmal zutreffend		sehr zutreffend
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Mangelnde Sorgfalt hat mir schon ab und zu Probleme bereitet.
 In den Bereichen die mir wichtig sind, bin ich nicht so erfolgreich, wie ich möchte.
 Ich bin auf dem Weg zum Erfolg.
 Es gibt nur wenige Hobbys und Tätigkeiten, die ich aus Interesse verfolge.

B.3. Regulatory Focus Scale (Sassenberg et al., unpublished)

trifft völlig zu	trifft zu	trifft eher zu	weder noch	trifft eher nicht zu	trifft nicht zu	trifft überhaupt nicht zu
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

1. Erfolg beruhigt mich.
2. Mein Motto lautet, „wer nicht wagt, der nicht gewinnt“.
3. Ich halte mich eigentlich immer an Regeln und Vorschriften.
4. Ich will viel erreichen.
5. Wenn ich meine Ziele nicht erreiche, werde ich nervös.
6. Ich bin sehr produktiv.
7. Wenn ich ein Ziel wirklich erreichen will, finde ich einen Weg.
8. Mein Motto lautet „Schuster, bleib bei Deinen Leisten“.
9. Um meine Ziele zu erreichen, übertrete ich hin und wieder auch Regeln oder Normen.
10. Das große Ganze ist für mich wichtig, nicht die Details.
11. Ich strebe in meinem Leben nach Erfolg.
12. Ich folge meinen Idealen.
13. Mein Motto lautet „in der Ruhe liegt die Kraft“.
14. Ich bin manchmal fanatisch hinsichtlich des Erreichens meiner Ziele.

15. Ich probiere gerne Neues aus.
16. Ich bin risikobereit.
17. Ich strebe nach Fortschritt.
18. Ich bin keine vorsichtige Person.
19. Bei wichtigen Entscheidungen ist Sicherheit für mich ein wichtiges Kriterium.
20. In Arbeit und Studium ist für mich Genauigkeit sehr wichtig.
21. Ich achte darauf, dass ich meine Pflichten erfülle.
22. Ich setze mich ganz und gar für meine Ziele ein.

Prevention Items: 1, 3, 5, 8, (-)9, 13, (-)18, 19, 20, 21

Promotion Items: 2, 4, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 22

B.4. Neue Regulatory Focus Skala (Keller & Bless, 2008)

Wenn ich ein Ziel erreiche, auf das ich lange hingearbeitet habe, dann erlebe ich einen Zustand der Euphorie.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------------

Wenn ich mit einer negativen Erwartung bezüglich meiner Fähigkeit konfrontiert werde, spüre ich in mir den Ehrgeiz aufkommen, die negative Erwartung zu widerlegen.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------------

Ich glaube, wenn ich einmal an einem Bewerbungsverfahren in einem Unternehmen teilnehme und eine Absage erhalte, dann werde ich noch lange Zeit über dieses negative Ereignis grübeln und darüber nachdenken, welche Fehler ich gemacht habe.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------------

Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie nehmen an einem Bewerbungsverfahren (Assessment Center) in einem Unternehmen teil. Wie stark wäre bei Ihnen der Ehrgeiz, in diesem Bewerbungsverfahren einen möglichst positiven Eindruck zu machen?

überhaupt nicht stark	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sehr stark
--------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------------

Wenn ich ein Ziel nicht erreiche, dass ich mir gesetzt habe, dann bin ich beunruhigt und grübele über meine Fehler.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------------

In Situationen, in denen meine Leistung beurteilt wird, fühle ich mich häufig im Ehrgeiz gepackt.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------------

Wenn ich mit einer negativen Erwartung bezüglich meiner Fähigkeit konfrontiert werde, fühle ich mich unter Druck gesetzt und angespannt.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------------

Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie nehmen an einem Bewerbungsverfahren (Assessment Center) in einem Unternehmen teil. Wie stark wäre bei Ihnen die Angst, sich in diesem Bewerbungsverfahren zu blamieren?

