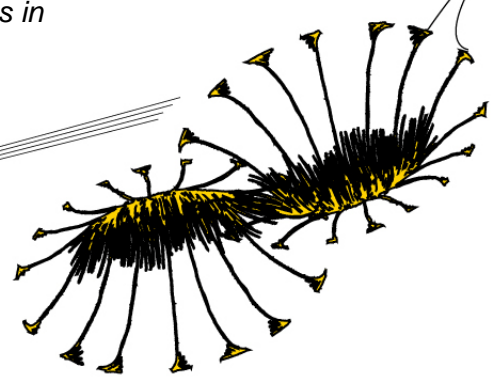




Overdosed on Happiness: Give Me One More Shot And I'll Buy Your Product!

The influence of positive and negative emotions in advertising



Jaap Stout (S0220108)
18th of September, 2014

Overdosed on Happiness: Give Me One More Shot And I'll Buy Your Product!

The influence of positive and negative emotions in advertising

Student: Jaap Stout

Student number: s0220108

First Supervisor: Dr. Anna Fenko

Second Supervisor: Dr. Mirjam Galetzka

In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Communication Studies

18th of September, 2014

Abstract

Companies are spending billions of dollars to sell their products and services to consumers. Because of the growing competition and the small differences between products, promoting one's products in an original way might even be more important than the specifications of the products itself. When designing advertising campaigns, the use of emotions can play a huge role. However, the impact of using negative emotions in advertising has been largely ignored, as no clear overview exists. An overview would be very helpful, as negative emotions might be used to enrich consumers' experiences in advertising. The aim of the current research is to investigate which emotions are best suited when advertising for happy or anxious consumers. A total of 226 young consumers participated by filling in an online questionnaire. All of the participants were exposed to a fictional news story, which was specifically designed to give them either a feeling of happiness or a feeling of anxiety. Then, participants were asked to look at an advertisement. These advertisements were aimed at feeling sad, feeling happy or feeling anxious. This 2 x 3 between subjects design was used to measure multiple constructs. The dependent variables were the attitude towards the advertisement, the personal involvement with the advertisement and the purchase intention. For data analysis, a two-factor MANOVA with two pre ad emotions (happiness and anxiety) and three emotionally framed advertisements (happiness, anxiety and sadness) was performed on the three dependent variables. Results give clear evidence that happy consumers favor happy emotions in an advertisement. Furthermore, no significant differences were found when happy and anxious participants were exposed to a sad advertisement, or to an anxious advertisement. The results imply that consumers do not experience any differences when they are exposed to either a sad or an anxious advertisement. Furthermore, positive emotions like happiness seem to have a positive influence on the purchase intention. Future research is needed to complete a clear framework when using specific (negative) emotions in advertising. The results of the current study could be used to identify which emotions are suited when promoting products for consumers, for instance when they are watching a horror movie or a comedy movie.

Table of Contents

1.	Introduction	1
2.	Theoretical Framework	4
2.1	Tailor made advertising	4
2.2	Rational Advertising	5
2.3	Emotional Advertising	5
2.4	Models in consumer psychology	7
2.5	Basic emotions	9
2.6	Seeking balance	10
2.7	Advantages of negative emotions	11
2.8	Emotional responses in advertising	13
2.9	Involvement and attitude towards an advertisement	13
2.10	Buying behavior	15
3.	Methodology	17
3.1	Design	17
3.2	Participants	18
3.3	Stimuli	20
3.3.1	Pretest	21
3.4	Instrument	21
3.4.1	Reliability	22
3.5	Procedure	23
3.6	Data analysis	24

4. Results	25
4.1 Manipulation check	25
4.1.1 Pre ad emotions	26
4.2 Attitude towards the advertisement	27
4.3 Personal involvement with the advertisement	29
4.4 Purchase intention	30
4.5 Overview of hypotheses	32
5. Conclusion & Discussion	35
5.1 Major findings	35
5.2 Theoretical conclusions	36
5.3 Conclusions	38
5.4 Limitations & future research	39
5.5 Recommendations	40
References	41
Appendices	51
Appendix A	52
Appendix B	56
Appendix C	58
Appendix D	60
Appendix E	62

1. Introduction

More than twenty years ago, a movie made \$193 million in the United States only (AMC Blog, 2007). Must be a feel good movie or a comedy? Wrong. It was the Exorcist, a horror movie about a 12-year-old girl who is possessed by an evil demon. This particular movie was not directed to give its audience a warm, happy feeling. It was specifically created to provoke feelings of terror, fear and maybe even disgust. TV stations all over the world are paying top dollar to buy the rights of blockbuster movies like the Exorcist, because viewers' ratings explode when such blockbusters are being broadcasted on cable TV. But how do these TV stations earn their actual profits? Exactly, by giving companies the chance to promote their products and services by use of commercials before, during and after these movies. It is widely accepted to adjust the advertised product to the target group, as you will not quickly sell Pokémon figures to twenty-year-olds that are enjoying horror movies on a Saturday night. It would make more sense to broadcast such a commercial during a program for little kids. On the other hand, it might also be useful to adjust the emotions that are used in the commercial to the emotions that consumers are experiencing at that particular moment.

In terms of advertising, it is of keen importance to gain more understanding in the field of emotions in consumer behavior. Several scholars have acknowledged the fact that emotions play an enormously important role in advertising nowadays. On top of that, consumers seem to have the tendency to not simply buy a product, but to buy the delightful and emotional experiences that surround a product or service (Brembeck & Ekstrom, 2004; Gobe, 2009; Pham, 2004; Schwarz, 2004). Other studies have shown that the emotional state of consumers influences their preferences and purchases intentions, when looking at emotionally framed advertisements. Labroo and Rucker (2010) used several advertisements for vacations to find out if emotional states influence consumer preference. Their research showed that sad and angry people prefer a happy advertisement, instead of a calm advertisement. On the other hand, Labroo and Rucker (2010) found that anxious and embarrassed people

preferred the calm advertisement, instead of the happy advertisement. Practical implications can be seen, for instance when companies are advertising during a sad documentary. In this case, their advertisements should be focused on experiencing happy emotions. But is it also possible to use other emotions in your advantage when designing marketing campaigns? Using negative feelings in a commercial might turn out to catch the attention of the audience in a better way than the commonly used positive emotions. Also, using negative emotions in an advertisement might persuade consumers to deliberately buy the advertised products, just to prevent the negative situations of happening to them. In this way, the product or service would be seen as the solution to a (possible) problem. This would make sense, as negative emotions might cause a certain amount of discomfort, which consumers do not want to experience (Bagozzi et al, 1999). An example can be found in ordinary shampoo commercials. Using black and white images and quotes as ‘using regular shampoo will cause hair loss and dandruff’ cause a certain amount of discomfort. In order to avoid this negativity, consumers are seduced to buy the products that are specifically designed to avoid all negative feelings and make your hair look like the hair of a movie star. This example stresses an important item, as it would be essential to know if it is possible to deliberately use negative emotions such as fear or sadness in advertising. According to Fokkinga and Desmet (2012), no clear framework of negative emotions exists, and they propose that future studies try to map more effects and preferences of specific emotional states of consumers.

The interest of the current study lies in gaining more insight in terms of the types of situations that are best suited for specific emotional advertising (i.e. adjusting emotions in advertising to maximize effectiveness). Marketers can benefit from the current research, as the implications might have a direct influence on marketers’ choices to use specific negative or positive emotions in advertising. The existing research does focus on some of the negative emotions that can be evoked using emotional advertising (Labroo & Rucker, 2010), but insufficient data is available about the variety of negative emotions in advertising (Fokkinga & Desmet, 2012). Furthermore, the current research has an academic relevance, as the existing literature about emotional advertising is considered to be incomplete, and new

research is needed to fill the gap that exist in the field of emotional advertising (Fokkinga & Desmet, 2012). The aim of the current study is to gain more knowledge about the use of specific (negative) emotions in advertising. To be more precise, quantitative data will be collected from happy and anxious consumers, to measure their attitudes and preferences when looking at several advertisements.

The main research question can now be formulated: What kind of emotions in advertising can best be used to sell products to happy or anxious consumers? The question will be answered by looking at multiple constructs, namely the attitude towards the advertisement, the personal involvement with the advertisement and, most important, the purchase intention.

2. Theoretical Framework

In this framework, the existing theories and assumptions that are important to the topic of emotional advertising are discussed. All theories contribute to the existing knowledge, as tailor made marketing seems to be ideal to promote products or services to specific consumers. Of course, there are dozens of ways to promote products to several target groups. In the present day, almost every human being is constantly exposed to various commercials and advertisements. From billboards to TV commercials and printed advertisements, no one can deny the fact that consumers are constantly exposed to marketing messages. From small children to the elderly, companies are always finding new ways to promote their products to their target groups. In fact, the concept of advertising and promoting products or services might be as old as civilization itself. Even the ancient Egyptians and Greeks were most likely vulnerable to the persuasiveness of advertisements (Tungate, 2007). Obviously, there were not any large marketing bureaus who carved their ads into stone, but the main idea of advertising stays the same: promoting ideas, goods, or services (Armstrong & Kotler, 2000).

2.1 Tailor made advertising

The importance of tailor made advertising campaigns cannot be stressed enough, as millions of dollars are being wasted each year in ineffective marketing campaigns (Abraham & Lodish, 1989; Lodish et al, 1995). Numerous scholars have done research in the field of marketing and advertising. For instance, Kaul and Wittink (1995) looked at the connection between advertisements and prices, as price advertising increases price sensitivity. On the other hand, non-price advertising actually decreases price sensitivity. One of the most important findings in terms of the current research is linked to the emotional side of advertising. Stern and Resnik (1991), Weinberger and Spotts (1989) and Gorn (1982) have found that advertising does not necessarily need to be informative to be effective, as emotional and visual elements enhance preference. These findings can be seen as an essential step in

understanding the mechanism of emotions in advertising. But first, it is important to understand the differences between rational and emotional advertising.

2.2 *Rational Advertising*

Simply put, there are two main strategies that marketers can use when creating or designing advertisements; a rational (cognitive) strategy and an emotional (affective) strategy. The rational wing of advertising believes that consumers' decisions are based on rational thinking (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). Classic rational advertising is based on providing objective information. This information is used to differentiate one's products or service from competitors. According to Reeves & Bednar (1994), a product should be positioned in the market by communicating their (unique) product attributes. Ogilvy (1983, p. 159) takes it even one step further, by stating that large promises are the soul of advertisements. In rational advertising, it is clear that the advertising campaign should have an informative role. By informing consumers with necessary and vital information about the product, marketers hope to fend off competition. Kotler and Armstrong (1994, p. 468) stated that rational advertising is based around "messages showing a product's quality, economy, value or performance". This contributes to the fact that the rational component of advertising causes a cognitive reaction with consumers. One of the advantages of rational advertising is that marketers can address multiple target groups at the same time. As the information about the price and specifications of the products are clearly understandable, a wide audience can be reached (Bradley, n.d.). Examples of typical products that are used in rational advertising are for instance household items, such as vacuum cleaners and flat irons.

2.3 *Emotional Advertising*

The opposite of rational advertising is emotional advertising. In contrast with rational advertising, emotional (or affective) advertising focuses generally on the peripheral route instead of the central route (when looking at persuasion), the

intuitive view instead of the reflective view (when looking at decision making) and the impulsive side instead of the reflective side (when looking at buying behavior) (Samson & Voyer, 2012). Basically, the central route is followed when consumers are persuaded or influenced by use of argument in the content of the message. The other route, the peripheral route, is not based on logical thinking. Instead, it is based on feelings and emotions (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Kotler and Armstrong (1994, p. 468) have tried to define the concept of emotional advertising, by declaring that “emotional appeals attempt to stir up either negative or positive emotions that can motivate purchase”. Most likely, emotional advertisements tend to make consumers feel good about products or services, as they rely on feelings (Albers-Miller & Stafford, 1999). This makes sense, as “emotions guide and enrich an ennobled life; they provide meaning to everyday existence; they render the valuation placed on life and property” (Cacioppo et al., 2001, p. 173). This definition actually contributes to the fact that emotions have indeed become more important in advertising, because of the dynamic changes that have taken place in the business world. This is supported by the fact that differences in products specifications, in quality and in price are becoming smaller and smaller (Desmet, 2005). This seems to be a vital aspect, because if marketers only use rational information, such as products specifications, it can be tremendously hard to convince consumers to buy their product. Various scholars take it even one step further, by stating that modern consumers do not just simply buy a product or service, but have a tendency to buy the delightful and emotional experiences that surround a product or service (Brembeck & Ekstrom, 2004; Gobe, 2009). It is clear that emotions are essential determinants in consumers’ choices when looking at products and services (Chaudhuri, 2012). A study by Crane, Kerin and Hartley (2007) showed that customers rate their emotional experience with a service brand as being just as important as the service itself. This supports the fact that advertisers believe that advertisements should arouse some kind of emotion to be effective. A meaningful emotional response is very important, as it is one of the key factors to successful branding. Furthermore, one of the main benefits of using a product or service is the actual pleasant emotional experience (Mehta & Purvis, 2006). Pham (2004) tried to gain more understanding in the ongoing conflict between emotions and rational information by quoting Montesquieu (1892, p.135): “A man of

intelligence feels what others can only know”. As the quote by Montesquieu implies, feelings are not a mere alternative to descriptive information, but feelings may even be the superior form (Pham, 2004). The aforementioned viewpoint is supported by other scholars, who claim that emotions are catchy, fast and memorable (Ray & Batra; 1983). It is even believed that emotional appeals lead to a better retention in memory and help processing information in a better way. Furthermore, emotional appeals in marketing are the best way to getting attention from the target audience (Chauduri, 2012).

