

GUILT, PRIDE, AND PERSUASION: RETHINKING THE PATHWAY TO
CHARITABLE CONTRIBUTIONS

by

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ABSTRACT

MICHAEL KELLY. GUILT, PRIDE, AND PERSUASION: RETHINKING THE PATHWAY TO CHARITABLE CONTRIBUTIONS.

(Under the direction of DR. JENNIFER AMES STUART)

The conceptualization of the consumer as one who not only does and thinks but also feels has gained increased attention from both academics and practitioners alike in recent years. To better understand the effectiveness of advertisements as well as the consumer motivation for giving, one needs to look at the elements of the ads themselves, the pre-existing emotional states in which the ads were received, as well as the interaction of these two together. This study is the first to assess the differential impact of combining pre-existing emotional states (guilt and pride) with opposing persuasion appeals on consumer motivation to participate in a prosocial behavior. In this study, I propose four competing hypotheses and then perform a 2 (incidental guilt vs. incidental pride) X 2 (guilt appeal vs. pride appeal) experimental design to provide support in favor of one of the hypotheses. The results of this study demonstrate that using positively valenced emotions vs. only negatively valenced emotions is one successful approach to rethinking the pathway to charitable contributions. The findings of this research contribute to the existing literature on affect, persuasion, and prosocial behavior, as well as provide important guidance for practitioners in terms of copywriting, messaging, targeting, and promotion.

DEDICATION

For Manuel and Gustavo, and all those rescue pets both past and present, who fill our hearts and our lives with joy and with love, and who show us humans the true meaning of unconditional love through their everyday actions. Dad is finally done reading and writing; let's go for a walk to the park!

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

“... In the arms of an angel...” The first few lyrics and melancholy chords of Sarah McLachlan’s “Angel” have become synonymous with images of animals in need of adoption who are living in dangerous and pathetic conditions. Since originally filming and releasing the two-minute advertisement with the A.S.P.C.A. in 2006, the ad has generated more than \$30 million for the organization (Strom, 2008). Subsequently, the A.S.P.C.A. teamed up with McLachlan, a proud animal rights activist, to film two additional ads featuring her rendition of “Silent Night” and her song “Answer.” Understanding how this persuasion appeal became so successful in eliciting donations is important for charitable organizations and marketers alike. Specifically, what factors drive the success and effectiveness of persuasion appeals laden with emotional content?

In the wake of an incredibly difficult year, Giving USA reports that Americans donated a record \$471 billion in charitable contributions in 2020, equating to more than \$1.3 billion per day (Stelter, 2021). Per their report, charitable contributions received from individuals and foundations continue to be the two biggest sources of support, representing 87% of all giving, or \$412 billion (Stelter, 2021). Interestingly, giving from both individuals and foundations increased in 2020 as compared to the previous year, despite the financial hardships many experienced (Stelter, 2021). Of the nine sectors that Giving USA tracks, seven saw increases in 2020 as compared to 2019, with the public-society benefit (+15.7%) and environment/animals (+11.6%) sectors showing double-digit growth (Stelter, 2021). These results provide support to the assertion that despite an emotionally and financially challenging year, individual consumers continued to give critical support. However, understanding what influenced consumers to give,

specifically whether their pre-existing affective states played a role in their decision to give, is another important topic for charitable organizations and marketers alike.

While the Giving USA data highlights that charitable giving from individuals and foundations is on the rise, it is a different story for giving from corporations (Stelter, 2021). The report shows that corporate giving, which represents 4% of all giving, or \$16.9 billion, decreased by 6.1% as compared to 2019 (Stelter, 2021). The report attributes this decline to the industries that experienced hardships (travel and transportation, leisure and entertainment) during the pandemic (Stelter, 2021). While it is important to understand what persuaded consumers to continue to give, it is also noteworthy to highlight the importance of corporate giving. Currently, there is an expectation that corporations and brands engage in and sustain cause-related marketing (CRM), where they donate to charitable partners contingent upon consumer transactions:

“Consumer demand for companies to engage in CRM is at an all-time high, with some studies indicating that as many as 90% of consumers want to see companies contributing to social issues (CauseGood 2017). This trend is unlikely to change, as studies show millennial consumers both expect and prefer brands to engage in socially responsible behavior while also taking steps to improve society (Landrum 2017). As such, it is important that marketers not only engage in CRM but also understand how to do so effectively.” (Coleman, 2020)

Thus, it is critical for corporations to engage in and sustain CRM, as well as to effectively leverage the engagement through appeals that bolster their image with consumers (Septianto et al., 2021; Coleman et al., 2020; Baghi et al, 2017; Newman et al., 2017; Zermack et al, 2016). To this end, it is critical for charitable organizations, marketers, and corporations to understand where and when emotional content should be used in persuasion appeals (Basil et al., 2006). Historically, negatively valenced appeals have frequently been used in charitable contribution

contexts to grab the attention of the consumer (Septianto et al., 2019). Continued use of these types of appeals, particularly guilt appeals, can generate negative responses, resentment towards the charity, as well as consumer backlash (Septianto, et al., 2019; Basil et al., 2006). While past research has shown the role that negative emotional appeals can play in prosocial contexts, it is less clear when and how positive affect can be used in this domain, or if two oppositely valenced affects can be used together to produce a better result (Adiguzel et al., 2021; Septianto et al., 2019; Cavanaugh et al., 2015).

My research examines these issues through a novel approach that proposes a new pathway involving guilt *and* pride for marketers to consider when soliciting prosocial behaviors. Building on prior research on how consumers can use matched and unmatched conditions as information to make future decisions (Duhachek et al., 2012; Mukhopadhyay, et al., 2007), this dissertation isolates differential affect-laden persuasion appeals. A consumer's affective state is constantly triggered by the stimuli in the environment, and this has the potential to then affect how they respond to the messages, ads, or experiences they see and have. Specifically, I examine how pre-existing affective state (guilt or pride) and differential persuasion appeals (laden in guilt or pride) interact, and how that interaction impacts subsequent prosocial behaviors. I conceptualize a design of matched and unmatched conditions where the affect either aligns or does not align, resulting in two conditions for each: matched (incidental guilt: guilt appeal; incidental pride: pride appeal) and unmatched (incidental guilt: pride appeal; incidental pride: guilt appeal). For the purposes of this study, I selected guilt and pride, as they are moral self-conscious emotions that provide immediate feedback to us upon self-reflection. Given the context of the study, these oppositely valenced self-conscious emotions were the best fit for what I am setting out to examine. In this study, the prosocial variables are donation intentions and

actual donations (represented by the forfeiture of participants' MTurk fees) to an actual organization dedicated to the prevention of animal cruelty (A.S.P.C.A.).

The proposed study is the first to examine matched and unmatched conditions using two types of affect (incidental and persuasion appeal) of opposing valenced self-conscious emotions (guilt vs pride) in a prosocial behavior context (A.S.P.C.A. donations). I propose a series of plausible results from this experiment; as well as explain the rationale for these results through four competing hypotheses. I perform an experimental design to investigate whether there is support in favor of one of these hypotheses. These findings will contribute to the recent blossoming surge of research on affect (specifically discrete self-conscious emotions) as well as to the research on persuasion (specifically guilt and pride appeals). I look to examine whether the pairing of mixed emotions of opposite valence has the potential to ultimately identify a new pathway to success in soliciting charitable contributions. Consumers are constantly exposed to emotion infused stimuli that provide them with information as they make decisions about future consumption (Ki et al., 2017); thus, the results of this study have important implications from a practitioner standpoint for prosocial behavior and for marketing. To understand why the A.S.P.C.A. "Angel" ad is so effective, as well as why consumers continue to give despite a financially challenging year, one needs to examine not just the elements of the ad itself (i.e., the persuasion appeal) but also the conditions in which the ad was received (i.e., the pre-existing affective state of the consumer at the time of exposure to the persuasion appeal):

"This emotional approach to consumption is drawing more attention from researchers because they regard consumers not only as thinkers and doers but also as feelers."

(Kim et al., 2017)

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Persuasion Appeals

Within the area of affect, there is a subset of literature dedicated specifically to persuasion appeals. For the purposes of my study, I focused on the persuasion appeal research that has examined either a guilt or a pride appeal. Since the early 2000's, guilt and pride appeals have garnered attention in consumer research with at least 30-plus articles published in top tier marketing journals. At a high level, the aim of a persuasion appeal (regardless of affect used) is to evoke the desired emotion and to then persuade consumer behavior, whether that be utilization of a product or a service or the donation of a charitable contribution (Boudewyns et al., 2013). Self-conscious emotions, like guilt and pride, are often used in persuasion appeals because of their key tenets: agency, evaluation, and action. However, the affect used in a persuasion appeal is only one component of the appeal itself. For the appeal to be successful, it must connect with individuals and influence or persuade their behaviors. Consumer research has examined appeals of different affect (fear, happiness, shame, gratitude, and regret) alongside guilt and pride appeals to determine their effectiveness (Septianto et al., 2021, 2021; Septianto et al, 2020, 2020, 2020; Coleman et al., 2020; Septianto et al, 2019; La Ferle et al, 2019; Peloza et al., 2013; Duhachek et al, 2012; Agrawal et al, 2010; Basil et al., 2008; Basil, et al., 2006), their boundaries (or thresholds) (Hibbert et al., 2007), and the consumer behaviors that result from them (Septianto et al., 2021; Septianto et al., 2020; La Ferle et al, 2019; Boudewyns et al., 2013; McKay-Nesbitt et al., 2011; Mukhopadyay et al, 2007; Passyn et al., 2006).

In the practitioner space, guilt appeals are commonly used for health products, financial products, and charitable donations (Basil et al., 2008). Since the early 2000s, guilt appeals have

been studied in the contexts of bystander intervention (LaFerle et al., 2019), unintended CRM/product purchases (hedonic and utilitarian) (Coleman et al., 2020; Baghi et al., 2017; Zermack et al., 2016), environmental sustainability (Pelozza et al., 2013), responsible drinking and antidrinking messages (Duhachek, et al., 2012; Agrawal et al., 2010), charitable giving (Basil et al., 2008; Hibbert et al., 2007; Basil et al., 2006), unintended purchases (Mukhopadyay et al., 2007), and health behaviors (Boudewyns et al., 2013; Passyn et al., 2006). The findings related to charitable giving are of particular interest to our present study. In their 2006 study, Basil et al. finds support for the hypothesis that a sense of responsibility enhances the effectiveness of charitable guilt appeals, thus leading to larger charitable donations (Basil et al., 2006). The authors also find support for their second hypothesis that the presence of others increases a sense of responsibility in the context of charity appeals (Basil et al., 2006). Hibbert et al. examines guilt appeals and charitable giving and finds that the relationship between guilt and donation intention is impacted by persuasion and agent knowledge (Hibbert et al., 2007). As a follow up to their 2006 study, Basil et al. finds that empathy and self-efficacy are two key antecedents to guilt in the context of charitable giving (Basil et al., 2008). All three of these studies provide important implications for marketers looking to design a charitable giving campaign.