überhaupt nicht stark	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sehr stark
--------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------------

Wenn mein Ergebnis in einer Klausur besser ist als ich erwartet hatte, dann fühle ich mich stolz.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------------

Leistungstests, bei denen es für Fehler Punktabzüge gibt, lösen eine besondere Anspannung in mir aus.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
-------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------------------

In Situationen, in denen meine Leistung beurteilt wird, fühle ich mich häufig angespannt und unwohl.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
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Wenn ich in einer Prüfung ein gutes Ergebnis erziele, dann empfinde ich ein Gefühl der ausgelassenen Begeisterung.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
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Wenn ich weiß, dass meine Leistung von anderen Personen bewertet wird, dann spornt mich das an und steigert meine Ambitionen, ein gutes Ergebnis zu erreichen.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
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Ich glaube, wenn ich einmal an einem Bewerbungsverfahren in einem Unternehmen teilnehme und eine Absage erhalte, dann werde ich es schnell abhaken und mich darauf konzentrieren, was ich in Zukunft besser machen kann.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
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Wenn mein Ergebnis in einer Klausur schlechter ist, als ich erwartet hatte, dann empfinde ich Anspannung und Besorgnis.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
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Wenn andere Personen Zweifel bezüglich meiner Leistungsfähigkeit äußern, bin ich besonders motiviert, diese Zweifel zu widerlegen und ein sehr gutes Ergebnis zu erzielen.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
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Mein Leben ist häufig geprägt durch Furcht vor Misserfolg und negativen Ereignissen.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
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Ich hoffe, dass ich in meinem späteren Berufsleben große Herausforderungen gestellt bekomme, die meinen Ehrgeiz wecken.

überhaupt nicht zutreffend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vollkommen zutreffend
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Promotion Items: focus1 focus2 focus4 focus6 focus9 focus12 focus13 focus16 focus18

Prevention Items: focus3 focus5 focus7 focus8 focus10 focus11 focus-14 focus15 focus17

B.5. Self-Construal Scale (Singelis, 1994)

Original English Version

This is a questionnaire that measures a variety of feelings and behaviors in various situations. Listed below are a number of statements. Read each one as if it referred to you. Beside each statement write the number that best matches your agreement or disagreement. Please respond to every statement. Thank you.

1=STRONGLY DISAGREE	4=DON'T AGREE OR	5=AGREE SOMEWHAT
2=DISAGREE	DISAGREE	6=AGREE
3=SOMEWHAT DISAGREE		7=STRONGLY AGREE

- ___ 1. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.
- ___ 2. I can talk openly with a person who I meet for the first time, even when this person is much older than I am.
- ___ 3. Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument.
- ___ 4. I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.
- ___ 5. I do my own thing, regardless of what others think.
- ___ 6. I respect people who are modest about themselves.
- ___ 7. I feel it is important for me to act as an independent person.
- ___ 8. I will sacrifice my self interest for the benefit of the group I am in.
- ___ 9. I'd rather say "No" directly, than risk being misunderstood.
- ___ 10. Having a lively imagination is important to me.
- ___ 11. I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making education/career plans.
- ___ 12. I feel my fate is intertwined with the fate of those around me.
- ___ 13. I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.
- ___ 14. I feel good when I cooperate with others.
- ___ 15. I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards.
- ___ 16. If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible.
- ___ 17. I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.
- ___ 18. Speaking up during a class (or a meeting) is not a problem for me.
- ___ 19. I would offer my seat in a bus to my professor (or my boss).
- ___ 20. I act the same way no matter who I am with.
- ___ 21. My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me.
- ___ 22. I value being in good health above everything.

- ___ 23. I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I am not happy with the group.
- ___ 24. I try to do what is best for me, regardless of how that might affect others.
- ___ 25. Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.
- ___ 26. It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.
- ___ 27. My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.
- ___ 28. It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.
- ___ 29. I act the same way at home that I do at school (or work).
- ___ 30. I usually go along with what others want to do, even when I would rather do something different.

Independent items: 1, 2, 5, 7, 9, 10, 13, 15, 18, 20, 22, 24, 25, 27, 29

Interdependent items: 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 12, 14, 16, 17, 19, 21, 23, 26, 28, 30

German Translation

Dieser Fragebogen misst eine Vielfalt von Gefühlen und Verhalten in verschiedenen Situationen. Unterhalb findest du einige Aussagen. Wähle bitte, auf der angegebenen Skala, die Zahl aus die deine Zustimmung/Ablehnung am besten widerspiegelt. Bitte bearbeite jede Aussage.