2.4 Models in consumer psychology

Apart from the key characteristics of rational and emotional advertising, the type of advertising also has a significant influence on the decision making process of consumers. Indeed, almost every commercial marketing campaign has the same goal; influencing consumers’ decision to actually purchase a product or service. However, there are some fundamental differences which can be distinguished by the two types. In the past, both consumer psychologists and marketing researchers believed that decision making was solely based on the basis of declarative information (Higgins, 1997; Wyer & Srull, 1989). In other words, scholars in the past primarily thought that decision making was a rational process. According to Schwarz (2004), scholars have described the concept of decision making based on beliefs, perceptions and knowledge structures (e.g. attributes, features, benefits, stereotypes etc.). On the other hand, more recent studies showed that there is a close connection between thinking and feeling (Pham, 2004). Based on previous research by Wyer and Carlston (1979), Pham (2004) suggests that consumers actually use their momentary feelings as a credible source of information. Furthermore, affective feelings can also enable quicker judgment. On top of that, a research by neuroscientist Damasio (1994) showed an even more surprising connection between emotions and decision making. In his study, people with brain damage were used. The participants in the study had severe damage in the part of the brain where emotions were generated. At first, the research showed no unexpected findings. However, all the participants had

one thing in common; they were having problems with making decisions. Although these findings seem a little bit exaggerated, it does prove a point; namely that emotions do make a big difference when looking at consumer decision making. Damasio (1994) believed that actual consumer behavior is a result of two different systems interacting. To understand this interaction, theories by Kahneman (2003) and Chaiken and Trope (1999) show that there is a constant battle between two opposites, i.e. analytical vs. intuitive or deliberate vs. emotional processing. The theory by Kahneman and Frederick (2002), the so called intuitive vs. reflective thinking model, is based on the assumption that two individual systems are responsible for thinking and decision making. System 1 works without much effort, and quick judgments are made based on certain familiar patterns. System 2 is the opposite, as this system is slow, controlled, and requires lots of focus and attention (Stanovich & West, 2000; Kahneman & Frederick, 2002; Kahneman, 2003; Kahneman, 2011). Simply put, system 1 is responsible for the emotional process (intuition), and system 2 is responsible for the rational process (reasoning). System 1 applies perfectly to feelings and emotions, as they are responsible for making quick judgements. System 2 is not based on feelings and emotions, but on rational thinking and reasoning. When looking at persuasion and attitude change, the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) by Petty and Cacioppo (1986) can be used. The ELM is based on the main idea that attitudes guide decisions. The model distinguishes two routes; the central route and the peripheral route. One of the key elements in the ELM is involvement. This makes sense, as a high level of involvement would cause an individual to rethink his beliefs and attitudes. When the involvement is high, the central route seems to be the best option. When involvement is low, the message is processed by the peripheral route (Petty & Cacioppo, 1979; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). When consumers are persuaded by emotions, like the feelings of the source or the happy emotions that they experience, the peripheral route is followed. Instead of consciously thinking about rational arguments and following the central route, emotions can be responsible for making quick decisions based on feelings. In practice, this means that no long term attitude change occurs, as these emotions can dissolve over time (Wagner & Petty, 2011).

2.5 *Basic emotions*

To gain more understanding in the field of emotions in advertising, it is essential to distinguish the most important emotions that humans experience. Rene Descartes, the French philosopher, was one of the first to address several emotions in his work called 'les passions de l'âme'. Logically, he states that things that are hurtful to the human body can cause negative feelings such as sadness or fear. On the other side, if one is pleased with a situation, feelings of joy or happiness might occur (Irons, 1895). Over the last decades, multiple scholars have turned their attention to the field of emotions. Although these scholars were looking at the same basic emotions, the outcomes of their studies differed from each other. Acceptance, anger, anticipation, disgust, joy, fear, pain, pleasure, rage, panic and sadness are just a number of emotions identified by these scholars (Arnold, 1960; Ekman, Friesen & Ellsworth, 1982; Gray, 1982; Izard, 1971; James, 1884; Ortony & Turner, 1990; Plutchik, 1980). More recent research has narrowed all these emotions down into only four basic emotions (Jack et al., 2014). These four basic emotions are anger, fear, happiness and sadness. A number of these emotions will be used as a basis for the current research. By designing a specific marketing campaign, different emotions can be used to convince consumers to buy certain products or services. A negatively framed advertisement can evoke several negative emotions, such as sadness or disgust. In this way, people might realize what they should (or should not) do to prevent these emotions from happening (e.g. being very careful with fireworks to prevent yourself from going blind). By designing negative advertisements, marketers hope to create a certain amount of discomfort, so consumers will be motivated to change their behavior or to buy a specific product (Brennan & Binney, 2010). Using these negative emotions in marketing campaigns is only one way to do it, as the more common way to promote products or services is by use of positive emotions. These positive emotions can cause nice feelings, such as love, humor, pride and joy (Albers-Miller & Stafford, 1999). A marketing campaign that uses positive emotions would be specifically aimed at convincing people to buy certain products or to change their behavior, in order to experience these positive emotions (e.g. buying tickets for Disneyland to see the smile on your children's faces). Even though

positive and negative emotions are the exact opposite of each other, scholars have found that the presence of positive emotions does not automatically exclude the presence of negative emotions (Edell & Burke, 1987).

2.6 *Seeking balance*

Besides gaining more understanding in the several categories of emotions, it might even be more important to understand which emotional states coexist or balance each other. Labroo and Rucker (2009) have tried to form ‘emotional couples’, i.e. different emotions that seem to have some sort of balance. Labroo and Rucker (2009) asked two groups of participants to recall an event that made them either sad, angry, anxious or embarrassed. Then, participants were exposed to an advertisement that was specifically designed to give them either a calm feeling or a happy feeling. The results of the study were remarkable, as sad and angry respondents favored the happy advertisement. The anxious or embarrassed respondents however, favored the calm advertisement instead of the happy advertisement. Although these findings are interesting, they can only be seen as the mere top of the iceberg. Little information is available about tailoring marketing messages to specific consumer emotions. Fokkinga and Desmet (2012) agree, by stating that the area of emotional marketing is relatively new. Furthermore, it seems to be straightforward that research has to be done to gain more insight in the ways that marketing messages can be designed to interact with consumers’ emotions. Generally, positive emotions are used. Nevertheless, it might also be possible to look at the theory from the opposite direction. In this way, it would be interesting to see how negative emotions can actually be used to promote products. A study by Lerner and Keltner (2000) showed that people who experienced fear estimated risks bigger than they actually were, and people who experienced anger estimated risks to be less likely than they actually were. Studies have shown that sad and angry people preferred a happy advertisement, and that anxious and embarrassed people preferred a calm advertisement (Labroo & Rucker, 2009). But how is it the other way around? Do happy consumers also prefer a sad ad, or do they favor an ad which stresses

happiness? Indeed, gaining more understanding into which specific emotions are best suited to ‘counterattack’ other specific emotions is very essential. Furthermore, it is of keen importance to realize that any emotion, whether it is a positive emotion or a negative emotion, affects a person’s behavior, actions and preferences (Keltner & Gross, 1999).

H1: An advertisement that stresses positive emotions causes a significantly more positive attitude towards the ad, compared to advertisements that stress negative emotions.

H2: The emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an advertisement have a significant influence on the attitude towards the ad.

H3: The interaction effect on attitude towards the ad is expected between emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an ad and the emotions that are used in an advertisement.

2.7 Advantages of negative emotions

As mentioned in the previous paragraphs, it seems logical to only use positive emotions in marketing campaigns, as companies mainly try to sell their products by giving customers a good feeling. A recent example can be found in the latest commercial of Transavia. The commercial, which is played on TV, at cinemas and on various online platforms, uses the song ‘Happy’ by Pharrel Williams, a genuine feel good song, to promote their airplane company. In other situations, like in books, films or music, negative emotions are deliberately used to delight audiences or users (Fokkinga & Desmet, 2012). But, when looking at marketing and advertising, multiple scholars suggest that negative emotions should be used with great caution (Burton, 1983; James & Hensel, 1991; Levy, 1987; Muehling, 1987). When one chooses to use emotions in marketing, they should keep in mind that the principle of basic emotions applies to every human being, whether they like it or not. This is

supported by an experiment by Andrade and Cohen (2007). In their study, they showed that both fans and non-fans of horror movies experienced the exact same amount of fear. The only difference was that the group of fans really enjoyed the scariest scenes of the movie, where the non-fans did not seem to like these scenes. The main difference however, was that one group actually liked the anxiety and the other group did not. To gain more understanding in the phenomenon of negative emotions, some research has been done, although it is particularly incomplete. As mentioned before, a study by Lerner and Keltner (2000) showed that fear causes consumers to assess more risks than there really were, and anger causes consumers to assess less risks than there were in real life. This view is supported by Fokkinga and Desmet (2012, pp. 49), who state that a person who becomes angry has an “increasingly assertive, empowered, and risk-taking attitude towards the world”. On the other hand, the aforementioned scholars state that sad consumers are considered to be calm and sensitive, and have a reflective view toward the world. A practical consequence occurs, as it would not be very smart for an online gambling website to offer its services during a sad movie. Furthermore, scholars have found that people who experienced disgust became sterner in moral judgments of other people’s bad behavior, compared to a neutral control group (Schnall et al., 2008). A study by Sabato (1981) showed that negative messages could have a powerful effect. By designing negative advertisements, marketers hope to create a certain amount of discomfort, so consumers will be motivated to change their behavior or buy a specific product (Brennan & Binney, 2010). This is supported by Fiske (1980), who states that negative information plays a bigger role than positive information, when looking at individuals’ evaluative processes. Additionally, a study by Sorescu and Gelb (2000) showed that negativity is more memorable. Although the numbers of mentioned findings seem acceptable, a gap in current research exists, as very little research about the exact effect of positive and negative emotions has been done recently. This is explicitly supported by Chakrabarti and Haller (2007) who claim that negativity in advertising (e.g. summarizing negative things about one’s competitor) has been largely ignored in the contemporary literature.

2.8 *Emotional responses in advertising*

Apart from understanding which emotions actually (co)exist, numerous scholars have also tried to understand the exact role of emotions (Higgins, 1997; Keltner & Gross, 1999; Raghuthan & Pham, 1999). Keltner & Gross (1999) believe that different emotions lead to different behavior, different actions and different preferences. Edell and Burke (1987) even state that emotions and feelings of consumers are just as important as their thoughts. When looking at this topic from an advertising point of view, it can be concluded that different emotional responses to an advertisement lead to different preferences and choices (Ahluwalia & Burnkrant, 2004). Other scholars take it even one step further, by stating that emotions are actually responsible for entirely changing the perceived world of consumers (Fokkinga & Desmet, 2012; Sartre, 1962). By shifting consumers' emotional state, their transformed attention, expectations and judgments influences the attitude towards the situation (Fokkinga & Desmet, 2012). The aforementioned studies essentially teach us that consumers' decision making processes and intentions are fundamentally influenced by their emotions. From a utopian point of view, this might mean that marketing messages can actually be tailor made to maximize advertising effectiveness. To answer this question, it is important to understand that the emotional response to an advertisement is only one of the steps in the process.

2.9 *Involvement and attitude towards an advertisement*

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, emotions and feelings influence a persons' attitude. According to Fishbein (1967, p.53), attitude is a 'learned predisposition of human beings'. In terms of advertising effectiveness, the attitude towards an advertisement is one of key factors (Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Gardner, 1985; de Pelsmacker, Geuens & Anckaert, 2002; de Pelsmacker, Decock & Geuens, 1998). This seems straightforward, as a consumer would probably not buy an advertised product if he or she has a very negative attitude towards the advertisement. Additionally, the attitude towards the advertisement is not a standalone item, as it is influenced by the feelings that are

aroused by an advertisement (Holbrook & Batra, 1987). Therefore, the attitude towards an advertisement can be seen as a form of psychological judgment, influenced by the evoked emotions in the ad (Ling et al., 2010). To gain more insight in consumers' attitudes, several scholars have developed scales to identify consumers' responses to marketing messages by measuring the attitude towards the ad (Batra, 1986; Holbrook & O'Shaughnessy, 1984; Gardner, 1985; Holbrook & Batra, 1987). One of the other important factors that needs to be stressed is the concept of involvement. Zaichowsky (1985, p. 342) defined involvement as "a person's perceived relevance of the advertisement based on inherent needs, values and interests". Several scholars have agreed on the fact that involvement can be seen as a concept of personal relevance or importance (Zaichowsky, 1985; 1986). When looking at consumer behavior and purchase intention, personal involvement is believed to be an important variable. According to multiple scholars, the matter of involvement can be influenced by making advertisements more relevant or more appealing. If an advertisement is not appealing and does not give its viewers a positive feeling, chances are that the involvement would be relatively low. This is supported by the fact that the personal involvement is measured by the immediate feelings that consumers experience when seeing an advertisement, as the first impression is of grave importance when measuring the personal involvement (Zaichowsky, 1985). This might imply that negative emotions in an advertisement cause a lower level of involvement. Furthermore, it might also mean that a higher intensity of the emotions lead to a different level of personal involvement (e.g. watching a horror movie for half an hour or seeing a short ad on television for three minutes only).