Like the larger body of research on pride itself, pride appeals have gained notable momentum in academic research over the last ten years. Pride appeals have been examined in the contexts of CRM (Septianto et al., 2021), sustainable luxury brands and luxury advertising (Septianto et al., 2021; 2020), cost transparency (Septianto et al., 2020), and loyalty programs (Septianto et al., 2019). In addition, pride appeals have been shown to be effective in the sustainability context (Antonetti et al., 2014). Of particular interest to my current study is a 2019

study on pride and compassion appeals and the past performance of a charity (Septianto et al., 2019). This study finds that there is an effect whereby “congruent matching of pride with positive past performance and compassion with negative past performance increases donation allocations. This 'match-up' effect emerges because pride elicits concerns for merit, whereas compassion elicits concerns for need.” (Septianto et al., 2019). This study has important implications for the messaging and targeting of financial information related to charities.

Guilt appeals are used with charitable contributions with such frequency that there is an entire stream of conversation in the literature around their effectiveness, boundaries, saturation, and ethicality (Boudewyns et al., 2013; Basil et al., 2008; Basil et al., 2006; Passyn et al., 2006). Prior consumer research has produced equivocality in terms of which level of appeal is most effective with consumers in charitable contribution contexts (i.e., low intensity vs. moderate intensity vs. high intensity) (Boudewyns et al., 2013; Basil et al., 2008; Basil et al., 2006). The use of an inappropriate level of affect in an appeal risks backfire and backlash resulting in the potential to drive consumers away (Basil et al., 2008). Prior consumer research on persuasion appeals suggests that there is room for contribution, emphasizing the need to understand how persuasion appeals work in different contexts (Boudewyns et al., 2013; Basil et al., 2008; Basil et al., 2006). Prior research discusses the intensity and explicitness of persuasion appeals as ripe grounds for future research. In addition, I propose that understanding the optimal conditions in which an appeal is received (i.e., the pre-existing affective state of the consumer) is just as important as understanding the optimal elements of the ad itself (i.e., the emotional content of the appeal). Perhaps it is not as simple as producing persuasion appeals that are specifically tailored to only one type of self-conscious emotion. What if the emotional content of an appeal laden in one self-conscious affect (a guilt appeal) could successfully persuade consumers to act who are

experiencing a pre-existing affective state laden in another self-conscious affect (pride)? I next discuss the trends in emotion and consumer behavior research (applicable to this study) as well as summarize the consumer research thus far on self-conscious emotions, guilt, pride, and mixed emotions.

2.2 Trends in Emotion and Consumer Behavior Research

In their contribution to Social Psychology: Handbook of Basic Principles, the authors organize contributions to the marketing and consumer behavior literature into four topics: decision making, persuasion, affect, and implicit processing (Johnson et al., 2008). The authors highlight that while the old-school topics of decision making and persuasion have a more tenured history in terms of established practice and contribution, the two new-school topics of affect and implicit processing have experienced a surge of interest in consumer research (Johnson et al., 2008). To objectively quantify this surge, the authors highlight that, “A search of the ISI Web of Knowledge (a social science database) for the terms of ‘consumer’ and ‘affect’ returned 136 articles for the 1985–1994 period and 841 articles for the 1995–2004 period” (Johnson et al., 2008). Reperforming this same search using Business Source Direct (a business database) returns 35 articles for the 1985–1994 period, 56 articles for the 1995–2004 period, 118 articles for the 2005–2014 period, and 52 articles for the six-plus-year period of 2015–2021. These updated search results provide further support for the assertion that affect has and will continue to see a surge of interest in consumer research (Johnson et al., 2008).

Further emphasizing the interest in affect as a research topic, a review of emotions in marketing literature analyzed 340 emotion-related articles published from 2002–2013 in 19 different marketing journals (journals in Marketing, Advertising, Consumer Behavior, Consumer

Psychology, and Retailing) (Gaur et al., 2014). The findings from this review show that 47% (163 of the 340 articles) were published in consumer behavior related journals, 66% (225 of the 340 articles) used exploratory research as their method to study emotion, and 24% (81 of the 340 articles) were coded as studies that examined the development of emotions and their interactions with other consumption factors (Gaur et al., 2014). Despite the volume of articles published in marketing, the authors conclude that emotions are a complex phenomenon that have not yet been fully investigated within the marketing discipline (Gaur et al., 2014). In particular, the authors suggest that: “Marketing scholars also show uncertainty on how emotions work, the amount of influence emotions have, and how best to measure the effectiveness of emotions” (Gaur et al., 2014).

Potentially some of the uncovered certainty and influence related to emotions in the marketing space relates to the approach historically taken to study affect. One limitation of recalled-emotion studies noted by more than one researcher is the fact that the studies focused specifically on emotional valence (positive or negative) versus specific emotions (like happiness, sadness, guilt, regret, shame, pride, etc.) (Adıgüzel et al., 2021; Coleman et al., 2020; Rowe et al., 2019; Septianto et al., 2019; Allard et al., 2015; Cavanaugh et al., 2015; Antonetti et al., 2014; Dahee Han et al., 2014; Duhachek et al., 2012; Hung et al., 2012; Winterich et al., 2011; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007; Schwarz et al., 2007; Passyn et al., 2006). Historically, a second limitation of recalled-emotion studies noted in the literature is the overemphasis on discrete negative emotions and the lack of focus on discrete positive emotions (Winterich et al., 2011). Since the mid 2000’s, researchers in the consumer behavior space have worked to address these two gaps, making improvements in both; yet there is still much to be uncovered (Adıgüzel et al., 2021; Coleman et al., 2020; Rowe et al., 2019; Septianto et al., 2019; Allard et al., 2015;

Cavanaugh et al., 2015; Antonetti et al., 2014; Dahee Han et al., 2014; Duhachek et al., 2012; Hung et al., 2012; Winterich et al., 2011; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007; Passyn et al., 2006).

Specifically, one question that remains to be answered related to discrete emotions is: “How do recalled pride and recalled guilt affect future behavioral choices once they are elicited?” (Passyn et al., 2006).

While the topic of affect has experienced an increased focus from a research standpoint, there has also been an increased focus to better understand prosocial behaviors in the consumer behavior research. The term prosocial behavior has been defined as “encompass[ing] a wide variety of behaviors intended to benefit someone or something other than the self” (Basil et al., 2006). In the marketing literature, the study of prosocial behaviors has included charitable donations, environmentalism and sustainability, volunteerism, cause-related marketing (CRM), and corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Basil et al., 2006). Of the prosocial behaviors, CRM and CSR have seen an increased focus not only in academic research but also in the practitioner space (Baghi et al., 2017; Zermack et al., 2016). This focus has been driven by consumers who are increasingly demanding ethically produced goods and services (i.e., how they are sourced, how they are produced, the treatment of the laborers used to produce them, the condition of the environment after their production, etc.) (Septianto et al., 2021; Coleman et al., 2020; Newman et al., 2017). Historically, the role of persuasion (emotional) appeals has been successful in eliciting support from consumers for prosocial causes (Adıgüzel et al., 2021; Septianto et al., 2019; Cavanaugh, et al., 2015; Tangney et al., 2007; Basil et al., 2006). However, these emotional appeals have more frequently used negatively valenced emotions, like guilt, and what is less clear is the role those positive emotions, like pride, or even a mixture of the two (guilt +

pride) could play in eliciting support from consumers (Adıgüzel et al., 2021; Banks, et al. 2021; Septianto et al., 2019; Cavanaugh, et al., 2015; Tangney et al., 2007; Basil et al., 2006).

This research looks to help address the questions of uncertainty and influence highlighted by Guar, et al. by reviewing two discrete self-conscious emotions (guilt and pride) in a consumer behavior context. Using an exploratory (experimental) method that pairs incidental affect with persuasion appeals, this research will examine the interaction between these two and the consumption factors that result. Specifically, I will look to see how incidental affect and persuasion appeals interact to drive charitable-contribution intentions as well as actual donation behaviors in a prosocial context.

2.3 Self-Conscious Emotion

For the purposes of this study, the focus will be on discrete emotions. To define discrete emotion, I look to the work of Russell, Feldman, and Barrett (1999) (Russell et al., 1999). For purposes of conceptualization, the key tenets of discrete emotion include being evoked by and directed at an object, enduring only a limited amount of time, and involving behavioral consequences (Russell et al., 1999). Alternatively, “core affect refers to the most elementary consciously accessible feelings that are not necessarily directed at anything” (Russell et al., 1999; Orth et al., 2020). Specifically, this research will be looking at two self-conscious emotions of opposite valence, guilt (negative) and pride (positive), and their consumer behavior related consequences. Self-conscious emotions, like guilt, pride, embarrassment, regret, and shame, involve self-assessment either against one’s own internal standards or against how one perceives themselves as being evaluated by others (Hung et al., 2012).

The published literature on guilt and pride in the consumer behavior context reflects a diverse examination of how these two emotions can be conceptualized. Both guilt and pride have been studied in all three forms of affect: integral (directly linked to the object of judgement or decision), incidental (source unrelated to object being evaluated), and task (responses elicited by judgement or decision task itself) (Johnson et al., 2008). In some studies, the researchers have explored guilt or pride in more than one form, i.e., as integral, incidental, and/or task, within the same study to assist in building their case for generalizability. In addition, there are multiple studies in mixed emotions that have examined guilt and pride together, or guilt and pride individually alongside other types of affect (For a summary of the mixed emotion literature, see Table 1).