1. Ich genieße es einzigartig zu sein und mich von anderen in vielerlei Hinsicht zu unterscheiden.
2. Ich kann offen mit einer Person reden, die ich zum ersten mal sehe, auch wenn diese Person viel älter ist als ich.
3. Ich vermeide Streit mit Gruppenmitgliedern, selbst wenn ich ganz anderer Meinung bin.
4. Ich habe Respekt vor Autoritätspersonen mit denen ich interagiere.
5. Ich ziehe mein eigenes Ding durch, egal was andere denken.
6. Ich respektiere Menschen die bescheiden sind.
7. Ich empfinde es wichtig für mich als unabhängige Person zu agieren.
8. I opfere mein Eigeninteresse für das Wohl der Gruppe in der ich mich befinde.
9. Ich sage lieber ein direktes 'Nein' als zu riskieren missverstanden zu werden.
10. Eine lebendige Fantasie zu haben ist mir wichtig.
11. Ich sollte die Ratschläge meiner Eltern berücksichtigen, wenn ich Bildungs-/Karrierepläne mache.
12. Ich glaube, dass mein Schicksaal verflochten ist mit dem Schicksaal der Personen um mich herum.
13. Ich bevorzuge einen direkten und unverblünten Umgang mit Menschen die ich gerade erst kennengelernt habe.
14. Ich fühle mich gut, wenn ich mit anderen kooperiere.
15. Es ist mir nicht unangenehm, wenn ich durch Lob oder Belohnungen hervorgehoben werde.

16. Wenn mein Bruder oder meine Schwester (oder mein/e beste/r FreundIn) versagt, dann fühle ich mich verantwortlich.
17. Ich habe oft das Gefühl, dass meine Beziehungen zu anderen wichtiger sind als meine eigenen Errungenschaften.
18. Während einem Seminar/einer Besprechung das Wort zu ergreifen ist kein Problem für mich.
19. In einem Bus würde ich meinen Sitz meinem Professor/Chef anbieten.
20. Ich verhalte mich gleich, egal mit wem ich interagiere.
21. Meine Fröhlichkeit hängt von der Fröhlichkeit der Menschen um mich herum ab.
22. Meine Gesundheit ist mir wichtiger als alles andere.
23. Ich bleibe in einer Gruppe wenn diese mich braucht, auch wenn ich mit der Gruppe nicht glücklich bin.
24. Ich versuche das zu machen, was am besten für mich ist, ohne Rücksicht darauf wie dies andere beeinflussen könnte.
25. Auf mich Acht geben zu können ist ein vorrangiges Anliegen für mich.
26. Es ist mir wichtig, die Gruppenentscheidungen zu respektieren.
27. Meine persönliche Identität, unabhängig von anderen, ist mir sehr wichtig.
28. Es ist mir wichtig die Harmonie in der Gruppe aufrechtzuerhalten.
29. Ich verhalte mich zu Hause genau so wie auf der Universität/ in der Arbeit.
30. Normalerweise ziehe ich mit bei dem was andere machen wollen, auch wenn ich lieber etwas anderes tun würde.

Independent items: 1, 2, 5, 7, 9, 10, 13, 15, 18, 20, 22, 24, 25, 27, 29

Interdependent items: 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 12, 14, 16, 17, 19, 21, 23, 26, 28, 30



Europass

Angaben zur Person Lebenslauf

Titel

Mag.^a

Nachname(n) / Vorname(n)

Mokry Irene

Staatsangehörigkeit(en)