H4: An advertisement that stresses positive emotions causes a significantly higher personal involvement with the ad, compared to advertisements that stress negative emotions.

H5: The emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an advertisement have a significant influence on their personal involvement with the ad.

H6: The interaction effect on personal involvement with an ad is expected between emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an ad and the emotions that are used in an advertisement.

2.10 Buying behavior

When looking at the actual buying intention and consumer behavior, the reflective impulsive model (RIM) gives more insight in the several processes that take place (Strack & Deutsch, 2004; Gawronski et al., 2008). This two-system model basically explains (buying) behavior as a mutual interaction between reflective (rational) and impulsive (emotional) processes, just as Damasio (1994) already stated. Strack and Deutsch (2004, p. 222) assume that “behavior is the effect of the operation of two distinct systems of information processing”. These systems are referred to as a reflective system and an impulsive system. Obviously, the reflective system matches the more rational forms of advertising, where the impulsive system covers the emotional side of advertising.

H7: An advertisement that stresses positive emotions causes a significantly higher purchase intention, compared to advertisements that stress negative emotions.

H8: The emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an advertisement have a significant influence on the purchase intention.

H9: The interaction effect on purchase intention is expected between emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an ad and the emotions that are used in an advertisement.

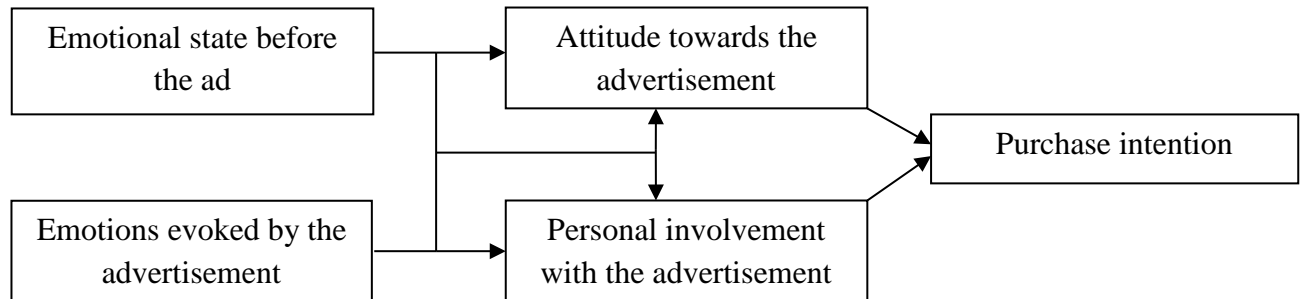


Figure 1. Proposed model of purchase intention

3. Methodology

3.1 Design

A 2 (emotional state: anxious and emotional state: happy) x 3 (an advertisement that stresses happiness, an advertisement that stresses fear and an advertisement that stresses sadness) between subjects design was used. First, happiness or fear was evoked (referred to as the pre ad emotion that participants were experiencing). Both happy and anxious feelings were evoked by one of two fictional news articles. These fictional news articles were specifically designed to evoke either happiness or sadness. Participants were randomly exposed to either a happy story (about a little girl in Disneyland) or a scary story (about ghosts). Then, participants were exposed to one of three advertisements for a youth vacation, which all used a different emotional tone (i.e. sadness, happiness or fear). This design was chosen to find out if there were any effects of pre-exposure emotions (also referred to as pre ad emotions) and advertising emotions on three dependent variables: the attitude towards the advertisement, the personal involvement with the advertisement and the intention to purchase the product/service. The dependent variables were chosen after an extensive literature study.

Table 1.

Overview of the six conditions

Condition	Pre Ad Emo	Ad Emo
1	Fear	Happy
2	Fear	Sad
3	Fear	Fear
4	Happy	Happy
5	Happy	Sad
6	Happy	Fear

3.2 *Participants*

Before participants were randomly selected, it was essential to understand which groups were actually ‘vulnerable’ to this form of advertising (i.e. which target group can be persuaded by use of emotional advertising). This could be of grave importance, as marketing campaigns are often aimed at one (or a number of) target group(s), which often share(s) some common demographic characteristics. To gain more understanding in the differences in age and gender, products must first be divided into different categories. A distinction can be made between hedonic and utilitarian products. Hedonic products are products that consumers can get excited about (e.g. greeting cards, cologne, beer, iPods), where utilitarian products have more of an actual daily purpose. This basically means that consumers do not really get excited about these types of products (e.g. pain relievers, investment services, toothpaste) (Ratchford, 1987; Drolet, Williams & Lau-Gesk, 2007). Younger consumers had a preference for rational ads, when they were linked to utilitarian products. When they were confronted with hedonic products, they favored the affective type of advertisements (Drolet, Williams & Lau-Gesk, 2007). This is the main reason that participants were selected by age. The range of age (participants should not be older than 32) was deliberately chosen, as research has shown that relatively young consumers are vulnerable to emotional advertising of hedonic products (Drolet, Williams & Lau-Gesk, 2007). As the advertised product is a youth vacation, the range of age (16-30) was roughly based on information from one of the biggest Dutch tour operators in youth vacations (Gogo.nl). Participants were selected by use of snowball sampling (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981), via e-mail and social media. The mean age of the participants in the present study was 22.36, with a standard deviation of 3.91. The men/women ratio was almost perfect, as 112 men (49.6%) and 114 woman (50.4%) participated.

Table 2.
Demographic information of participants per condition

Demographics	Condition					
	FH	FS	FF	H	HS	HF
<i>Participants</i>	43	37	37	38	33	38
<i>Gender</i>						
Male	20	22	17	21	13	19
Female	23	15	20	17	20	19
<i>Age</i>						
Mean	21.95	23.08	22.65	22.79	21.27	22.37
SD	3.99	4.60	3.45	3.69	3.80	3.80
<i>Education</i>						
Primary school	1	0	0	0	1	0
VMBO	0	1	3	3	1	1
HAVO	7	3	4	4	6	5
VWO	1	3	0	2	2	2
MBO	2	6	6	4	1	1
HBO	13	8	8	9	6	7
WO	19	16	16	16	16	22

Note. FH=Fear-Happy, FS=Fear-Sad, FF=Fear-Fear, HH=Happy-Happy, HS=Happy-Sad and HF=Happy-Fear.

In total, 248 questionnaires were filled in. A number of 22 respondents did not finish the questionnaire, so these results were removed from the data file. A total number of 226 respondents were used for the data analysis, divided over six conditions. Chi-square tests were performed to examine the age and the education level in the several conditions. Both the distribution of gender [$\chi^2 (5, N = 226) = 3.665, p = .599$] and education [$\chi^2 (30, N = 226) = 26.429, p = .653$] showed no significant differences between the six conditions. Furthermore, an ANOVA showed no significant

difference between the age of the participants [$F(5, 225) = .990, p = .425$]. Full demographic data including percentages can be found in appendix E.

3.3 Stimuli

As mentioned before, each individual participant was exposed to one of three advertisements. As young consumers are most vulnerable to emotional advertising when promoting hedonic goods, a fictional company that sells youth vacations was used. For each emotion, a special advertisement was created. These advertisements were the same, as they had the exact same style, the same colors and were promoting the same product. The only difference between the advertisements was the type of emotion that was used. The emotions used in the text in the advertisement stressed either happiness, sadness or anxiousness (figure 2). For example, in the happy version of the advertisements, words like happy, glad and feeling good were used multiple times. To actually stress the emotion in the advertisements, a cartoon-like character was added. This character was derived from previous research by Laurans and Desmet (2012). The character used facial expressions to indicate a certain emotion. Logically, the facial expression of the character was adjusted to match the emotion used in the advertisement (for all stimuli, see appendix A).

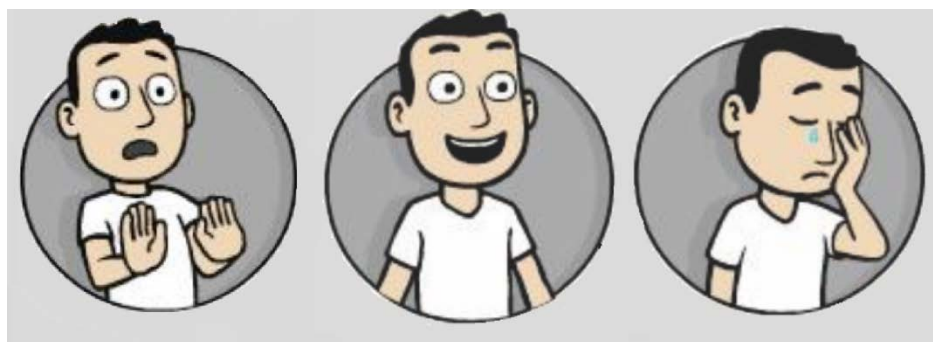


Figure 2. Emotions used in the advertisements

3.3.1 Pretest

To make sure that the stimulus material actually served its purpose, a pretest was performed. Twenty-one consumers participated in the pretest. In the pretest, participants were exposed to either a movie or a fictional news story. The stories were either scary or happy. In total, there were two movies (happy & scary) and two news stories (happy & scary). After seeing the movie or reading the story, participants were asked to rate their emotions. The results of the pretest did not show a significant difference between the movie and the story, as participants rated their emotions in almost the exact same way. For practical reasons, the news story was chosen, as it was more comfortable for participants to read a story instead of watching movie with sound. Also, participants were exposed to a number of advertisements. As mentioned before, each advertisement had a different emotion. The results showed that the participants rated the advertisements exactly as expected (e.g. a sad advertisement caused sad feelings and a happy advertisement caused feelings of happiness). Furthermore, some questions were reformulated and some minor spelling errors were removed (for the full pretest, see appendix D).

3.4 Instrument

To gain more knowledge in the field of specific (negative) emotions in advertising, several constructs were used. All constructs were derived from the literature, and were all used before in previous studies: the attitude towards the advertisement, the personal involvement with the advertisement and the purchase intention. These constructs were the dependent variables in the current study (all constructs can be found in Appendix D). To measure the constructs, a five point Likert scale was used. Participants were asked to answer a number of questions, divided into several constructs. The first construct that was measured was the attitude towards the advertisement. This scale was previously used by multiple scholars (Gardner, 1985; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Mitchell & Olson, 1981), but originally created by Mitchell & Olson (1977). The next construct was aimed to measure the

personal involvement with the advertisement. This scale originally consisted of 22 bipolar items and was first used in a research by Zaichowsky (1985). Later on, the scale was abbreviated by multiple scholars. Zaichowsky (1985) herself also used an abbreviated version of the scale, which consisted of only 10 items. Ten bipolar items were used to indicate the personal involvement with the advertisement. When looking at the current research from a marketing communication point of view, the most important construct is the purchase intention. To measure the purchase intention, a four-item construct was used (Baker & Churchill, 1977). The scale consisted of four statements, which were specifically designed to assess the likelihood of a consumer buying the vacation in the ad. The feelings that participants were experiencing after reading the fictional news story was also measured. Six unipolar items were used to indicate if consumers were actually influenced by the pre ad stimulus (Ahluwalia & Burnkrant, 2004). In this way, participants could select the level of specific emotions (e.g. anxiety, happiness) that they were feeling (evoked by the fictional news story). Although the emotional response to the pre ad stimulus was not one of the dependent variables, it was of grave importance that the stimulus served its purpose (i.e. putting participants in a happy or anxious mood state).

3.4.1 Reliability

To ensure a sufficient reliability of the constructs, a reliability analysis was performed. The analysis showed the following Cronbach's Alpha's: $\alpha = .74$ (attitude towards the ad); $\alpha = .91$ (personal involvement with the ad); $\alpha = .91$ (purchase intention).

Table 3.
Reliability estimates of the variables in the questionnaire.

Items	Reliability
<i>Attitude</i>	.74
I like this advertisement. (ATT1)	
I feel negative about this advertisement (r). (ATT2)	
I react unfavorably to the advertisement (r). (ATT3)	
The ad is good. (ATT4)	
<i>Personal involvement</i>	.91
This ad is unimportant (r). (PI1)	
This ad is interesting. (PI2)	
This ad is irrelevant (r). (PI3)	
This ad is unexciting (r). (PI4)	
This ad means a lot. (PI5)	
This ad is unappealing (r). (PI6)	
This ad is mundane (r). (PI7)	
This ad is valuable. (PI8)	
This ad is uninvolving (r). (PI9)	
This ad is needed. (PI10)	
<i>Purchase intention</i>	.91
I would like to experience an Orange Tours holiday. (PUI1)	
I would book an Orange Tours holiday. (PUI2)	
If I wanted to go on a holiday, I would actively search for a vacation like the one in the ad of Orange Tours. (PUI3)	
It is possible that I would become a customer of Orange Tours. (PUI4)	

Note. r = reverse scaled.