The literature on guilt and consumer behavior spans a variety of contexts that include luxury fashion (Ki et al., 2017), the service industry (Pounders, et al., 2018), vice vs. virtue in food consumption (Goldsmith et al., 2012), bystander intervention (La Ferle et al., 2019), environmentalism (Baek et al., 2017), health messages (Boudewyns, et al., 2013), antidrinking messages (Duhacheck et al., 2012; Agrawal et al., 2010), unplanned purchases (Atalay et al., 2011), self-improvement products (Allard et al, 2015), and charitable donations (Zermack et al, 2019). Since 2010, the quantify of studies examining pride and consumer behavior has seen a surge in the Marketing field's top tier journals. Pride and consumer behavior have been examined in the contexts of sporting events (Madrigal et al, 2008), location to brand transference (Orth et al., 2020), sustainability (Septianto et al., 2021), CRM (Septianto et al., 2021), loyalty programs (Septianto et al., 2019), and production (Fuchs et al., 2015), as well as in similar contexts mentioned earlier with guilt, service industry (Lastner et al., 2016), donation behaviors (Septianto et al., 2019), and consumption (food) (Winterich et al., 2011). When used together in

a mixed emotion study, guilt and pride have been examined in the contexts of sustainability (Rowe et al, 2019; Rowe et al., 2017; Antonetti et al., 2014), vice versus virtue (Siddiqui et al, 2020; Hung et al., 2012), CRM (Coleman et al., 2020), brands (Newman, et al., 2018), and unintended purchases (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007).

2.4 Guilt

In the consumer behavior literature, most of the studies look at the work of Baumeister, Stillwell, & Heatherton, Tangney & Dearing, and Roseman (Tangney et al., 2007; Tangney et al., 2002; Roseman et al., 1996; Baumeister et al., 1995) for the conceptualization of guilt (Duke et al., 2019; Bahi et al., 2017; Allard et al., 2015; Antonetti et al., 2014). Guilt is a negative self-conscious emotion that comes about because of one's negative evaluation of the self (Tangney et al., 2002; Roseman et al., 1996; Baumeister et al., 1995). Specifically, guilt is conceptualized as “develop[ing] from the awareness of not having lived up to some important self-standard of behavior regarding what is deemed to be good, correct, appropriate, or desirable” (Allard et al., 2015). That self-standard can be rooted in internal moral, societal, or ethical perspectives (Kugler et al., 1992). A key tenet of self-conscious emotions is that they are action oriented; specifically, the negative self-conscious evaluation arising from guilt triggers the self to want to act to repair or resolve the negative evaluation (Tangney et al., 2007; Tangney et al., 2002; Baumeister et al., 1995). Baumeister summarizes that “Guilt acts as a feedback function by prompting people to reflect on their wrongdoing and to consider how to avoid similar aversive outcomes in the future” (Baumeister et al. 2007). This self-reflection results in individuals acting to repair or to resolve the evaluation, as well as to prevent any further worsening of their mood, which highlights the emotion regulation component of guilt (Zermack et al., 2016; Allard et al., 2015; Tangney et al., 2007;). In addition, guilt has been described as adaptive because of its action-

oriented response aimed at “repair (e.g., return a product that you cannot afford), resolution (e.g., donate money to a charity to feel better), and prevention (e.g., commit to not making the same mistake again)” (Tangney et al., 2007; Tangney et al., 2002; Soscia et al., 2007). The different classifications of guilt (intrapersonal or self-focused, interpersonal or other-focused, anticipatory, reactive or consequential, existential or social responsibility) discussed in prior literature highlights the genesis or root of the emotion by naming in its description (Tangney et al., 2002).

Previous consumer research demonstrates the positive influence of guilt in reducing consumption of unhealthy food (Mishra et al., 2011; Mohr et al., 2012), antidrinking campaigns (Duhachek et al., 2012; Agrawal et al., 2010), promoting charitable donations (Basil et al., 2008, 2006; Hibbert et al., 2007), influencing future intentions to engage in sustainable consumption (Antonetti et al., 2014), influencing the use of style consumption (Ki et al. 2017), dissuading consumer complaints and consumer negative word of mouth (WOM) (Soscia et al., 2007), and influencing repurchase intentions in instances where a purchase was not made after an initial interaction with a salesperson (Dahl et al., 2005). In a hedonic context, prior research has shown that guilt exhibits an influence to reduce consumption (Bahi et al., 2017; Mohr et al., 2012; Agrawal et al., 2010; Mishra et al., 2011; Kivetz et al., 2006; Kivetz et al., 2002). Prior consumer research has examined the role of individuality in emotional responses, particularly how some consumers are more guilt sensitive than others. As a result, guilt can serve as a barrier to hedonic consumption for these individuals (Zermack et al., 2016). Exploring methods that allow for the alleviation of guilt for consumers, specifically for highly guilt prone sensitive consumers, is a critical and worthwhile exercise (Zermack et al., 2016).

2.5 Pride

The consumer behavior literature often cites the work of Tracy, Robins and Williams (Tracy et al., 2007) for the conceptualization of pride (Orth et al., 2020; Septianto et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2018; Wilcox et al., 2011; Antonetti et al., 2014; Winterich et al., 2011; Wilcox, et al., 2011). Pride is a positive self-conscious emotion that arises from achievements attributed to one's abilities or efforts (Tracy et al., 2007). The experience of pride can generate from a variety of places ranging from important or even life-changing events (e.g., graduating from college) to everyday occurrences (e.g., receiving a compliment) (Wilcox et al., 2011; Tracy et al., 2007). In comparison with other positive emotions (joy, happiness, enchantment, etc.), pride differentiates itself by being a more cognitively complex emotion (due to the appraisal process that assesses whether the self has achieved or made progress toward an important objective) and by its increased focused on self (whereas other emotions can be experienced without focusing on the self) (Tracy et al., 2007). Like guilt, the different classifications of pride are termed after their genesis, particularly doing vs. being (Yang et al., 2018): "Authentic pride arises from the positive outcome that is ascribed to internal, unstable and controllable causes ("I did it well because I devoted a lot of effort on it"), whereas hubristic pride results from the positive outcome that is ascribed to internal, stable and uncontrollable causes ("I did well because I am great")" (Yang et al., 2018). Like guilt, a key differentiator for pride as a self-conscious emotion is its orientation towards action, specifically: "when feeling proud people feel an incentive to pursue further action" (the motivational hypothesis of pride, Williams et al., 2008). The two types of pride typically discussed in the regulatory focus theory literature further highlight pride's orientation towards action: promotion pride (experienced in response to accomplishments) and prevention pride (experienced in response to the fulfillment of duties and obligations) (Pham et al., 2020).

As noted earlier, consumer research on pride published in top-tier journals has experienced a surge over the last ten years. Unlike guilt, most of these studies examine pride alongside other emotions in a mixed emotion design. Outside of studies involving mixed emotions that included pride (discussed later in this paper), the consumer research has examined hubristic and authentic pride, distinct construal levels, and global/local appraisal tendencies (Yang et al., 2018) as well as authentic pride and unethical behavior (Septianto et al., 2020). In addition, pride has been examined in the contexts of consumer responses to upcycled and recycled luxury products (Adıgüzel et al., 2021), authentic/hubristic pride and cost transparency (Septianto et al., 2020), and the role of promotion/prevention pride in authenticity and exclusivity appeals in luxury advertising (Septianto et al., 2020).

In summary, the opposite valenced self-conscious emotions of guilt and pride uniquely distinguish themselves from other emotions through self-evaluation, internalized standards, and action. Guilt arises when an individual assesses that an internalized standard has not been met; while pride arises when an individual assesses that an internalized standard has been met. Each of these emotions motivates action in relation to an internalized standard. A key tenet for both guilt and pride are the focus on the self, i.e., agency is a critical tenet of both.

2.6 Guilt and Pride vs. Other Emotions

“... A key distinction among emotions is their ability to produce constructive action; emotions that do not make people feel accountable produce avoidance or no actions, while emotions that make people feel responsible produce approach actions and behavior.” (Passyn et al., 2006)

Thus far, the discussion on self-conscious emotions has focused on just guilt and pride.

As discussed earlier, the key tenets of these emotions (agency, evaluation, and action) highlighted them to be a strong fit for the purposes of this study. Additionally, guilt and pride are

moral self-conscious emotions that provide immediate and salient feedback during self-evaluation, which further highlights their fit for this study. Lastly, researchers have frequently utilized guilt and pride, as well as guilt appeals and pride appeals, in their consumer research due to the key characteristics highlighted above. For the purposes of this study, I selected guilt and pride (as well as guilt and pride appeals) because they are oppositely valenced self-conscious emotions that involve agency, evaluation, morality, and action, and have been studied enough in consumer research to have a base on which to build through this study.

The main difference between guilt and pride is that “while guilt is experienced in cases of goal incongruence, pride is caused by goal congruent events” (Antonetti et al., 2014). To assist in answering my research question, it is helpful to review and understand how these two self-conscious emotions have performed alongside other self-conscious emotions of similar or opposite valence, as well as alongside other non-self-conscious emotions of similar or opposite valence. Review of the mixed emotion literature in consumer research also assists in creating a successful, effective design to help answer my research question. Table 1 summarizes the published consumer research literature on mixed emotions involving guilt, pride, or both.

Since 2010, consumer research has examined guilt alongside negatively valenced emotions (shame, regret, anger, sadness, embarrassment, envy, unhappiness, and fear) as well as positively valenced emotions (happiness and pleasure), with guilt and shame (both self-conscious emotions) being examined alongside one another most frequently (Duke et al., 2019; La Ferle et al., 2019; Pounders et al., 2018; Baek et al., 2017; Ki et al., 2017; Zemack et al., 2016; Allard et al., 2015; Dahee Han et al., 2014; Boudewyns et al., 2013; Duhachek et al., 2012; Goldsmith et al., 2012; Atalay et al., 2011; Agrawal et al., 2010). Consumer research has examined pride alongside positively valenced emotions (authenticity, compassion, contentment, enchantment,

gratitude, happiness, hope, hopefulness, and love) as well as negatively valenced emotions (anger and shame), with pride and gratitude being examined alongside one another most frequently (Septianto et al., 2021 (2); Septianto et al., 2019 (2); Orth et al., 2020; Lastner et al., 2016; Cavanaugh et al., 2015; Fuchs et al., 2015; Winterich et al., 2011; Madrigal, 2008). Since the mid 2000's, the top-tier journals in Marketing have published at least ten mixed-emotion studies, where guilt and pride were studied alongside one another; of those, three of the studies also included embarrassment, joy, sorrow, excitement, happiness, or shame (Coleman et al., 2020; Siddiqui et al., 2020; Rowe et al., 2019; Lunardo et al., 2018; Newman et al., 2018; Rowe et al., 2017; Antonetti et al., 2014 (2); Hung et al., 2012; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). Using the format that Septianto et al. uses in their examination of pride, happiness, and customer loyalty programs, Table 1 below summarizes the emotions, context, and key findings of the studies highlighted above (Septianto et al., 2019). Next, a brief overview of the consistent themes observed in the mixed emotion literature with regards to guilt and pride and other emotions (both self-conscious and non-self-conscious emotions) is presented.