Österreich

Geburtsdatum

06.08.1985

Geschlecht

Weiblich

Berufserfahrung

Datum

März 2011 – Juni 2011

Beruf oder Funktion

Psychologiepraktikum

Wichtigste Tätigkeiten und Zuständigkeiten

Unterstützung bei Organisation und Durchführung von Fortbildungsseminaren

Name und Adresse
des Arbeitgebers



Health Care Communication

Seidl & Fitzgerald OG - Lerchengasse 36/10, 1080 Wien

Tätigkeitsbereich oder Branche

Fortbildung im Gesundheitswesen

Datum

Juni 2009 – August 2009

Beruf oder Funktion

Praktikum

Wichtigste Tätigkeiten und Zuständigkeiten

Unterstützung bei Organisation und Durchführung diverser Kurse

Name und Adresse
des Arbeitgebers



Nanaya – Zentrum für Schwangerschaft, Geburt und Leben mit Kindern

Zollergasse 37, 1070 Wien

Tätigkeitsbereich oder Branche

Soziale Dienstleistung

Datum

Oktober 2008 – Januar 2009

Beruf oder Funktion

Psychologiepraktikum

Wichtigste Tätigkeiten und Zuständigkeiten

Mitarbeit bei diversen Studien und Projekten

Name und
Adresse
des Arbeitgebers



SORA

SORA - Institute for Social Research

Linke Wienzeile 246, A-1150 Wien

Tätigkeitsbereich oder Branche

Sozialwissenschaftliche Forschung

Datum

2004 – 2005

Beruf oder Funktion

Au Pair in Atlanta, Georgia, U.S.A.

Wichtigste Tätigkeiten und
Zuständigkeiten

Kinderbetreuung

Name und Adresse des Arbeitgebers

Au Pair in America

Tätigkeitsbereich oder Branche

Dienstleistung

Schul- und Berufsbildung

Datum
Bezeichnung der erworbenen
Qualifikation
Hauptfächer/berufliche Fähigkeiten
Name und Art der Bildungs- oder
Ausbildungseinrichtung

Oktober 2005 – voraussichtlich Jänner 2012
Magister

Diplomstudium Psychologie
Universität Wien

Datum
Bezeichnung der erworbenen
Qualifikation
Hauptfächer/berufliche Fähigkeiten
Name und Art der Bildungs- oder
Ausbildungseinrichtung

Oktober 2005 – März 2011
Magister
Diplomstudium Anglistik/Amerikanistik
Universität Wien

Datum
Bezeichnung der erworbenen
Qualifikation
Hauptfächer/berufliche Fähigkeiten
Name und Art der Bildungs- oder
Ausbildungseinrichtung

1999 – 2004
Matura
Ausbildung zur Kindergartenpädagogin und Horterzieherin
BAKIP 10; Bundeslehranstalt für Kindergartenpädagogik

Persönliche Fähigkeiten und Kompetenzen

Muttersprache(n)
Sonstige Sprache(n)
Selbstbeurteilung
Europäisches Referenzniveau

Deutsch
Englisch

Verstehen		Sprechen		Schreiben
Hören	Lesen	An Gesprächen teilnehmen	Zusammenhängendes Sprechen	
C1 Kompetente Sprachverwendung	C1 Kompetente Sprachverwendung	C1 Kompetente Sprachverwendung	C1 Kompetente Sprachverwendung	C1 Kompetente Sprachverwendung

Soziale Fähigkeiten und Kompetenzen

- Teamgeist
- Führungsqualitäten
- Gute Kommunikationsfähigkeiten

Ich habe diese Fähigkeiten durch meine langjährige Erfahrung als Mitglied einer Handballmannschaft, als Kinderhandballtrainerin, im sozialen Umfeld Schule sowie durch meine bisherigen Arbeitserfahrungen erworben.

Organisatorische Fähigkeiten und Kompetenzen

Ich arbeite sehr pflicht- und verantwortungsbewusst und lege viel Wert auf Effizienz. Ich habe organisatorische Erfahrung durch die Mitarbeit als Voluntär bei der 6. Tagung der Fachgruppe Arbeits- und Organisationspsychologie der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Psychologie sowie der Handball Europameisterschaft der Männer 2010 erworben.

Technische Fähigkeiten und Kompetenzen

In meinem Psychologie-Studium habe ich mir ein gutes statistisches Wissen sowie praktische Erfahrung mit SPSS angeeignet.

IT-Kenntnisse und Kompetenzen
Sonstige Fähigkeiten und Kompetenzen
Sonstige Ausbildungen

Gute PC-Kenntnisse: Word, PowerPoint und Excel
Ehrgeiz, erworben im Sport sowie im Doppelstudium
Europäischer Wirtschaftsführerschein (EBC*L Stufe A), C-Jugend-Handball-Trainerin