3.5 Procedure

All data was collected by use of an online questionnaire. A web link was created; from which participants were randomly send to one of six versions of the questionnaire. First, happiness or fear was evoked. Both happy and anxious feelings were evoked by one of two fictional news articles. As mentioned before, all participants were asked to read either a happy story (about a little girl who wants to go to Disneyland) or a scary story (about students and ghosts). The materials can be found in appendix B. After reading the short story, participants were exposed to one of three advertisements offering a vacation for youngsters. A fictional company

(Orange Tours) was created, so participants could not have any prior knowledge or prejudices about the company. The three advertisements were exactly alike, but the only difference was that they used totally different emotions, namely fear, sadness and happiness. After viewing the advertisement, participants were asked to answer a number of questions (the full questionnaire can be found in appendix C). All the questions were aimed at finding out which emotional state in advertising can best be used for happy or anxious consumers.

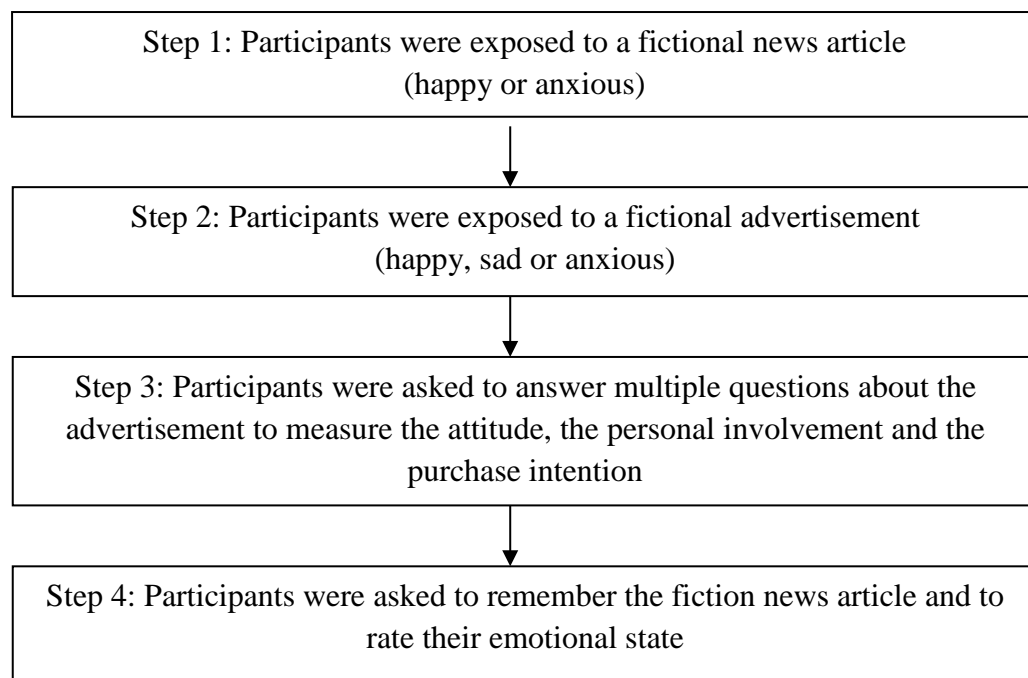


Figure 3. Overview of the procedure

3.6 Data analysis

In order to perform the data analysis, all data was imported into the statistical program SPSS. In this program, the interaction and main effects could be analyzed. First, multiple questions were rescaled; attitude (2, 4), emotional reaction (1, 4 and 6), involvement (1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9). To test the hypotheses, multiple MANOVA's were used.

4. Results

4.1 Manipulation check

A double manipulation check was performed to see if the participants actually read the fictional news article at the beginning of the questionnaire and to see how the story made them feel (i.e. the pre ad emotion). First, a question was asked to see if the participants remembered the details of the story. A little girl starred in the story that was designed to evoke happiness. In the story that evoked fear, two students were clearly mentioned. Participants were asked to select the protagonist(s) of the story, and they were given the following options: two students, a math teacher, a young girl and an elderly couple. Logically, the answer in the happy version should have been 'a young girl', and the answer in the fear version should have been 'two students'. A total of 109 participants were able to fill in the questionnaire in which they were exposed to a happy story. 105 of them filled in the correct answer, which is a percentage of 96.3%. The version of the questionnaire which started with a scary story was filled in by 117 participants. 111 of them filled in the correct answer, which is a percentage of 94.9%. Furthermore, the second manipulation check was performed to make sure that participants were actually feeling either scared or happy. The results showed that the manipulation with the scary news story succeeded. Participants who were exposed to the anxious story were significantly more anxious ($M = 1.61$, $SD = .97$) than the participants who were exposed to the happy story ($M = 3.68$, $SD = 1.32$; $t(21) = -13.40$, $p < .05$). The manipulation with the happy news story was also successful: Participants who were exposed to the happy story were significantly happier ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 1.17$) than the participants who were exposed to the anxious story ($M = 1.60$, $SD = .85$; $t(189,449) = 16.80$, $p < .05$).

4.1.1 Pre ad emotions

One of the key elements of the current study was to see if the designed news articles actually evoked the desired emotions by the participants. An analysis of variance was performed to see if participants' answers to the emotional scale differed. As expected, no clear differences were found when analyzing only the happy versions of the questionnaire (which means that no significant differences were found when looking at the answer of all the participants that were exposed to the happy news article). Logically, the highest rated emotion (when looking at the mean score) in the 'happy' versions was found in the emotion of happiness. When looking at the scary version of the fictional news story, participants experiences a significantly higher amount of fear.

Table 4.
Mean Scores on Pre-Ad Emotions (with Standard Deviations in Parentheses)

Pre-ad Emotion	Emotion in the News Story		
	Happy	Fear	<i>p</i>
Fear	1.61 (.97)	3.68 (1.32)	.00
Happy	3.90 (1.17)	1.60 (.85)	.00
Sadness	2.52 (1.27)	2.41 (1.22)	.498
Shame	1.75 (.99)	1.86 (1.02)	.424
Anger	1.65 (.94)	1.99 (.96)	.007

Note. Happy: $N = 106$, Fear: $N = 117$.

Apart from only rating the amount of fear and happiness that participants were experiencing, they were asked to rate three other emotions. These emotions did not serve an initial purpose, as they were only present to make sure it was not too obvious for participants to only focus on happiness or anxiety. Remarkably, the analysis showed that participants experienced a significantly higher amount of anger, when they were exposed to the scary story.

4.2 Attitude towards the advertisement

The first construct that was examined, was aimed at measuring the attitude towards the advertisement. A MANOVA was performed to examine the interaction effect of pre ad emotions and advertisement emotions on the attitude towards the advertisement. A significant main effect occurred when examining the influence of the emotions in the advertisement to the attitude towards the advertisement [$F(2, 216) = 22.463, p = .00, \eta^2 = .172$], therefore $H1$ is accepted. The main effect of the pre ad emotion was not significant [$F(2, 216) = 1.831, p = .177, \eta^2 = .008$], therefore $H2$ is rejected. Furthermore, the results showed a significant interaction between the effect of pre ad emotion and advertisement emotion on the attitude [$F(2, 216) = 5.017, p = .007, \eta^2 = .044$], which leads to the acceptance of $H3$.

Table 5.
Mean Scores on Attitude Towards the Advertisement (with Standard Deviations in Parentheses)

Pre-ad Emotion	Advertisement Emotion		
	Happy	Sad	Fear
Fear	2.71 (.90)	2.24 (.66)	2.35 (.71)
Happy	3.35 (.87)	2.17 (.65)	2.26 (1.07)

Note. FH: $N = 42$, FS: $N = 37$, FF: $N = 37$, HH: $N = 38$, HS: $N = 33$ and HF: $N = 38$.

When looking at the group of participants where happiness was evoked before the ad, pairwise comparisons indicate a significant difference in attitude for a happy advertisement ($M = 3.35$) and a sad advertisement ($M = 2.17$), $p < .05$; for a happy advertisement ($M = 3.35$) and a scary advertisement ($M = 2.26$), $p < .05$. No significant difference was found in the scores of attitude between a sad advertisement ($M = 2.17$) and a scary advertisement ($M = 2.26$). When looking at the group of participants where fear was evoked before the ad, pairwise comparisons did not indicate a significant difference in attitude between the scores of a happy

advertisement ($M = 2.71$), a sad advertisement ($M = 2.24$), and a scary advertisement ($M = 2.35$).

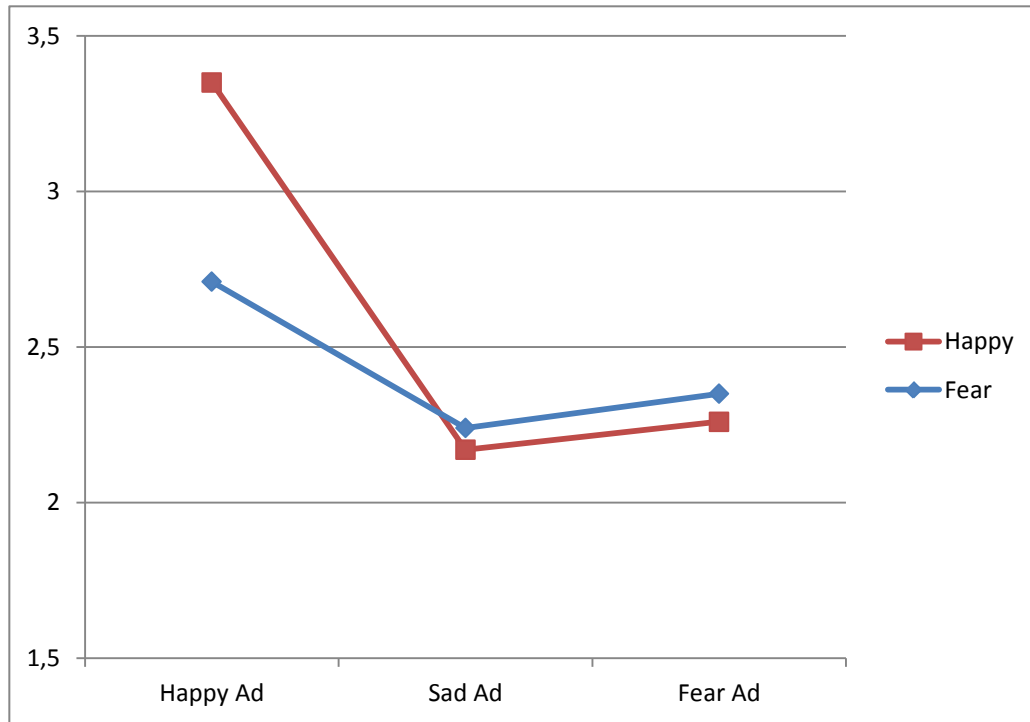


Figure 4: Mean scores on attitude

Figure 4 shows the direction of the interaction effect of pre ad emotion and advertisement emotion on the attitude towards the advertisement. This clearly shows that an advertisement using positive emotions causes a more positive attitude towards the ad, compared to using negative emotions in the ad.

4.3 Personal involvement with the advertisement

The second construct that was analyzed was aimed to measure the personal involvement that participants had with the advertisement. Participants were asked to answer ten questions that were all related to their personal involvement with the advertisement. A MANOVA was performed, and the results showed that there was a significant main effect when examining the effect of the emotion in the advertisement to the personal involvement [$F(2, 216) = 3.68, p = .027, \eta^2 = .033$], therefore $H4$ is accepted. No significant effect occurred when looking at the effect of the pre ad emotions to the personal involvement [$F(2, 216) = 2.71, p = .101, \eta^2 = .012$]. This leads to the rejection of $H5$. Furthermore, a significant interaction effect between the pre ad emo and the emotion in the advertisement [$F(2, 216) = 4.16, p = .017, \eta^2 = .037$] was found which leads to the acceptance of $H6$. Table 6 shows the mean scores and the standard deviations on personal involvement.

Table 6.

Mean Scores on Personal Involvement with the Advertisement (with Standard Deviations in Parentheses)

Pre-ad Emotion	Advertisement Emotion		
	Happy	Sad	Fear
Fear	2.35 (.83)	2.33 (.57)	2.38 (.59)
Happy	2.95 (1.01)	2.35 (.68)	2.45 (.97)

Note. FH: $N = 43$, FS: $N = 37$, FF: $N = 37$, HH: $N = 38$, HS: $N = 33$ and HF: $N = 37$.

When looking at the group of participants where happiness was evoked before the ad, pairwise comparisons indicate a significant difference in personal involvement for a happy advertisement ($M = 2.95$) and a sad advertisement ($M = 2.35$), $p < .05$; for a happy advertisement ($M = 2.95$) and a scary advertisement ($M =$

2.45), $p < .05$. No significant difference was found in the scores of attitude between a sad advertisement ($M = 2.35$) and a scary advertisement ($M = 2.45$). When looking at the group of participants where fear was evoked before the ad, pairwise comparisons did not indicate a significant difference in attitude between the scores of a happy advertisement ($M = 2.35$), a sad advertisement ($M = 2.33$), and a scary advertisement ($M = 2.38$).