Prior consumer research on guilt and pride highlights what differentiates them from other negative and positive emotions. Specifically, “guilt is linked to specific actions that involve actual or perceived harm” to either others or to the self (Baumeister et al., 1994). Unlike shame, unhappiness, or sadness, “guilt is associated with a sharpened focus on the consequences of a specific behavior rather than a broader, more global evaluation of the self” (Duke et al, 2019; Tracy et al., 2004). Emotions like anger (and gratitude) arise from the attribution of actions of others (both anger and gratitude are other-caused or other-focused emotions), while fear arises from circumstances outside of one's control (Septianto et al., 2021; Duke et al., 2019). In contrast, “guilt is a self-caused emotion resulting from a cognitive appraisal regarding one's own

actions and is similar in this respect to pride or shame” (Tracy et al, 2004; Roseman et al, 1984). Antonetti et al. notes that the “internal attribution of the event appraised is one of the key criteria differentiating guilt and pride from other emotions” (Antonetti et al., 2014; Dahee Han et al., 2014).

As discussed earlier, the action-orientation of both guilt and pride is routinely highlighted in prior literature in comparison to other emotions:

“Overall, it is well established that negative emotions, and guilt, in particular, can act as mechanisms for action to avoid or control for future occurrences of negative affect” (Peter et al., 2012)

“As a result, feelings of pride motivate individual behavior to carry on achieving their goals and gaining the associated feelings of pride” (Peter et al., 2012)

“In addition, despite having a different valence, both guilt and pride are considered to be key motivators of behavior (Tracy et al., 2007), making them relevant and important to examine in CRM advertising” (Coleman et al., 2020).

Prior consumer research highlights certain positive emotions have a positive influence on indulgence (happiness) and consumption (enchantment), while others (contentment) influence rest and dampen the urge for activity (Orth et al., 2020). Interestingly, this study views action as so important that it reviews other emotions in comparison to pride in terms of activation (Orth et al., 2020).

In addition to the unique features discussed above, consumer research has examined how coping orientations and techniques for guilt and pride differ from other emotions (Lundardo et al., 2018; Saintives et al., 2016; Duhacheck et al., 2012). Consumer research has also examined the role of self-efficacy as it interacts with both guilt and pride (Coleman et al., 2020; Basil et al., 2008). Specifically, both guilt and pride, as self-conscious emotions, can be associated with feelings of high self-efficacy. When self-efficacy is high for someone who is feeling guilty, it induces responses and coping mechanisms towards resolution that differ from other negative

emotions (Duhachek et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2004), whereas self-efficacy plays the role of mediator in the effectiveness of pride appeals for CRM advertising (Coleman et al., 2020).

Lastly, prior consumer research highlights the complexity associated with guilt and pride as they involve more resources (than other non-agency focused emotions) to process through the self-appraisal and self-evaluation components involved (Tracy, et al., 2004).

2.7 Mixed Emotions Literature Summary

Table 1: Summary of Mixed Emotion Literature

Citation	Emotions	Context	Findings
Septianto, F., Seo, Y., & Errmann, A. C. (2021)	Pride, Gratitude	Sustainable Luxury Brands	“The pride appeal increases eWOM intentions by heightening the luxury dimension of sustainable luxury brands, whereas featuring the gratitude appeal increases eWOM intentions by heightening the sustainability dimension of sustainable luxury brands.”
Septianto, F., & Garg, N. (2021)	Pride, Gratitude	CRM - Hedonic vs. Utilitarian Product (Water, Chocolate)	“Results show that gratitude (vs. pride) increases the likelihood of purchasing a product with a donation-based promotion. This effect is attenuated when the product is hedonic (but not utilitarian) in nature.”
Coleman, J. T., Royne, S. M. B., & Pounders, K. R. (2020)	Guilt, Pride	CRM Advertising (Smart Phone App with fictitious charitable organization)	“Pride appeals are effective for individuals with promotion regulatory orientations; however, the effectiveness of guilt appeals does not differ based on regulatory orientation”
Orth, U. R., Crouch, R. C., Bruwer, J., & Cohen, J. (2020)	Pride, Contentment, Enchantment, Happiness	Place Emotions, New Brand (of bottled water)	“Feelings of contentment, enchantment, happiness, and pride that consumers associate with a place differentially influence their intention to purchase products from there.”
Siddiqui, R. A., Ling, C., & May, F. (2020)	Guilt, Pride, Shame	Vice vs. Virtue (Spend vs. Save, Dairy Queen vs. Subway)	“Reminders of one's middle name lead to increased guilt and decreased preference for indulgent consumption, as well

			as an increase in virtuous behavior.”
Duke, K. E., & Amir, O. N. (2019)	Guilt, Shame, Regret, Sadness, (Un)happiness, Fear	Online Roleplay	“Temporally separating a consumer's initial decision to perform a guilt-inducing action from its actual enactment reduces the guilt felt while acting.”
La Ferle, C., Muralidharan, S., & Kim, E. (Anna). (2019)	Guilt, Shame	Bystander Intervention	“Ads featuring emotional appeals strengthened reporting intention more than control ads did.”
Rowe, Z. O., Wilson, H. N., Dimitriu, R., Charnley, F. J., & Lastrucci, G. (2019)	Guilt, Pride	Sustainability	“Recalled pride can increase Sustainable-purchase intentions compared with a neutral recall, while recalled guilt does not significantly differ from the neutral recall.”
Septianto, F., An, J., Chiew, T. M., Paramita, W., & Tanudharma, I. (2019)	Pride, Happiness	Loyalty Programs	“Pride and happiness can similarly increase repurchase intentions following a frequency reward program; however, only pride (vs. happiness) differentially increases repurchase intentions following a customer tier program.”
Septianto, F., & Tjiptono, F. (2019)	Pride, Compassion	Donation Behavior	“Congruent matching of pride with positive past performance and compassion with negative past performance increases donation allocations.”
Lunardo, R., & Saintives, C. (2018)	Guilt, Pride	Service Industry (Uber, Erotic Services)	“Effects of guilt on the coping strategies of mental disengagement and positive reappraisal are moderated by pride.”
Newman, K. P., & Brucks, M. (2018)	Guilt, Pride	Brands (Nike)	“Higher self-brand overlap individuals exposed to positive (negative) moral CSR behavior conduct vicarious moral licensing (cleansing) behaviors unless an intervention to correct these effects occurs.”
Pounders, K. R., Moulard, J. G., & Babin, B. J. (2018)	Guilt, Anger	Service Industry (Hair Stylist)	“Affective and normative commitment are intermediate e-motivations, mediating the effect of guilt on re-patronage intention, but that these e-motivations differ depending on the strength of the customer's commercial friendship with the service provider.”

Baek, T. H., & Yoon, S. (2017)	Guilt, Shame	Pro-Environment (Water Conservation, Recycling)	“Guilt (or shame) paired with a gain-framed (or loss-framed) message is more persuasive in fostering eco-friendly attitude and behavioral intention.”
Ki, C., Lee, K., & Kim, Y.-K. (2017)	Guilt, Pleasure	Luxury (Fashion)	“First, style consumption is discovered as a pleasure-enhancing and guilt-reducing mode of luxury consumption. Second, consumers can offset guilty feelings with greater experience of pleasure from luxury consumption.”
Rowe, Z. O., Wilson, H. N., Dimitriu, R. M., Breiter, K., & Charnley, F. J. (2017)	Guilt, Pride	Sustainability	“Consumers with higher levels of self-accountability are more likely to have their purchase decisions influenced by anticipated feelings of pride from a sustainable purchase, with guilt also appearing to play a lesser role.”
Lastner, M. M., Folse, J. A. G., Mangus, S. M., & Fennell, P. (2016)	Pride, Gratitude	Service Industry (Restaurant, Hotel)	<p>“Following a service failure appraised as a less desirable outcome, gratitude arose when the service provider’s recovery was perceived as being benevolently offered.</p> <p>Following a less desirable service outcome (but that was also expected), pride was elicited when the customer rather than the service provider engaged in recovery actions.”</p>
Zemack, R. Y., Rabino, R., Cavanaugh, L. A., & Fitzsimons, G. J. (2016)	Guilt, Sadness, Happiness	Charitable Donations	“The findings show that adding charitable donations to utilitarian products has no impact on their appeal, while adding charitable donations to hedonic products increases their appeal, particularly for individuals with high guilt-sensitivity.”
Allard, T., & White, K. (2015)	Guilt, Shame, Embarrassment, Sadness, Envy	Self-Improvement (Fitness, Happy Tea, Sleep Sheets)	“Guilt leads to preferences for products enabling self-improvement, even in domains unrelated to the original source of the guilt.”
Cavanaugh, L.A., Bettman, J.R., & Luce, M.F. (2015)	Pride, Love, Hope, Compassion	Prosocial Behavior	“Specific positive emotions do not universally increase prosocial behavior but, rather, encourage different types of prosocial behavior.”

Fuchs, C., Schreier, M., & van Osselaer, S. M. J. (2015)	Pride, Happiness, Contentment, Love, Authenticity	Production (Handmade vs. Machine-made)	“This effect is, to an important extent, driven by perceptions that handmade products symbolically ‘contain love.’ The love account is validated by controlling for alternative value drivers of handmade production (effort, product quality, uniqueness, authenticity, and pride).”
Antonetti, P., & Maklan, S. (2014)	Guilt, Pride	Sustainability (Environmental and Social)	“Impact of pride does not appear to be lower than the feelings exerted by guilt on increased intentions to buy ethical products in the future.”
Antonetti, P., & Maklan, S. (2014)	Guilt, Pride	Sustainability (Environmental and Social)	“Feelings of guilt and pride, activated by a single consumption episode, can regulate sustainable consumption by affecting consumers' general perception of effectiveness.”
Dahee Han, Duhachek, A., & Agrawal, N. (2014)	Guilt, Shame	Construal Levels	“Guilt’s tendency to draw behavior-specific appraisals activates local appraisal tendencies and endows lower construal levels, whereas shame’s tendency to implicate the entire self activates global appraisal tendencies and endows consumers with higher construal levels.”
Boudewyns, V., Turner, M. M., & Paquin, R. S. (2013)	Guilt, Shame	Health Messages (STDs)	“Shame was correlated with both anger and perceived manipulative intent, whereas guilt was not. Participants who viewed the shame appeal reported higher levels of shame, anger, and perceived manipulative intent”
Duhachek, A., Agrawal, N., & Han, D. (2012)	Guilt, Shame	Antidrinkng Messages	“Guilt appeals are more effective when paired with gain frames, whereas shame appeals are more effective when paired with loss frames.”
Goldsmith, K., Cho, E. K., & Dhar, R. (2012)	Guilt, Pleasure	Vice vs. Virtue (Candy)	“The activation of guilt, a negative emotion, enhances the pleasure experienced from hedonic consumption.”
Hung, I. W., & Mukhopadhyay, A. (2012)	Guilt, Pride, Embarrassment, Joy, Sorrow, Excitement	Vice vs. Virtue (Partying vs. Studying)	“In a situation that elicits emotions, greater attention to the self (if using an observer's perspective) leads to greater intensity of self-conscious emotions such as pride, guilt,

			and embarrassment, whereas greater attention to the situation (if using an actor's perspective) leads to greater intensity of hedonic emotions such as joy, sorrow, and excitement.”
Atalay, A. S., & Meloy, M. G. (2011)	Guilt, Regret	Planned, Unplanned Purchases	“Retail therapy has lasting positive impacts on mood – feelings of regret and guilt are not associated with the unplanned purchases made to repair a bad mood.”
Winterich, K. P., & Haws, K. L. (2011)	Pride, Hopefulness, Happiness	Consumption (M&Ms vs. Raisins)	“Participants experiencing a future-focused positive emotion (i.e., hopefulness) consume less unhealthy food and have lower preferences for unhealthy snacks than those in a past- or present-focused emotional state (i.e., pride, happiness).”
Agrawal, N., & Duhachek, A. (2010)	Guilt, Shame	Antidrink Messages	“Message frames that elicited the same emotion as the one primed incidentally (i.e., compatible frames) were less effective in that they led to greater intentions to drink and greater consumption than ad frames that elicited a different emotion (i.e., an incompatible frame).”
Madrigal, R. (2008)	Pride, Anger, Shame, Gratitude	Sporting Events	“Appraisal is a more efficient predictor of emotion than attribution – appraisal also mediates the effect of attribution on the negative emotions, but only partial mediation was found for the positive emotions.”
Mukhopadhyay, A., & Johar, G. V. (2007)	Guilt, Pride, Happiness	Unintended Purchases	“Buying can cause happiness tempered with guilt, while not buying causes pride. Respondents who had bought at time 1 subsequently prefer happiness appeals to pride appeals, while those who had refrained prefer pride appeals.”
Soscia, I. (2007)	Guilt, Pride, Happiness, Gratitude, Sadness	Weight Gain, Fitness	“Emotions predict different specific types of post-consumption behaviors and that they are elicited by appraisals - Gratitude but not happiness, predicts repurchase intention and positive word of mouth. By contrast, guilt inhibits

			complaint behaviors and negative word of mouth.”
Kivetz, R., & Keinan, A. (2006)	Guilt, Regret	Vice vs. Virtue	“Greater temporal separation between a choice and its assessment enhances the regret (or anticipated regret) of virtuous decisions (e.g., choosing work over pleasure). In addition, greater temporal perspective attenuates emotions of indulgence guilt but accentuates wistful feelings of missing out on the pleasures of life.”

2.8 Conceptual Framework

Having discussed the background of persuasion appeals, self-conscious emotions, guilt, and pride, I now turn to the theoretical framework of my study. The theoretical framework draws on insights from the Feelings as Information Theory and from the Cognitive Appraisal Theory (Pham, 1998; Schwarz et al, 1983, 2003; Lazarus, 1991). Per the Feelings-as-Information theory, “individuals attend to their feelings as a source of information, with different types of feelings providing different types of information” (Schwarz et al, 1983, 2003). In the context of my study, I anticipate that the two discrete emotions, guilt and pride, will provide different types of information based upon their individual appraisal patterns. Per the appraisal theory, “emotional responses are created as a result of one’s evaluations of an event” (Lazarus, 1991). Reflecting on past experiences influences individuals to evaluate whether they violated an internalized standard or achieved a goal, as well as the associated emotions with that experience (Rowe et al., 2019). Based upon the evaluation of the violated standard or attained goal (and the associated emotions), individuals then use this information to make judgments that inform future behavior (Rowe et al., 2019; Hasford et al., 2015; Levine et al., 2012).

In their study on the framing and effectiveness of responsible drinking messages, the authors set out to better understand how incidental emotions might interact with message-induced guilt (Duhachek et al., 2012). Specifically, the authors wanted to examine:

“... how consumers process emotion-compatible advertisements given their need to reduce the unpleasant emotions of shame and guilt. We directly examine whether shame-inducing (guilt-inducing) ad frames are more effective for consumers already experiencing shame (guilt) than incompatible ad frames that elicit another negative emotion.” (Duhachek et al., 2012)

In their review of the literature, the authors highlight that the prior research was equivocal on how compatibility would affect message processing, i.e., are compatible (incidental guilt to guilt

appeal) or incompatible (incidental guilt to shame appeal) ad frames more effective (Duhachek et al., 2012). While prior research had found support for compatible ad frames leading to the facilitation of message processing (DeSteno et al., 2004), other studies had advanced the idea of emotional overload where individuals “guard their already negative mood against further deterioration” (Raghunathan et al., 2002) in an effort to resist increased guilt and an even more intense negative self-evaluation (Duhachek et al., 2012). Duhachek et al. advances a new mechanism, termed defensive processing, to explain why “compatible messages may be less persuasive because people are motivated to repair their negative emotion, not exacerbate it by accepting the message” (Duhachek et al., 2012).

In their study of shame and guilt appeals, Duhachek et al. predicts that “when the ad-induced emotion matches the incidental emotion being experienced, compatible frames will generate defensive processing and consequently will be less effective than incompatible frames” (Duhachek et al., 2012). In addition to finding support for this hypothesis, the authors also find support for their prediction that a compatible message is likely to be less persuasive than a message processed by people not experiencing a negative emotion at all (i.e., a no-emotion-prime control condition) (Duhachek et al., 2012). The authors further conclude that their findings will be supported so long as the focus does not shift from the self to other; otherwise, a compatible appeal is likely to be more persuasive than an incompatible appeal (Duhachek et al., 2012). The theoretical support for these hypotheses is that:

“Because shame and guilt are negative self-referential emotion states that people are highly motivated to repair (emotion repair goal), we hypothesize that compatible appeals will be less persuasive than incompatible appeals. Specifically, people experiencing shame (guilt) are likely to guard against information that may induce more shame (guilt). Thus, these people are likely to resist the shame-inducing (guilt-inducing) message frame to avoid exacerbating their negative emotion. Because the guilt-inducing appeals are not likely to exacerbate shame and the shame-inducing appeals are not likely to increase

guilt, we predict that shame-laden people will not resist the guilt-inducing appeal and that guilt-laden people will not resist the shame-inducing appeal.” (Duhachek et al., 2012)

Building on the support and findings of this study, I examined two self-conscious emotions of opposite valence (guilt, pride) to determine how they interacted with persuasion appeals when they are primed through recall exercises. For those individuals who are first primed with incidental guilt, I anticipated that the individuals’ appraisal of the recall exercise (i.e., describing two experiences in which they felt intense guilt) will result in an emotional response of feeling guilty. Logically, the individual will attend to their feelings and want to seek emotional repair or resolution to help mitigate the felt guilt. Using their feelings as a source of information, I anticipated that the solicited prosocial response (a donation to the A.S.P.C.A) will serve as an opportunity to mitigate some of the felt guilt. The main motivation for my experiment is to assess which condition drives the largest intention to donate (as well as the highest count of actual donations). Specifically, I am looking to evaluate which appeal will persuade those in a guilty state (where the consumer has been primed with guilt-recall exercises) to be more likely to donate to a prosocial cause (A.S.P.C.A.): a guilt appeal (matched condition) or a pride appeal (unmatched condition).

In the context of mixed emotions and persuasion appeals, pride has also been studied, specifically alongside happiness. Prior consumer research has found that “respondents who had bought at Time 1 subsequently prefer happiness appeals to pride appeals at Time 2, while those who had refrained prefer pride appeals” (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). Essentially, the restraint of behavior at the unintended purchase (T1) results in an emotional response of pride. This response is then used as information when the consumer reviews and evaluates different ads at T2. Instead of using a recall event as an initial trigger, this study uses a decision to buy or not to buy at an unintended purchase opportunity and shows how that decision can impact subsequent

behaviors: “We demonstrate that buying can cause happiness tempered with guilt, while not buying causes pride” (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007).

For those individuals who are first primed with incidental pride, I anticipated that the individuals’ appraisal of the recall exercise (i.e., describing two experiences in which they felt intense pride) would result in an emotional response of feeling proud. Due to their emotional appraisal, the individual should attend to their feelings and should have felt more accountable as well as more empowered to take action to prevent problems (Passyn et al., 2006). In addition, DeSteno’s motivational hypothesis proposes that “Pride motivates individuals to pursue their goals and therefore remain engaged in their consumption” (DeSteno et al., 2008). Using their feelings as a source of information, I anticipated that the solicited prosocial response (a donation to the A.S.P.C.A) will serve as an opportunity to take action to prevent a problem. Secondly, using their feelings as source of information should also determine that the solicited prosocial response serves as an additional opportunity to achieve an incremental success (i.e., do one more thing to be proud of). Here again, the main motivation for my experiment was to assess which condition drives the largest intention to donate (as well as the highest count of actual donations). Specifically, I looked to evaluate which appeal will persuade those in a proud state (where the consumer has been primed with pride recall exercises) to be more likely to donate to a prosocial cause (A.S.P.C.A.): a pride appeal (matched condition) or a guilt appeal (unmatched condition).