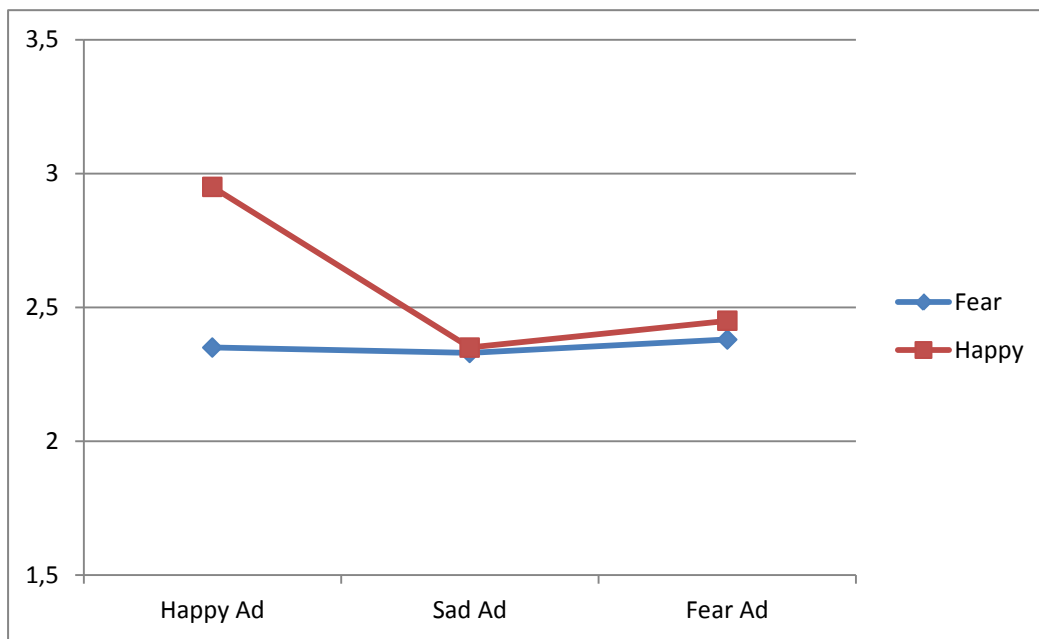


Figure 5: Mean scores on personal involvement

4.4 Purchase intention

The final construct was aimed to measure the intention to actually purchase the product that was mentioned in the advertisement. As mentioned before, four items were used to indicate the purchase intention. The results did show a significant influence of the emotion in the advertisement on the purchase intention [$F(2, 216) = 5.588$, $p = .004$, $\eta^2 = .049$], therefore $H7$ is accepted. No main effect was found when looking at the influence of the pre ad emo to the purchase intention [$F(2, 216) = 2.232$, $p = .137$, $\eta^2 = .010$], which leads to the rejection of $H8$. Furthermore, no

significant interaction effect for the pre ad emotion and the advertisement emotion on the purchase intention [$F(2, 216) = 1.788, p = .17, \eta^2 = .016$], which leads to the rejection of $H9$.

Table 7.

Mean Scores on Purchase Intention (with Standard Deviations in Parentheses)

Pre-ad Emotion	Advertisement Emotion		
	Happy	Sad	Fear
Fear	2.08 (1.05)	1.95 (.81)	1.78 (.76)
Happy	2.55 (1.03)	1.86 (.67)	1.99 (.98)

Note. FH: $N = 43$, FS: $N = 36$, FF: $N = 36$, HH: $N = 38$, HS: $N = 33$ and HF: $N = 38$.

When looking at the group of participants where happiness was evoked before the ad, pairwise comparisons indicate a significant difference in purchase intention for a happy advertisement ($M = 2.55$) and a sad advertisement ($M = 1.86$), $p < .05$; for a happy advertisement ($M = 2.55$) and a scary advertisement ($M = 1.99$), $p < .05$. No significant difference was found in the scores of attitude between a sad advertisement ($M = 1.86$) and a scary advertisement ($M = 1.99$). When looking at the group of participants where fear was evoked before the ad, pairwise comparisons did not indicate a significant difference in attitude between the scores of a happy advertisement ($M = 2.08$), a sad advertisement ($M = 1.95$), and a scary advertisement ($M = 1.78$).

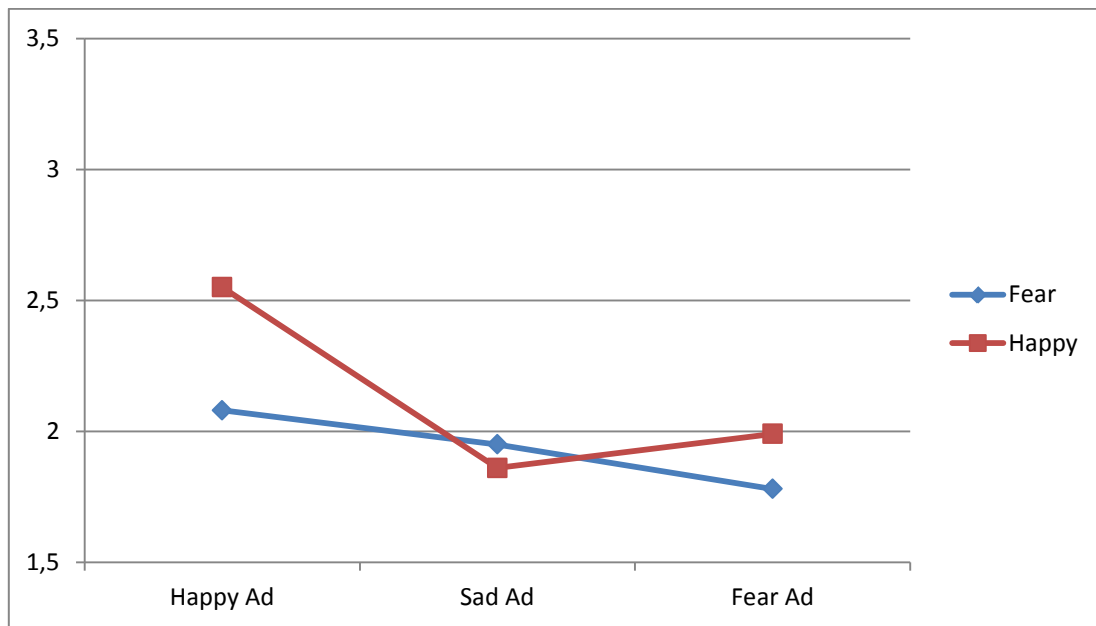


Figure 6: Mean scores on purchase intention

4.5 Overview of hypotheses

Table 8.

Rejection And Acceptance Of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	P-value	Result
H1: An advertisement that stresses positive emotions causes a significantly more positive attitude towards the ad, compared to advertisements that stress negative emotions.	.000	Accepted
H2: The emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an advertisement have a significant influence on the attitude towards the ad.	.177	Rejected
H3: The interaction effect on attitude towards the ad is expected between emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an ad and the emotions that are used in an	.007	Accepted

advertisement.

<i>H4: An advertisement that stresses positive emotions causes a significantly higher personal involvement with the ad, compared to advertisements that stress negative emotions.</i>	.027	Accepted
<i>H5: The emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an advertisement have a significant influence on their personal involvement with the ad.</i>	.101	Rejected
<i>H6: The interaction effect on personal involvement with an ad is expected between emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an ad and the emotions that are used in an advertisement.</i>	.017	Accepted
<i>H7: An advertisement that stresses positive emotions causes a significantly higher purchase intention, compared to advertisements that stress negative emotions.</i>	.004	Accepted
<i>H8: The emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an advertisement have a significant influence on the purchase intention.</i>	.137	Rejected
<i>H9: The interaction effect on purchase intention is expected between emotions that consumers experience before being exposed to an ad and the emotions that are used in an advertisement.</i>	.170	Rejected

Table 8 shows a clear overview of the hypotheses that were tested in the current study. At each of the three constructs, a significant main effect of positive emotions in the advertisement was found (i.e. using positive emotions caused a more positive attitude, a greater personal involvement and a higher purchase intention). No significant influence of the pre ad emotions on the dependent variables was found (rejection of *H2*, *H5*, and *H8*). Furthermore, a significant interaction effect was found between the pre ad emotions and the emotions that were used in the ad, when looking at the attitude and the personal involvement. No interaction was found when analyzing the purchase intention.

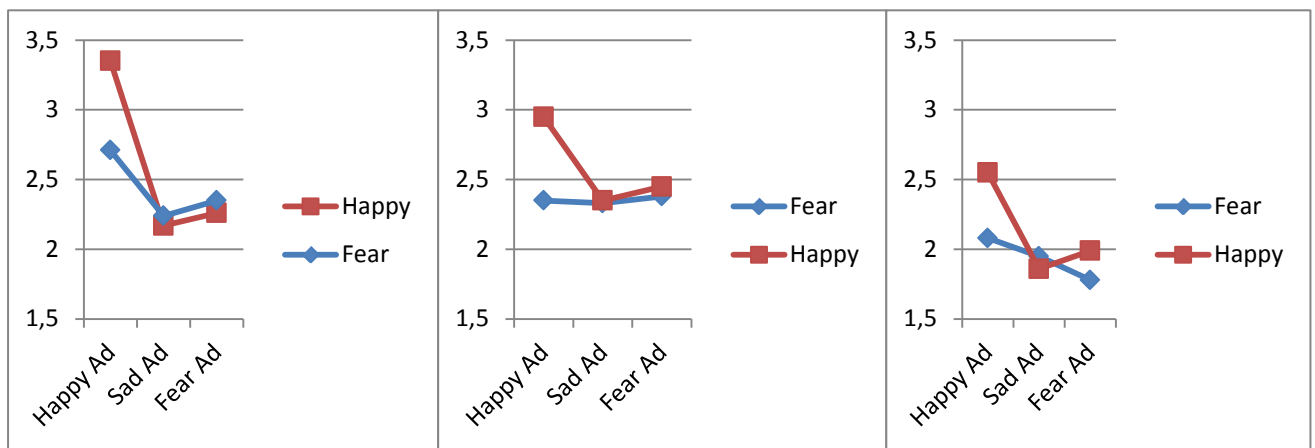


Figure 7: Mean scores on attitude, personal involvement and purchase intention

Figure 7 illustrates the similar pattern between the mean scores of the different constructs. It is clear to see that combining happy pre ad emotions with happy emotions in an advertisement causes the highest mean scores.

5. Conclusion & Discussion

The current study was aimed to gain more insight into the use of specific emotions in marketing communication. Multiple advertisements were designed to indicate consumer preferences when looking at specific emotions in advertising. Data was collected by use of an online survey. In total, 226 young consumers participated in the 2x3 between subjects design. The main research question was as followed; what kind of emotions in advertising can best be used for happy or anxious consumers?

5.1 Major findings

When looking at the hypotheses that were formulated prior to the current research, one clear conclusion can be drawn; all hypotheses about the main effect of the happy versions of the advertisement to the dependent variables are accepted. Essentially, this means that using happy advertisements lead to a significantly higher attitude, a higher personal involvement and a higher purchase intention, when comparing them to negative advertisements (acceptance of *H1*, *H4* and *H7*). In addition, the results show that the use of pre ad emotions does not have a significant influence on the attitude, the personal involvement and the purchase intention of happy advertisements (rejection of *H2*, *H5* and *H8*). Furthermore, interaction effects between the emotions that participants were feeling and the emotion in the advertisement occurred when looking at the attitude towards the advertisement and the personal involvement (acceptance of *H3* and *H6*). Remarkably, this interaction effect did not occur at the purchase intention. In all cases, the highest mean scores (on attitude, personal involvement and purchase intention) were found in the conditions where positive emotions were used in the advertisement, and when participants were feeling happy. Furthermore, an unexpected finding occurred when analyzing the evoked emotions in the beginning of the questionnaire. Participants that were exposed to the scary story did not only feel scared, but also felt a significantly higher level of anger ($p < .05$). This may be explained by the fact that

consumers tend to feel some kind of anger, when they are scared. When consumers are feeling angry, they assess less risks than there are in real life (Lerner & Keltner, 2000). In this way, anger could cause some kind of defense mechanism to deal with the anxiety. Furthermore, multiple analyses showed absolutely no evidence for any influence of the pre-ad emotions on the attitude, the personal involvement or the purchase intention. This was remarkable, as these results imply that the current state of emotion itself has no influence on consumers' behavior. On the other hand, the results of the current study seem to imply that the reactions to the advertisement do not depend on particular emotions like anxiety or sadness. Instead, participants only seemed to distinguish the negative and positive emotions (happy vs. sad/anxious).