In summary, prior research has produced a mix of results on the topic of emotional stimuli and persuasion appeals. Logically, one might posit that “positive emotions lead to more positive evaluations and negative emotions lead to more negative evaluations” (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). However, prior consumer research does not consistently favor this assertion. Exploration of this topic to identify the contexts, conditions, and boundaries where there is

conclusive support is needed. This study will help address this call to action. At least two prior studies have utilized a similar approach in their methods to examine negative self-conscious emotions (guilt, shame) and persuasion appeals of negative valence (Duhachek et al., 2012), as well as unintended purchases and persuasion appeals of positive valence (pride, happiness) (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). However, while my method of examining the topic is like past research, my study provided novel contributions in this area. First, my study employed the use of oppositely valenced self-conscious emotions (guilt vs. pride) in a prosocial behavior context (donations to the A.S.P.C.A.). Both present a novel context to the literature that has not yet been examined. Second, my study employs the use of existential guilt. Per Hibbert et al., “existential (or social responsibility) guilt is experienced when one feels better off, or more fortunate than others, resulting in feelings of empathy (e.g., when seeing a homeless person)” (Hibbert et al., 2007). The use of this type of guilt in my design was novel, as it differs from past research as well. Third, and potentially most novel, my study examined a context where individuals will be primed to experience two self-conscious emotions of opposite valence in very close proximity (back-to-back), which is a very realistic representation of what both consumers and marketers alike can face in their everyday environment.

2.9 Hypotheses

Having introduced the main motivations for my study, I now discuss potential patterns of alternative results of my experiment as well as their underlining theoretical rationales. In this experiment, I sought to further the understanding of emotions by reducing the phenomena down to a specific type of discrete emotions – the self-conscious emotions of guilt and pride – that are uniquely framed through incidental priming and ad appeals in a specific consumer behavior context – that of donations to a prosocial cause.

Like previous research involving experimental design, I discuss a series of plausible potential results and a set of competing hypotheses (Hornsey, et al., 2020; Pham and Vanhuele, 1997). I highlight four patterns that may arise from my experiment that follow well-established process explanations, and I discuss these in tandem with four competing hypotheses. The utilization of competing hypotheses is not as common in consumer research as is commitment to one set of predictions (Alba et al., 2012). However, emotions are a phenomenon that are not easily understood, which is highlighted by prior reviews (Guar et al., 2014) as well as demonstrated through the equivocality in prior results (Duhachek et al., 2012; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). Thus, rather than test the validity of a single theoretical proposition, my experiment sought to comparatively test the merit of four competing predictions, thereby expanding my opportunity for discovery (Alba et al., 2012). Since this is an area of consumer research that has seen increased exploration (Johnson et al., 2008), conducting an experiment with competing hypotheses to uncover the possibility of an interaction as well as to uncover the dominant pattern in a specific context was a well-suited approach:

“One can acknowledge the validity of each of these views while also questioning the need to conform to any of them. Contributions can be made in the absence of a complex

conceptual scheme, process evidence, and one-tailed hypotheses, albeit at the personal cost of being labeled a ‘bumbler’” (Alba et al., 2012).

The contribution I aimed to make through my study was to provide clarity on which of the four hypotheses could be supported using the data from my experiment.

Specifically, I tested for the following: (1) an interaction between a self-conscious state (guilt or pride) and a persuasion appeal (guilt or pride), and (2) the condition, matched versus mismatched, that persuades the highest donation intention (as well as highest number of actual donations). The following competing hypotheses will be tested:

H1 – Negative Affect Dominance (Guilt) Hypothesis: Donation intentions will be significantly greater for the guilt appeal (vs. the pride appeal) regardless of pre-existing consumer affective state. This will be supported through a positive main effect between the guilt appeal and donation intentions with no evidence of an interaction between the emotional content of the appeal and the pre-existing consumer affective state.

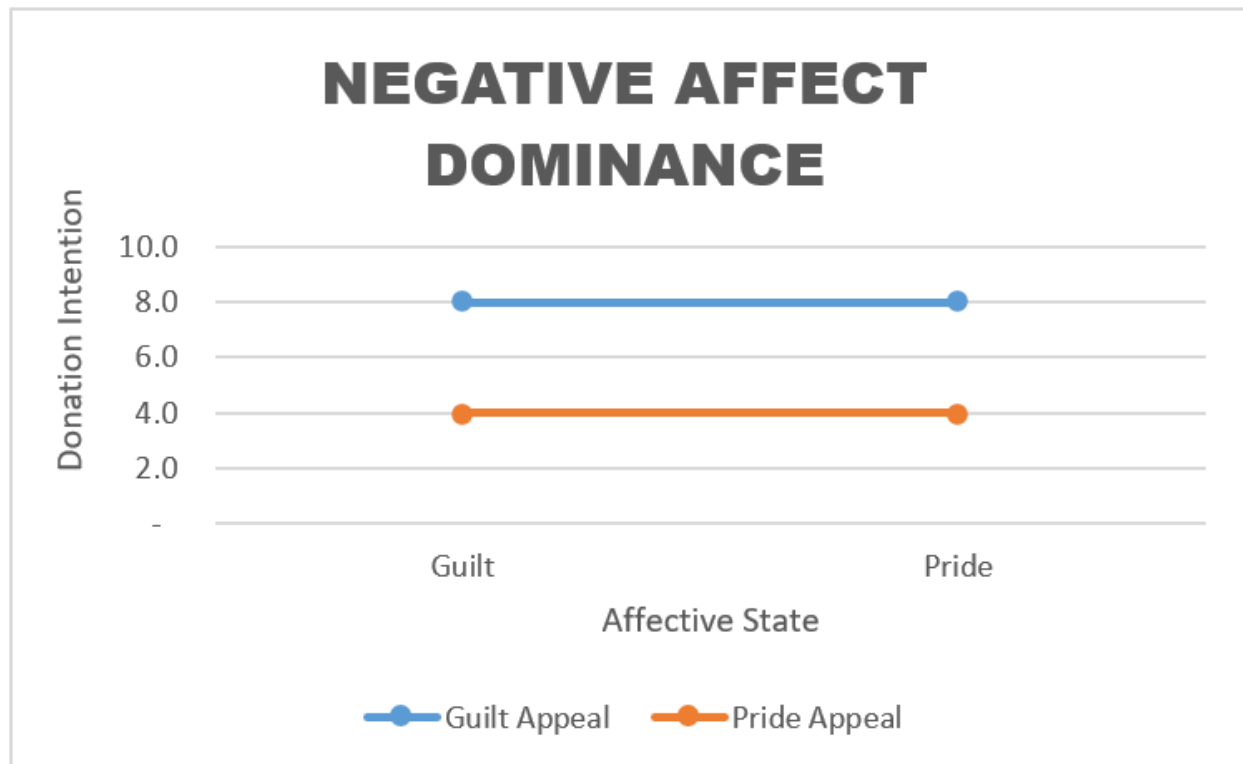
H2 – Positive Affect Dominance (Pride) Hypothesis: Donation intentions will be significantly greater for the pride appeal (vs. the guilt appeal) regardless of pre-existing consumer affective state. This will be supported through a positive main effect between the pride appeal and donation intentions with no evidence of an interaction between the emotional content of the appeal and the pre-existing consumer affective state.

H3 – Affect Congruency Hypothesis: Donation intentions will be significantly greater when the emotional content of the appeal matches (vs. mismatches) the pre-existing consumer affective state. This will be supported through a crossover interaction whereby those in the pride pre-existing consumer affective state will be persuaded more by similar emotional content of the pride appeal than by the opposite content of the guilt appeal (H3a), whereas those in the guilt pre-existing consumer affective state will be persuaded more by the guilt appeal than by the pride appeal (H3b).

H4 – Affect Contrast Hypothesis: Donation intentions will be significantly greater when the emotional content of the appeal mismatches (vs. matches) the pre-existing consumer affective state. This will be supported through a crossover interaction whereby those in the pride pre-existing consumer affective state will be persuaded more by opposite emotional content of the guilt appeal than by the similar emotional content of the pride appeal (H4a), whereas those in the guilt pre-existing consumer affective state will be persuaded more by the pride appeal than by the guilt appeal (H4b).

2.10 Negative Affect Dominance (Guilt) Hypothesis (H1)

Figure 2: Negative Affect Dominance



The first hypothesis, which I call the Negative Affect Dominance (Guilt) Hypothesis for purposes of this research, predicts that donation intentions will be significantly greater for the guilt appeal (vs. the pride appeal) regardless of pre-existing consumer affective state. Essentially, this prediction proposes that there is no interaction between the pre-existing consumer affective state and the emotional content of an appeal. Instead, the emotional content of a guilt appeal (vs. a pride appeal) will always lead to greater donation intentions.

This prediction is supported by prior research involving guilt in the consumer behavior literature. Guilt has been conceptualized as “the awareness of not having lived up to some important self-standard of behavior regarding what is deemed to be good, correct, appropriate, or desirable” (Allard et al., 2015). A key tenet of guilt is its action orientation. The negative self-

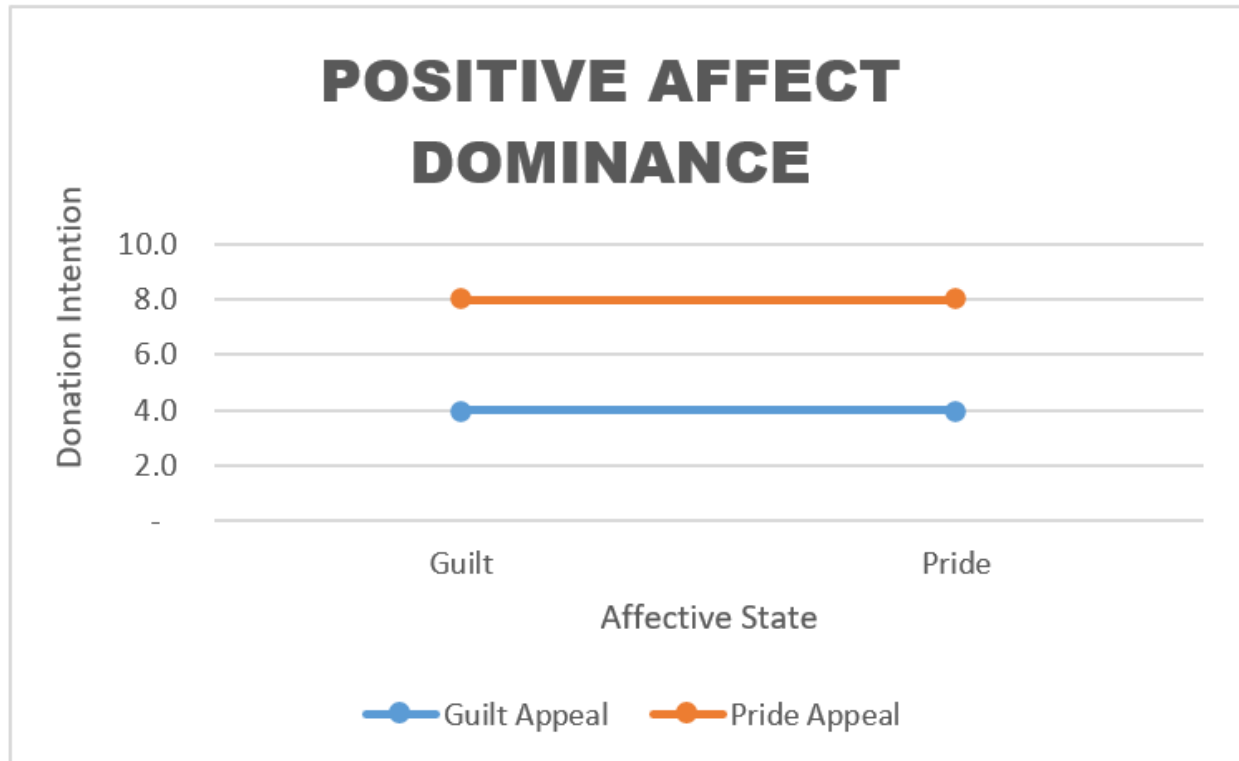
conscious evaluation arising from guilt triggers the self to want to act to repair or to resolve the negative evaluation (Tangney et al., 2002; Baumeister et al., 1995). In addition, the self-reflection involved with guilt drives individuals into action to prevent any further worsening of their mood; this highlights the emotion regulation component of guilt (Zermack et al., 2016; Allard et al., 2015).

That said, it is reasonable to believe that participants primed to feel guilty by recalling two past events would likely be motivated to want to repair or resolve as well as to avoid any further worsening of their mood. In this first condition, the guilt would only be compounded as the participants are then faced with an advertisement laden with guilt during the ad review task. The guilt appeal served would heighten the guilt already primed in the participants through the recall exercises resulting in an even stronger need for them to experience some form of resolution to the guilt. The opportunity to donate to the A.S.P.C.A. presented to participants in the experiment is the most immediate opportunity to relieve the compounded amount of guilt that the participants have experienced. Thus, it would be logical to assume that donation intentions (and actual donations) would be highest in this condition as the other three conditions all offer some level of reprieve from their guilt, either through a pride recall or a pride appeal. Zermack, et al. found that adding charitable donations to hedonic products increases the product's appeal, especially to guilt prone consumers (Zermack, et al., 2016). Allard, et al. found that guilt can lead to preferences for self-improvement products even in areas unrelated to the original source of guilt (Allard, et al., 2015). The opportunity to donate to the A.S.P.C.A. serves as a means for participants to resolve their guilt and prior research has found that participants might find the A.S.P.C.A. ad more appealing (if they consider a dog to be a hedonic purchase) and act to donate

regardless of whether their guilt from previous life events was related to an experience with a dog or not.

2.11 Positive Affect Dominance (Pride) Hypothesis (H2)

Figure 3: Positive Affect Dominance



The second hypothesis, which I call the Positive Affect Dominance (Pride) Hypothesis for purposes of this research, predicts that donation intentions would be significantly greater for the pride appeal (vs. the guilt appeal) regardless of pre-existing consumer affective state. Essentially, this prediction proposes that there is no interaction between the pre-existing consumer affective state and the emotional content of an appeal. Instead, the emotional content of a pride appeal (vs. a guilt appeal) will always lead to greater donation intentions.

This prediction is supported by prior mixed emotion studies that show the dominant effects of pride (vs. guilt) in consumer contexts. In their examination of CRM with guilt and pride appeals, Coleman et al. finds that the pride appeal had more favorable attitudes as well as higher intentions (WOM) as compared to the guilt appeal (Coleman et al., 2020). In their study of recalled guilt, pride, and sustainable consumer choice, the authors find that “Recalled pride can increase sustainable purchase intentions compared with a neutral recall while recalled guilt does not significantly differ from the neutral recall” (Rowe et al., 2019). Finally, a study of self-accountability, guilt, pride, and consumer choice in technology mediated environments finds that, “consumers with higher levels of self-accountability are more likely to have their purchase decisions influenced by anticipated feelings of pride from a sustainable purchase, with guilt also appearing to play a lesser role” (Rowe et al., 2017).

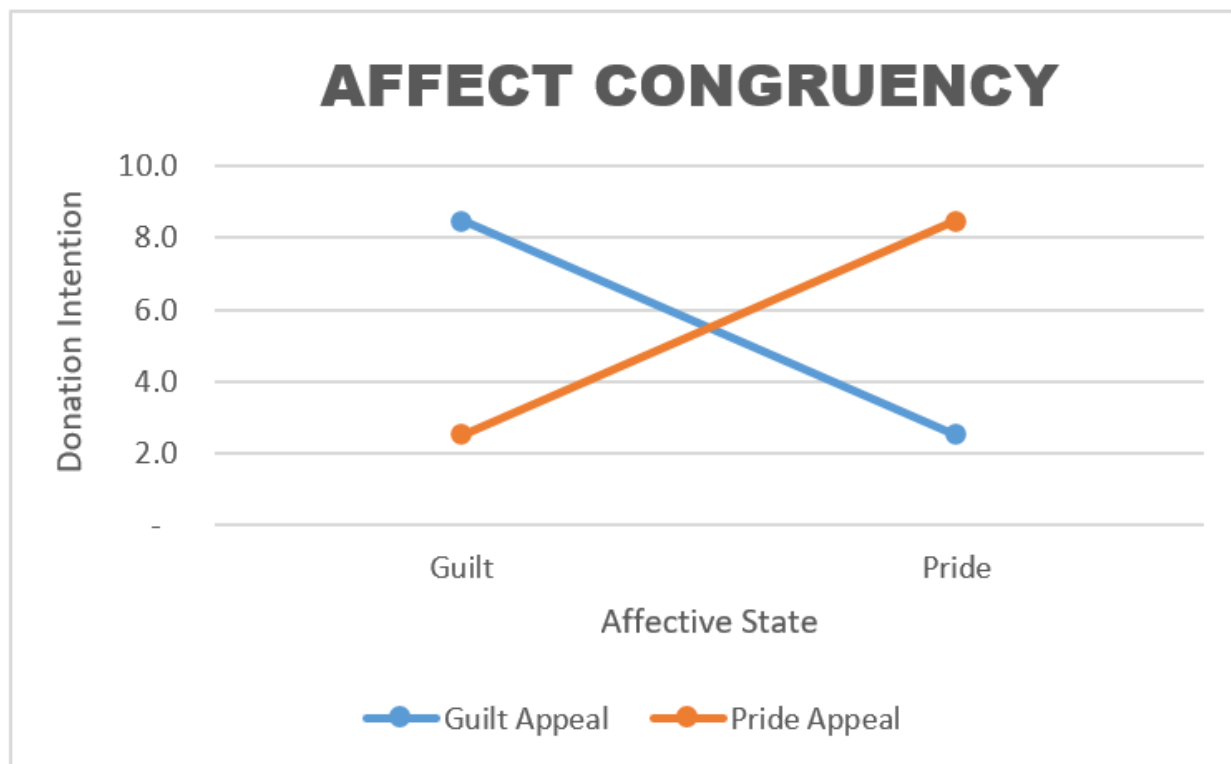
A second rationale for this hypothesis comes from the literature involving positive reinforcement. In their review of sequential choices, Huber et al. defines reinforcement as occurring when “the goals driving the first choice are made stronger by that choice and result in a congruent subsequent choice” (Huber et al, 2008). Reinforcement supports the Positive Affect Dominance (Pride) Hypothesis such that it is reasonable to believe that consumers would consistently seek to make decisions that intensify their feelings of pride, regardless of their pre-existing affective state; whereas, the opposite is true for guilt (Huber et al, 2008). In their 2013 study, the authors sought to understand the mechanism by which recognition leads to increased charitable contributions (Winterich et al., 2013). The researchers acknowledge that “social reinforcement entails the comments or actions of others that serve to reinforce a person’s identity to him- or herself through the reflected appraisals of others” (Winterich et al., 2013). As described, this type of social reinforcement would also act to raise levels of pride and provides

further support for H2. Lastly, Ivanic's 2015 study examines status and status reinforcing behaviors: "Results indicate that when high status is made salient, individuals demonstrate a greater propensity to engage in status-reinforcing behaviors" (Ivanic et al., 2015). This finding further supports H2 because consumers can reinforce their status through additional donations, especially in situations where recognition for giving is made salient, while the opposite would not be true for guilt.

Recent mixed emotion studies involving pride and guilt and the literature on positive reinforcement also provides theoretical rationale for this prediction. Support for this hypothesis would most immediately add to the conversation started in the mixed emotion literature (Coleman et al., 2020; Rowe et al, 2019; Rowe et al., 2017) as well as add to the marketing literature on positive reinforcement (Ivanic, 2015; Winterich et al., 2013; Huber et al., 2008).