5.2 *Theoretical conclusions*

The main findings seem to be in line with previous work of multiple scholars. Metha and Purvis (2006) stated that an actual pleasant emotional experience is of great importance, when buying a product. This is supported by the fact that the positive happy emotions in the advertisements lead to a more positive attitude, a greater personal involvement and, most important, a higher purchase intention. As stated in the theoretical framework, the personal involvement with the advertisement is very important. A low level of personal involvement would lead to the peripheral route (Petty & Cacioppo, 1979; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), which is not preferred. The results of the current research show that using positive emotions in an advertisement lead to a significantly higher level of personal involvement, compared to advertisements in which negative emotions are used. This is supported by the fact that the happy advertisements also lead to a greater purchase intention. Another important aspect that should be addressed is the aspect of using negative emotions in advertising. According to multiple scholars (Jack et al., 2014; Brennan & Binney, 2010), a negatively framed advertisement can cause a certain discomfort, so consumers might be motivated to buy a certain product. The current study provides no evidence for this statement, as none of the negative emotions have a positive

influence to the attitude, the personal involvement and the purchase intention. However, these conclusions may only be applied to the specific product that was used in the research (i.e. the youth vacation). If the same study was carried out on a different product, the findings might be totally different. It might be safer to state that using negative emotions do not seem to work, when advertising for a youth vacation. According to the results in the current study, the negative emotions in the advertisement did not cause the consumers to think more positive about the product, although they probably wanted to avoid feelings of negativity. Using positive emotions in advertising is less risky than taking a leap of faith and using negativity. On the other hand, using negativity immediately might distinguish an advertiser from its competitors.

It might be that consumers are becoming less sensitive to the standard happy emotions in advertising. If a company makes a commercial, it is of great importance that it stands out when it is broadcasted during a commercial break with ten other commercials. If all the other commercials are only mentioning how great life is and how happy you should feel, maybe using negative emotions like fear or sadness could actually be a great way to differentiate a company from the other competitors. However, it should be clear that consumers are not willing to buy a product if it gives them a negative feeling. Therefore, a commercial or an advertisement should be specifically designed to transfer certain negative emotions into positive emotions. In this way, the use of negative emotions triggers certain negativity with consumers, but the transformation into positive emotions makes sure that consumers want to purchase a certain product or service. In this way, 90% of the commercial contains negative emotions, but the final 10% makes sure that the negativity is transformed into positivity. A great example is a commercial by Pfizer, a big pharmaceutical company. The commercial has a full duration of 90 seconds, in which the first 70 seconds are quite negative. In the beginning of the commercial, a young boy wearing a cap is filmed. He is spraying graffiti on several walls in an area that looks like a deserted ghetto. When the boy comes home, his mother looks at him with a feeling of disappointment. And just when you would expect something more negative to happen, it turns out that the boy was spraying the text 'Be Brave' on the walls of the

neighborhood, so his terminally ill sister can look at the powerful message from her bed. This commercial is a great example how negative emotions can be transformed into positive emotions, which might cause a more intense feeling of happiness, because of the contrast between the two emotions.

Apart from only focusing on the outcome of the emotions, it might also be that the actual product plays a crucial role. In the current study, a youth vacation was used. Another (less expensive) product or service may lead to a different outcome. Advertisements for life insurances or charity donations might actually need negative emotions to be successful, as it would not make sense to donate money if you see smiling children in the Central African Republic playing on their new Playstation 4. Instead, revealing the actual reality (e.g. seeing crying, homeless children who lost both of their parents in the civil war) would have a bigger impact. The same counts for commercials for life insurance. A commercial might describe a situation in which your children or spouse are having severe financial problems because you forgot to get a life insurance. In order to avoid this negativity, the commercial persuades you to get a life insurance fast.

5.3 *Conclusions*

Now that the main results have been interpreted, the main question can be answered; what kind of emotions in advertising can best be used for happy or anxious consumers? The results provide significant evidence that happy emotions in advertisement are best suited when advertising for consumers that are feeling good. Happy consumers, who are exposed to a happy advertisement, have a higher attitude towards the ad, a higher personal involvement with the ad and a higher purchase intention (compared to being exposed to a sad and anxious advertisements). When looking at the pairwise comparisons analyses for the anxious participants, no significant preference was found for one of the advertisements. Furthermore, it is important to stress that the emotions that participants are feeling (the pre ad emotions) do not have any main influence on the attitude, the personal involvement of the purchase intention. The results of the current study do show an interaction

effect between the emotions that participants are feeling and the emotions that are used in the advertisement. However, the purchase intention is not influenced by this interaction effect. It is also remarkable that advertisements that stress sadness or fear do not seem to have any effect on any of the constructs. Basically, this means that participants did not differentiate feelings of sadness or anxiety. The only difference that was made was the difference between experiencing positive emotions (happy emotions), and experiencing negative emotions (emotions of sadness or anxiety). The main question can be answered by stating that using happy emotions in an advertisement is the best option for happy consumers, and that anxious consumers do not seem to have a significant preference for a specific emotion in an advertisement.

5.4 *Limitations & future research*

Although the current study provides some clear insights into the field of marketing communication, some limitations are worth mentioning. First, all participants were exposed to a fictional news story. Although the results showed that the participants actually felt different about the two stories, a longer exposé might have been more successful. Future researchers could try to interview consumers when they are just leaving the movie theatre, after seeing a two hour horror, comedy or romantic movie. In this way, not only the length but also the intensity of the negative emotions would be much greater. The results of such a study can be compared with the current study, to see if the intensity and the length of the pre ad emotion has a significant influence on the purchase intention. On top of that, future scholars might choose to use more constructs to really comprehend consumers' preferences and choices, when looking at certain emotions in advertising. Another limitation of the current study might be found in the number of emotions that were used. Future researchers could try to incorporate more specific emotions, such as happiness, love, anger, anxiety, sadness, fear or disappointment. Another emotion that might actually have an influence on the purchase intention is guilt. In a way, guilt does not make people feel bad about a certain product, but about themselves.

An example can be seen in the marketing campaigns of fitness and health products. Imagine the number of people who are watching a commercial for a new fat loss product. Without realizing it, the amount of guilt that they feel for being overweight may actually contribute to a greater purchase intention. In this way, the amount of guilt might actually be bigger than the need to be healthy.

Furthermore, future studies might pay attention to different product groups. As mentioned before, a youth vacation was used in the current study. Using different products might lead to a different outcome. Another item worth mentioning is the education level of the participants. In the current study, 69% of the participants were highly educated (WO or HBO). This might give a distorted view, so future researchers might want to aim at a broader education level of the participants.

5.5 *Recommendations*

The current research tried to fill a gap that is existing in the current literature, as very little information about negativity in advertising is available (Chakrabarti & Haller, 2007). The results imply that the positive emotions in marketing communication have a positive effect on the attitude, the personal involvement and the purchase intention. On the other hand, one important aspect of using negative emotions is perfectly in line with previous studies (Burton, 1983; James & Hensel, 1991; Levy, 1987; Muehling, 1987); negative emotions should be used with great caution, when designing advertisements. Furthermore, the results imply that it is safe to say that using happy emotions does not harm an advertising campaign in any way. With that in mind, why would a marketer deliberately choose to use negative emotions, instead of sticking to the old, trusted happiness in advertising? Maybe it is even better to simply continue promoting products in a positive way. As a wise man once said; *'it seems that our entire psychical activity is bent upon procuring pleasure'* (Freud, 1920/1952, p. 365).

References

- Abraham, M. M., & Lodish, L. M. (1989). Getting the most out of advertising and promotion. *Harvard Business Review*, 68(3), 50-1.
- Ahluwalia, R., & Burnkrant, R. E. (2004). Answering questions about questions: A persuasion knowledge perspective for understanding the effects of rhetorical questions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(1), 26-42.
- Albers-Miller, N. D., & Stafford, M. R. (1999). An international analysis of emotional and rational appeals in services vs goods advertising. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 16(1), 42-57.
- Allen, C. T., & Janiszewski, C. A. (1989). Assessing the role of contingency awareness in attitudinal conditioning with implications for advertising research. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 30-43.
- AMC Blog. (2007). Retrieved on February 1st, 2014 via <http://blogs.amctv.com/movie-blog/2007/05/the-exorcist/>
- Andrade, E. B., & Cohen, J. B. (2007). On the consumption of negative feelings. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34(3), 283-300.
- Armstrong, G., Kotler, P., & He, Z. (2000). Marketing: an introduction.
- Arnold, M. B. (1960). Emotion and personality. Vol. I. Psychological aspects.
- Bagozzi, R. P., Gopinath, M., & Nyer, P. U. (1999). The role of emotions in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 27(2), 184-206.
- Baker, M. J., & Churchill Jr, G. A. (1977). The impact of physically attractive models on advertising evaluations. *Journal of Marketing research*, 538-555.

- Batra, R. (1986). Affective advertising: Role, processes and measurements.. *The Role of affect in consumer behavior: Emerging theories and applications*. 53-85.
- Batra, R., & Ray, M. L. (1983). Operationalizing involvement as depth and quality of the cognitive response. *Advances in consumer research*, 10(1).
- baron de Montesquieu, C. D. S. (Ed.). (1892). *Mélanges inédits de Montesquieu*. G. Gounouilhou.
- Biernacki, P., & Waldorf, D. (1981). Snowball sampling: Problems and techniques of chain referral sampling. *Sociological methods & research*, 10(2), 141-163.
- Bradley, J.C. (n.d.). *What is rational appeal in advertising?* Retrieved on December 15th, 2014, via <http://smallbusiness.chron.com/rational-appeal-advertising-59886.html>.
- Brennan, L., & Binney, W. (2010). Fear, guilt, and shame appeals in social marketing. *Journal of business Research*, 63(2), 140-146.
- Bruner, G. C., Hensel, P. J., & James, K. E. (2001). *Marketing scales handbook*. Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- Burton, P.W. (1983). *Advertising Copywriting*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Cacioppo, J. T., Berntson, G. G., Larsen, J. T., Poehlmann, K. M., & Ito, T. A. (2001). The psychophysiology of emotion. *Handbook of emotions*, 2, 173-191.
- Cacioppo, J. T., & Petty, R. E. (1979). Effects of message repetition and position on cognitive response, recall, and persuasion. *Journal of personality and Social Psychology*, 37(1), 97.
- Carver, C. S., & White, T. L. (1994). Behavioral inhibition, behavioral activation, and affective responses to impending reward and punishment: the BIS/BAS scales. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 67(2), 319.

- Chaiken, S., & Trope, Y. (Eds.). (1999). *Dual-process theories in social psychology*. Guilford Press.
- Chakrabarti, S., & Haller, H. (2007). An analysis of advertising wars. *The Manchester School*, 79(1), 100-124.
- Chaudhuri, A. (2012). *Emotion and reason in consumer behavior*. Routledge.
- Crane, E., Kerin, R., & Hartley, S. (2007). *Marketing*. 7th Canadian edn, McGraw Hill Ryerson, Toronto).
- Damasio, A. (1994). Descartes' error: emotion, reason and the human mind. *Putnam, New York*.
- Davidson, R. J. (1992). Emotion and affective style: Hemispheric substrates. *Psychological science*, 3(1), 39-43.
- De Pelsmacker, P., Decock, B., & Geuens, M. (1998). Advertising Characteristics and the Attitude towards the Ad-A Study of 100 Likeable TV Commercials. *Marketing and Research Today*, 27(4) 166-79).
- De Pelsmacker, P., Geuens, M., & Anckaert, P. (2002). Media context and advertising effectiveness: The role of context appreciation and context/ad similarity. *Journal of Advertising*, 31(2), 49-61.
- Desmet, P. (2005). Measuring emotion: Development and application of an instrument to measure emotional responses to products. In *Funology* (pp. 111-123). Springer Netherlands.
- Drolet, A., Williams, P., & Lau-Gesk, L. (2007). Age-related differences in responses to affective vs. rational ads for hedonic vs. utilitarian products. *Marketing Letters*, 18(4), 211-221.

- Edell, J. A., & Burke, M. C. (1987). The power of feelings in understanding advertising effects. *Journal of Consumer research*.
- Ekman, P., Friesen, W. V., & Ellsworth, P. (1982). Research foundations. *Emotion in the human face*, 2, 1-143.
- Ekström, K. M., & Brembeck, H. (Eds.). (2004). *Elusive consumption*. Berg.
- Fishbein, M. (1967). A consideration of beliefs and their role in attitude measurement. *Readings in attitude theory and measurement*. New York: Wiley.
- Fiske, S. T. (1980). Attention and weight in person perception: The impact of negative and extreme behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38(6), 889.
- Fokkinga, S., & Desmet, P. (2012). Darker shades of joy: The role of negative emotion in rich product experiences. *Design Issues*, 28(4), 42-56.
- Freud, S. (1952). *A general introduction to psychoanalysis*. New York: Washington Square Press. (Original work published in 1920).
- Gardner, M. P. (1985). Does attitude toward the ad affect brand attitude under a brand evaluation set?. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 22(2).
- Gawronski, B., Deutsch, R., Mbirkou, S., Seibt, B., & Strack, F. (2008). When “just say no” is not enough: Affirmation versus negation training and the reduction of automatic stereotype activation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 44(2), 370-377.
- Gobe, M. (2009). *Emotional branding*. Allworth Press.
- Gorn, G. J. (1982). The effects of music in advertising on choice behavior: A classical conditioning approach. *Journal of marketing*, 46(1).
- Gray, J. A. (1978). The neuropsychology of anxiety*. *British Journal of Psychology*, 69(4), 417-434.

- Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American psychologist*, 52 (12), 1280.
- Higgins, E. T., Shah, J., & Friedman, R. (1997). Emotional responses to goal attainment: strength of regulatory focus as moderator. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 72(3), 515.
- Hoch, S. J., & Ha, Y. W. (1986). Consumer learning: advertising and the ambiguity of product experience. *Journal of consumer research*, 221-233.
- Holbrook, M. B., & Batra, R. (1987). Assessing the role of emotions as mediators of consumer responses to advertising. *Journal of consumer research*.
- Holbrook, M. B., & O'Shaughnessy, J. (1984). The role of emotion in advertising. *Psychology & Marketing*, 1(2), 45-64.
- Irons, D. (1895). Descartes and modern theories of emotion. *The Philosophical Review*, 4(3), 291-302.
- Izard, C. E. (1971). The face of emotion.
- bre, R. E., Garrod, O. G., & Schyns, P. G. (2014). Dynamic Facial Expressions of Emotion Transmit an Evolving Hierarchy of Signals over Time. *Current Biology*.
- James, K. E., & Hensel, P. J. (1991). Negative advertising: The malicious strain of comparative advertising. *Journal of Advertising*, 20(2), 53-69.
- James, W. (1884). What is an emotion? *Mind*, (34), 188-205.
- Kaul, A., & Wittink, D. R. (1995). Empirical generalizations about the impact of advertising on price sensitivity and price. *Marketing Science*, 14(3_supplement), G151-G160.
- Kahneman, D. (2003). A perspective on judgment and choice: mapping bounded rationality. *American psychologist*, 58(9), 697.
- Kahneman, D. (2011). *Thinking, fast and slow*. Macmillan.

- Kahneman, D., & Frederick, S. (2002). Representativeness revisited: Attribute substitution in intuitive judgment. *Heuristics and biases: The psychology of intuitive judgment*, 49-81.
- Keltner, D., & Gross, J. J. (1999). Functional accounts of emotions. *Cognition & Emotion*, 13(5), 467-480.
- Kotler, P. & Amstrong, G. (1994). *Principles of Marketing*, 6th ed., Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Labroo, A. A., & Rucker, D. D. (2010). The orientation-matching hypothesis: An emotion-specificity approach to affect regulation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 47(5), 955-966.
- Laurans, G., & Desmet, P. (2012, September). Introducing PREMO2: New directions for the non-verbal measurement of emotion in design. In *Design and Emotion conference* (pp. 11-14).
- Law, S., Hawkins, S. A., & Craik, F. I. (1998). Repetition-induced belief in the elderly: Rehabilitating age-related memory deficits. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 25(2), 91-107.
- Lepkowska-White, E., Brashear, T. G., & Weinberger, M. G. (2003). A Test of Ad Appeal Effectiveness in Poland and The United States-The Interplay of Appeal, Product, and Culture. *Journal of Advertising*, 32(3), 57-66.
- Lerner, J. S., & Keltner, D. (2000). Beyond valence: Toward a model of emotion-specific influences on judgement and choice. *Cognition & Emotion*, 14(4), 473-493.
- Levy, R. (1987). Big resurgence in comparative ads. *Dun's Business Month*, 129(2), 56-8.
- Ling, K. C., Piew, T. H., & Chai, L. T. (2010). The Determinants of Consumers' Attitude Towards Advertising. *Canadian Social Science*, 6(4).

- Lodish, L. M., Abraham, M., Kalmenson, S., Livelsberger, J., Lubetkin, B., Richardson, B., & Stevens, M. E. (1995). How TV Advertising Works: A Meta-Analysis of 389 Real World Split Cable TV Advertising Experiments. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 32(2).
- Merritt, S. (1984). Negative political advertising: Some empirical findings. *Journal of advertising*, 13(3), 27-38.
- Mehta, A., & Purvis, S. C. (2006). Reconsidering recall and emotion in advertising. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 46(1), 49.
- Mitchell, A. A., & Olson, J. C. (1981). Are product attribute beliefs the only mediator of advertising effects on brand attitude? *Journal of Marketing Research*, 318-332.
- Muehling, D. D. (1987). Comparative advertising: The influence of attitude-toward-the-ad on brand evaluation. *Journal of Advertising*, 16(4), 43-49.
- Nelson, P. (1974). Advertising as information. *The Journal of Political Economy*, 82(4), 729.
- Ogilvy, D. (1983). *Ogilvy on Advertising*. Crown.
- Ortony, A., & Turner, T. J. (1990). What's basic about basic emotions? *Psychological review*, 97(3), 315.
- Peck, J., & Wiggins, J. (2006). It just feels good: customers' affective response to touch and its influence on persuasion. *Journal of Marketing*, 70(4), 56-69.
- Petty, R. E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1986). Communication and persuasion: Central and peripheral routes to attitude change.
- Tuan Pham, M. (2004). The logic of feeling. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 14(4), 360-369.

- Plutchik, R. (1980). A general psychoevolutionary theory of emotion. *Emotion: Theory, research, and experience*, 1(3), 3-33.
- Raghunathan, R., & Pham, M. T. (1999). All negative moods are not equal: Motivational influences of anxiety and sadness on decision making. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 79(1), 56-77.
- Ratchford, B. T. (1987). New insights about the FCB grid. *Journal of advertising research*.
- Reeves, C. A., & Bednar, D. A. (1994). Defining quality: alternatives and implications. *Academy of management Review*, 19(3), 419-445.
- Rucker, D. (2009). Balance in Advertising. Retrieved March 3, 2014 via http://insight.kellogg.northwestern.edu/article/balance_in_advertising/.
- Sabato, L. J. (1981). *The rise of political consultants: New ways of winning elections* (pp. 220-63). New York: Basic Books.
- Samson, A., & Voyer, B. G. (2012). Two minds, three ways: dual system and dual process models in consumer psychology. *AMS review*, 2(2-4), 48-71.
- Sanchez, J. G. (2002). Customer Relationship Marketing. *Research Paper*, 28-32.
- Sartre, J. P. (1962). *Sketch for a Theory of the Emotions*. Psychology Press.
- Schnall, S., Haidt, J., Clore, G. L., & Jordan, A. H. (2008). Disgust as embodied moral judgment. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 34(8), 1096-1109.
- Schwarz, N. (2004). Metacognitive experiences in consumer judgment and decision making. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 14(4), 332-348.
- Skurnik, I., Yoon, C., Park, D. C., & Schwarz, N. (2005). How warnings about false claims become recommendations. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(4), 713-724.
- Sorescu, A. B., & Gelb, B. D. (2000). Negative comparative advertising: Evidence favoring fine-tuning. *Journal of advertising*, 29(4), 25-40.

- Stanovich, K. E., & West, R. F. (2000). Advancing the rationality debate. *Behavioral and brain sciences*, 23(05), 701-717.
- Stern, B. L., & Resnik, A. J. (1991). Information content in television advertising: A replication and extension. *Journal of Advertising Research*.
- Strack, F., & Deutsch, R. (2004). Reflective and impulsive determinants of social behavior. *Personality and social psychology review*, 8(3), 220-247.
- Strack, F., Werth, L., & Deutsch, R. (2006). Reflective and impulsive determinants of consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 16(3), 205-216.
- Tungate, M. (2007). *Adland: a global history of advertising*. Kogan Page Publishers.
- Vakratsas, D., & Ambler, T. (1999). How advertising works: what do we really know?. *Journal of marketing*, 63(1).
- Verma, V. K. (1980). A price theoretic approach to the specification and estimation of the sales-advertising function. *Journal of Business*, S115-S137.
- Wagner, B. C., & Petty, R. E. (2011). The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion: Thoughtful and non-thoughtful social influence. In D. Chadee (Ed.), *Theories in social psychology* (pp. 96-116). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Weinberger, M. G., & Spotts, H. E. (1989). Humor in US versus UK TV commercials: a comparison. *Journal of Advertising*, 18(2), 39-44.
- Wyer, R. S., & Carlston, D. E. (1979). *Social cognition, inference, and attribution*. Psychology Press.
- Wyer Jr, R. S., & Srull, T. K. (1989). *Memory and cognition in its social context*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of consumer research*, 12(3), 341.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1986). Conceptualizing involvement. *Journal of advertising*, 15(2), 4-34.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1994). The personal involvement inventory: Reduction, revision, and application to advertising. *Journal of advertising*, 23(4), 59-70.

Appendices

Appendix A

Stimulus material (advertisements with sad, anxious and happy emotions)



BOEK
nu één van onze
jongerenreizen!

HEERLIJK GENIETEN OP VAKANTIE, ZONDER VERDRIET



"Twee jaar geleden zijn we op vakantie geweest met een onbekend reisbureau. Verdriet heeft anderhalve week lang de stemming bepaald! Na het landen kreeg één van de jongens te horen dat zijn moeder plotseling ziek was geworden, waardoor er een bedroefde sfeer ontstond. Iedereen voelde zich verdrietig, maar volgens het reisbureau konden we niet eerder naar huis. In het hotel kraakte alles en de deur kon niet op slot, waardoor er spullen gestolen zijn uit onze kamer. Twee meisjes hebben uren lang gehuild in de lobby. Zo'n vakantie vol verdriet willen we nooit meer, daarom kiezen we voor Orange Tours! Daar is alles perfect geregeld!"

VOORKOM EEN VAKANTIE VOL VERDRIET! BOEK BIJ ORANGE TOURS!

Orange Tours B.V.
Industrieweg 7
7577 CR Enschede

www.orangetours.nl





Orange Tours B.V.
Industrieweg 7
7577 CR Enschede

www.orangetours.nl



BOEK nu één van onze jongerenreizen!

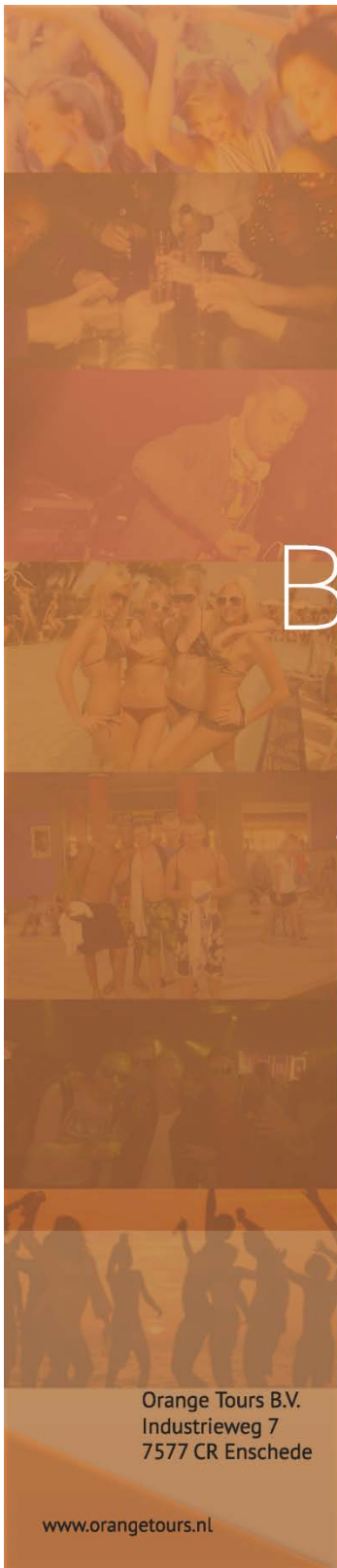
HEERLIJK GENIETEN OP VAKANTIE, ZONDER BANG TE ZIJN



"Twee jaar geleden gingen we met vrienden en vriendinnen op vakantie met een onbekend reisbureau. We hebben allemaal anderhalve week lang angst gevoeld! We hadden hevige turbulentie op de heen- en terugweg, waardoor iedereen erg bang was. In het hotel kraakte alles en de deur kon niet op slot, waardoor we elke nacht bang waren dat er zomaar iemand onze kamer in zou komen. Ondanks dat we de hele vakantie bang waren, konden we volgens het reisbureau niet eerder naar huis. Zo'n vakantie vol angst willen we nooit meer, daarom kiezen we voor Orange Tours! Daar is alles wél goed geregeld!"

VOORKOM EEN VAKANTIE VOL ANGST! BOEK BIJ ORANGE TOURS!





BOEK nu één van onze jongerenreizen!

HEERLIJK GENIETEN OP VAKANTIE, ERVAAR HET GELUK!



"De afgelopen twee jaar zijn we met vrienden op vakantie geweest met Orange Tours. We hebben ons allemaal anderhalve week lang gelukkig gevoeld! Het begon al tijdens de goed verzorgde vlucht, want we hadden we allemaal een glimlach op ons gezicht. In het hotel kraakte alles en de deur kon niet op slot. Zelfs dat kon de pret niet drukken, omdat de organisatie van Orange Tours met een vrolijk gezicht langskwam om alles te repareren. Zo'n ontzettend gezellige vakantie vol vrolijkheid willen we natuurlijk volgend jaar weer, daarom kiezen we voor Orange Tours! Daar is alles perfect geregeld!"

KIES VOOR EEN VAKANTIE VOL VREUGDE! BOEK BIJ ORANGE TOURS!



Orange Tours B.V.
Industrieweg 7
7577 CR Enschede

www.orangetours.nl

Text used in the sad advertisement: *Two years ago, we booked our holiday at a travel agency that we didn't know. We've felt pure sadness for a week and a half. After our plane landed, one of our friends was informed that his mother was very ill. Therefore, everybody was feeling very sad. Because everybody was feeling so miserable, we wanted to go home. The travel agency told us that it wasn't possible to cancel our vacation. We weren't able to lock the door to our hotel, and our entire luggage was stolen from our room. Two of our friends were crying in the lobby for hours. We definitely know that we would never book such a vacation full of sadness again.. That's why we are booking our vacation at Orange Tours, because we do not want to feel sad anymore!*

Text used in the anxious advertisement: *Two years ago, we booked our holiday at a travel agency that we didn't know. We've felt pure fear for a week and a half. During our flight, we were experiencing some heavy turbulence. When we got to our hotel, we weren't even able to lock the door. We were very scared because we were frightened that someone would enter our room in the middle of the night. Despite the fact that we were very scared during our vacation, we weren't allowed to go home earlier. We definitely know that we would never book such a vacation full of fear again.. That's why we are booking our vacation at Orange Tours, because we do not want to feel scared anymore!*

Text used in the happy advertisement: *The last two years, we went on a holiday with Orange Tours. We've all felt great for a week and a half! It all started at the perfect flight, because we all had a smile on our face. We weren't able to lock the door in our hotel, but an employee of Orange Tours immediately fixed it for us while he was smiling! We already know that we want the same vacation next year, because it was the best vacation ever! That's why we are booking our vacation at Orange Tours!*

Appendix B



Fictional news stories that influenced the pre-ad emotion (anxiety and happiness)

Mysterie rondom studenten

BloggersNews - mei 2014

De afgelopen maanden zijn er meer dan 20 studenten met ernstige klachten opgenomen in verschillende ziekenhuizen in Amsterdam. De studenten sliepen slecht en sommigen hebben hun vermogen om te praten zelfs volledig verloren. Alle verhalen vertonen een opvallende gelijkenis: in alle gevallen ging het om studenten die op zichzelf woonden. We hebben twee studenten gesproken, de rest was niet in staat te reageren..

Joey (21): "Vlak voordat ik wilde gaan slapen lichtte het scherm van mijn laptop plotseling op. Ik schrok ervan, maar dacht dat het toeval was. De lampen gingen aan en uit en plotseling viel de stroom uit. Ik voelde me niet op mijn gemak. Ik hoorde allemaal rare geluiden en ben uit pure angst in slaap gevallen. Na een uur werd ik wakker omdat ik dacht dat ik zacht gegechel hoorde in de hoek van de kamer. Omdat de lichten het nog niet deden, pakte ik mijn iPhone en maakte ik gebruik van mijn flits om te kijken of ik iets kon zien. Ik zag gelukkig niets en ben weer in slaap gevallen. Toen ik de volgende ochtend weer op mijn telefoon keek zag ik dat ik 's nachts per ongeluk een foto had gemaakt toen ik de flits gebruikte. Toen ik de foto zag ben ik meteen uit het huis gerend en nooit meer teruggekomen.."





Mysterie rondom studenten

BloggersNews - mei 2014

Anne (18): "Rond middernacht was ik aan het webcammen met een studiegenootje van me. Ik twijfelde of ik wilde gaan stappen, omdat ik erg moe was. Tot mijn verbazing begon het scherm van mijn laptop ineens te knippen. Het scherm werkte niet meer, maar het geluid deed het nog wel. Het geluid kraakte een beetje, maar ik hoorde dat mijn vriendin plotseling zei dat ze helemaal niet wist dat ik een kleiner broertje had. Ik begreep niet wat ze bedoelde, maar ik besteedde er verder geen aandacht aan. Toen het scherm plotseling weer aanging stakte mijn hard in mijn keel. Het scherm stond stil en ik zag mezelf op de voorgrond en een klein jongetje in het donker op de achtergrond. Nu begreep ik wat mijn vriendin bedoelde, alleen heb ik helemaal geen broertje.. Toen ik me omdraaide zag ik het jongetje staan en hij keek me met grote ogen aan.. Ik begon te gillen en het jongetje bleef me aankijken en zei 'Sst.. Anders maak je de rest wakker'."

Anne heeft na dit interview geen woord meer gesproken, is gestopt met haar studie en wordt nu behandeld in een psychiatrische kliniek in Delft.



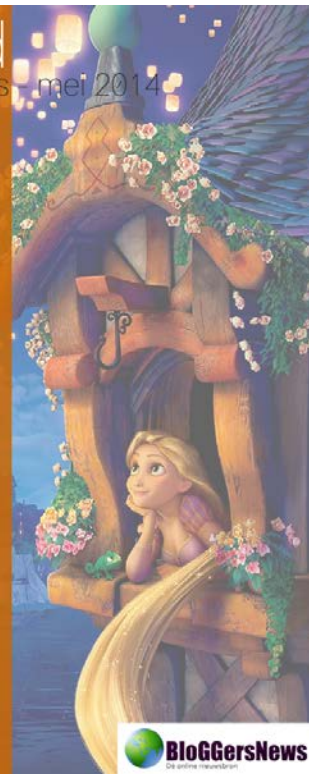
De magie van Disneyland

BloggersNews mei 2014

Het lijkt een scène uit een heerlijke feel good film, maar het volgende verhaal vond vorige week plaats in een volksbuurt in Los Angeles. De hoofdrolspeler is een klein meisje, dat leefde met haar moeder en zieke zusje in een achterstandswijk. De alleenstaande moeder werkte dubbele diensten en verdiende maar net genoeg, omdat veel geld naar de behandeling van het gehandicapte zusje ging. Door de hoge medische kosten liep het meisje altijd in oude kleding en had ze geen geld voor cadeaus of speelgoed. Omdat ze geen geld had voor de bus of een fiets, liep het meisje elke dag meer dan 10 kilometer naar school. Op een dag zag ze dat een man per ongeluk zijn portemonnee liet vallen. De portemonnee zat vol geld, maar in plaats van de inhoud te stelen, rende het meisje met de portemonnee vol geld achter de man aan. Toen de man, een rijke directeur van een groot bedrijf, zijn portemonnee terugkreeg, kreeg hij een brok in zijn keel. Hij zag de kapotte kleren van het meisje en hij vroeg of hij iets kon doen om haar te bedanken. Het meisje gaf aan dat ze zelf niets wilde, maar dat haar gehandicapte zusje altijd al een keer naar Disneyland had gewild. De man was zo geroerd door dit verhaal, dat hij besloot om het meisje te bedanken voor haar eerlijkheid. Hij noteerde het adres en het telefoonnummer van het meisje en beloofde snel contact op te nemen.

Het meisje was dolblij en toen ze die dag thuis kwam wilde ze haar moeder in blijdschap het nieuws vertellen. De moeder deed de deur open met tranen van blijdschap: de man had direct contact opgenomen, en nadat hij het roerende verhaal hoorde gaf hij aan alle medische kosten voor een operatie voor het zusje op zich te nemen. Ook beloofde hij het meisje met drie jaartickets voor Disneyland, waarmee ze een jaar lang gratis naar binnen mochten.

Door de geslaagde operatie kon het gehandicapte zusje na een jaar weer lopen. Ook besloot de man de moeder een goedbetaalde functie in zijn bedrijf te geven, zodat ze meer bij haar kinderen kon zijn en zich geen zorgen hoefde te maken over geld.



BloGgersNews
24 juni 2014

De magie van Disneyland

BloggersNews - mei 2014



BloGgersNews
24 juni 2014

Appendix C

Items of the questionnaire

Questionnaire

Attitude towards the ad: This scale was originally created by Mitchell & Olsen (1977), and used by several scholars (Gardner, 1985; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Mitchell & Olsen, 1981). Holbrook & Batra reported a high reliability of .99. Four bipolar items will be used to indicate the attitude towards the advertisement (seven-point scale).

<i>I dislike the ad</i>	<i>I like the ad</i>
<i>I react favorable to the ad</i>	<i>I react unfavorably to the ad*</i>
<i>I feel positive towards the ad</i>	<i>I feel negative towards the ad*</i>
<i>The ad is bad</i>	<i>The ad is good</i>

Emotional reaction to the ad: This scale was originally created by Ahluwalia & Burnkrant (2004) and was designed to measure the emotional reaction to a certain advertisement. An alpha of .87 was reported. Six unipolar items will be used to indicate the emotional response to the advertisement (nine-point scale).

<i>Sad*</i>	<i>Happy</i>
<i>Frustrated*</i>	<i>Good mood</i>
<i>Cheerful</i>	<i>Bad mood*</i>

Personal involvement with the advertisement: This scale consists of 22 bipolar items and was originally used in a research by Zaichowsky (1985). The scale was abbreviated by multiple scholars, and Zaichowsky herself also used an abbreviated

version of the scale, which consisted of only 10 items. An alpha of .93 was reported. Ten bipolar items will be used to indicate the personal involvement with the advertisement (seven-point scale).

<i>Important</i>	<i>Unimportant*</i>
<i>Boring</i>	<i>Interesting</i>
<i>Relevant</i>	<i>Irrelevant*</i>
<i>Exciting</i>	<i>Unexciting*</i>
<i>Means nothing</i>	<i>Means a lot</i>
<i>Appealing</i>	<i>Unappealing*</i>
<i>Fascinating</i>	<i>Mundane*</i>
<i>Worthless</i>	<i>Valuable</i>
<i>Involving</i>	<i>Uninvolving*</i>
<i>Not needed</i>	<i>Needed</i>

Purchase intention toward the product in the ad: This scale consists of three statements, which assessed the likelihood of a consumer buying the vacation in the ad (if the person was in the market for a vacation). A five-point Likert scale will be used to rate the following statements (based on Baker & Churchill, 1977).

I would like to experience a vacation of Orange Tours.

I would book a vacation of Orange Tours, if I would see one online.

Would you actively search for a vacation of Orange Tours?

Do you think that you could become a client of Orange Tours?

**reverse scaled*

Appendix D

Pretest

Pretest (1)

Happy: Three persons will be looking at a specifically selected *movie* on YouTube which evokes happy emotions, three persons will be asked to read a fictional *news item* with happy stories.

Fear: Three persons will be looking at a specifically selected *movie* on YouTube which evokes anxiety, three persons will be asked to read a fictional *news item* with scary stories*.

* total of 12 persons.

One question: *After viewing this movie / reading this article, how strongly did you feel....?*

1. Happy
2. Anxious

Participants in the pretest will be asked to answer the question using a seven-point Likert Scale (ranging from *not at all* (1) to *very* (7). The medium (movie or news item) which evoked the strongest emotional response will be used in the actual research.

(based on the original scale developed by Williams & Drolet, 2005).

Pretest (2) *completely independent of pretest 1*

Happy: Three persons will be looking at specifically designed advertisement for a vacation, which explicitly mentions happiness.

Fear: Three persons will be looking at specifically designed advertisement for a vacation, which explicitly mentions fear and anxiety.

Sadness: Three persons will be looking at specifically designed advertisement for a vacation, which explicitly mentions sadness.*.

* total of 9 persons.

One question: *Please rate the emotions which are most present in this advertisement.*

1. Happiness / Sadness
2. Anxiety/ Calmness
3. Negative / Positive

Participants in the pretest will be asked to describe the emotions used in the ad by rating antonyms by use a seven-point Likert Scale. The scale was originally designed by Allen & Janiszewski (1989) to measure a subject's affective mood state at a particular point in time.

The results should give a clear difference between the three advertisement (sadness, happiness, anxiety). Also, the sad and anxious advertisements should evoke a negative emotion, if compared with the advertisement using happy emotions. If this is *not* the case, new advertisements will be designed.

Table 9.

Pretest: Mean scores on emotional response (story and movie)

Stimulus material	<i>n</i>	fear	happy	sadness	shame	anger
Fear story	3	4.33	1	1.33	1	1
Happy story	3	1	4.33	1.33	1	1
Fear movie	3	4.67	1	1	1	1
Happy movie	3	1	4.33	1	1	1

Table 10.

Pretest: Mean scores on emotional response (advertisement)

Stimulus material	<i>n</i>	fear	happy	sadness	shame	anger
Ad happy	3	1	4	1	1	1
Ad fear	3	4.33	1.33	1.33	1	1.33
Ad sad	3	1	1	4.67	1.33	1.33

Appendix E

Full demographics of the participants

Table 11.

Complete demographic information of survey respondents

Demographic characteristics	Freq.	%
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	112	49.6
Female	114	50.4
<i>Age</i>		
<18 years old	28	12.4
18-21 years old	80	35.4
22-25 years old	61	27
26-29 years old	50	22.1
30 + years old	7	3.1
<i>Education</i>		
Basisonderwijs	2	.9
VMBO	9	4
HAVO	29	12.8
VWO	10	4.4
MBO	20	8.8
HBO	51	22.6
WO	105	46.5