2.12 Affect Congruency Hypothesis (H3)

Figure 4: Affect Congruency



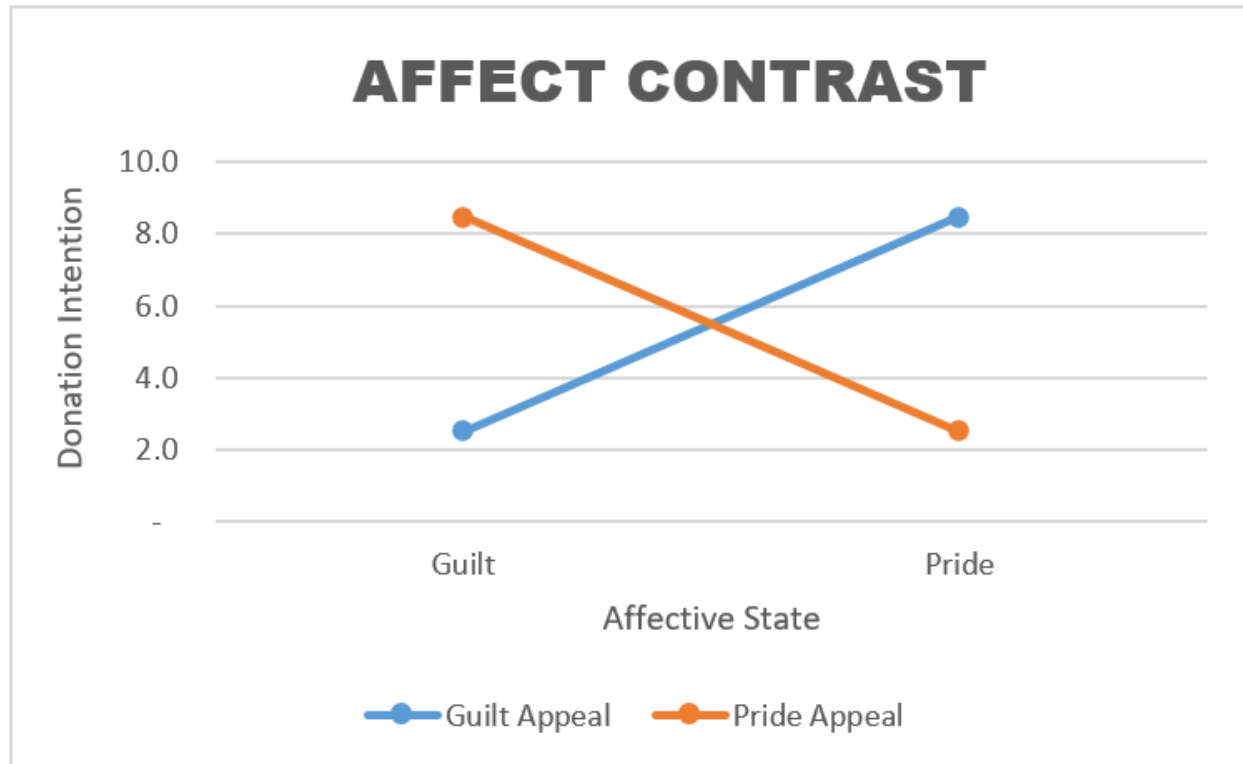
The third hypothesis, which I call the Affect Congruency Hypothesis for purposes of this research, predicts that there is a greater effect in the matched conditions (guilt: guilt, pride: pride) than in the mismatched conditions (guilt: pride, pride: guilt). In this result, I predict that consumers will have greater donation intentions where the emotional content of the appeal matches the consumer's pre-existing affective state.

The rationale for this prediction comes from the Feelings as Information Theory (discussed earlier) and affect regulation. An appeal that contains the same emotional content as one's pre-existing affective state will be easily recognized and processed, and thus be more persuasive in prompting donation intentions from the consumer. For those in a pre-existing guilty affective state, the consumer will pursue a goal of emotional repair and look for an opportunity

to mitigate any further feeling of guilt (affect regulation). Their intention to donate will achieve this emotional repair. For those in a pre-existing proud affective state, the consumer will take action to prevent a problem (the cruelty against animals) and thus feel incremental pride in the process. Their intention to donate will serve as their action towards earning more pride. Using affect as information is the theoretical rationale and process that explains this prediction. This result would most immediately add to the conversation started by Mukhopadhyay, et al. with their study involving unintended purchases and persuasion appeals of the same valence (pride and happiness) (Mukhopadhyay, et al., 2007).

2.13 Affect Contrast Hypothesis (H4)

Figure 5: Affect Contrast



The fourth, and final, hypothesis, which I call the Affect Contrast Hypothesis for purposes of this research, predicts that there is a greater effect in the mismatched conditions (guilt: pride, pride: guilt) than in the matched conditions (guilt: guilt, pride: pride). In this result, I predict that consumers will have greater donation intentions where the emotional content of the appeal does *not* match the consumer's pre-existing affective state.

The rationale for this prediction comes from affect salience. In this result, I am predicting that an appeal that contains the *opposite* emotional content of one's pre-existing affective state will stand out and have higher salience (as compared to one with the same emotional content), and thus be more persuasive in prompting donation intentions from the consumer. Prior consumer research has found equivocality as it relates to pre-existing affective states and

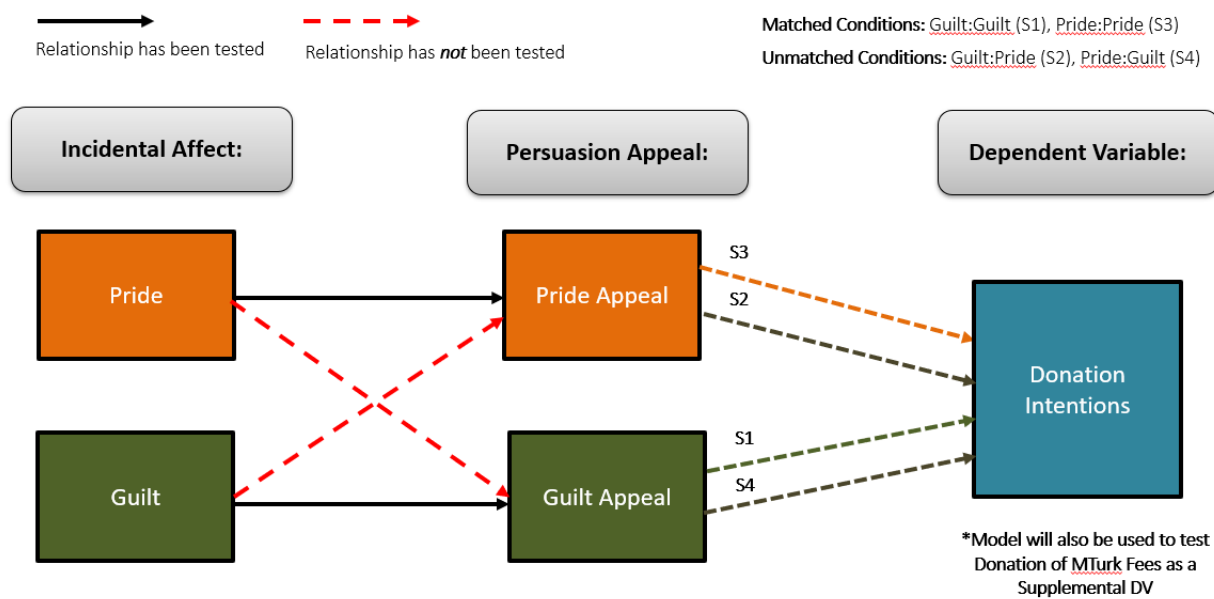
emotional appeals: Duhachek et al. finds that a consumer with a guilty pre-existing state is more likely to respond to antidrinking messages than (or vs.) when the appeal is crafted as a shame appeal (vs. a guilt appeal) (Duhachek et al., 2012); while, Mukhopadhyay, et al. finds that a consumer is more likely to respond to a pride appeal (vs. a happiness appeal) at T2 after showing restraint at T1 and not making an unintended purchase (Mukhopadhyay, et al., 2007). While neither study examines the impact of serving an appeal of opposite valence, the results of the former suggest that unmatched conditions have a stronger effect with negative affect, while the results of the latter suggest that matched conditions have a stronger effect with positive affect.

In their study on guilt dynamics, Duke et al. rationalizes their finding, “temporally separating a consumer's initial decision to perform a guilt-inducing action from its actual enactment reduces the guilt felt while acting,” by suggesting that emotional crowding may play a role (Duke et al., 2019). Applying this rationale to the results of my study, these authors suggest that the salience of the recalled self-conscious affect (guilt or pride) will fade upon seeing the more temporally close appeal (guilt or pride), and that the affect that is felt in closest proximity to the behavior decision will be the most persuasive for the consumer (Duke et al., 2019). Interestingly, Duhachek et al. use emotional overload and defensive processing to rationalize their results without speaking directly to the lessening of any felt affect from T1 (Duhachek et al., 2012). In fact, their results seem to suggest the opposite in that the affective state from T1 would remain strong enough to drive a consumer decision at T2 (Duhachek et al., 2012).

2.14 Supplemental Dependent Variable

To build upon this study's generalizability, I plan to include a second dependent variable (DV), actual donation, in the experiment. Participants will have the opportunity to make an actual donation to the A.S.P.C.A. Should they choose to do so, the participants will elect to donate a predefined amount of their MTurk fee (\$0.50) to the A.S.P.C.A. Participants will be asked if they would like to donate \$0.50 of their MTurk fee, *after* they have indicated their likelihood and their willingness to donate to the A.S.P.C.A. I predict that the actual donation of MTurk fees from the participants will mirror the results of the participants' donation intentions. The actual donation of the MTurk fee represents another vehicle for emotional repair for guilt induced individuals, while it represents another opportunity to act and thus feel prouder for pride induced individuals. Rather than recast my previous three hypotheses specifically for a second DV, I will focus on donation intentions as my primary DV. I will compare the results of MTurk fee donations to donation intentions to see how the two correlate. Figure 1 depicts a visual representation of the design that I will use to test all hypotheses.

FIGURE 1: Proposed Experimental Design



CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Design Overview

I used the following design to test my hypotheses. In this study, I used a charitable organization (A.S.P.C.A.) dedicated to preventing the cruelty to animals as the context. The study was administered via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) using a survey design built in Qualtrics. Like previous research, participants were informed that they were participating in a series of unrelated tasks to mask the true intention of the study (Newman et al., 2018; Karsh et al., 2015; Hung et al., 2012; Wilcox et al., 2011; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). The study was designed in three parts. In the first part, participants were informed that they were participating in a psychology exercise where researchers were looking to understand how people remember and describe previous life events. In the second part, participants were informed that they were participating in an exercise about the co-occurrence of different emotions in everyday experiences. In the third part, participants were informed that that they were participating in an exercise for researchers looking to understand how individuals respond to certain messages. Participants were informed that they would review two advertisements and would then be asked to answer a series of questions that followed. Lastly, participants were asked to answer a series of wrap up questions; these questions were demographics as well as questions related to the participants' awareness and involvement with the A.S.P.C.A.

3.2 Research Design Description

In the first introductory slide, participants were introduced to the study and informed of a series of protocols advised by the IRB. These will be discussed in more detail later in the paper. In the second introductory slide, participants were informed that the study consisted of a series of

unrelated tasks and that it would take approximately twenty-five minutes (maximum) to complete. It was highlighted that an MTurk fee of \$5.00 would be paid upon completion of all tasks; however, failure to complete any of the tasks would result in no payment. Next participants were given a high-level overview of what they would be doing in each part of the study. Lastly, it was explained that once all questions were answered and they had advanced to the end of the study, participants would receive a survey code to record in Amazon Mechanical Turk. To receive payment, it was explained that the survey code had to be recorded in MTurk exactly as it was provided in the study.

After advancing through the introduction, participants were randomly assigned to one of four conditions in a 2 (incidental affect: guilt vs. pride) x 2 (appeal: guilt vs. pride) between-subjects design. The entire experiment was coded in Qualtrics. A block was created for each of the four conditions consisting of 19 slides: incidental guilt: guilt appeal (S1), incidental guilt: pride appeal (S2), incidental pride: pride appeal (S3), incidental pride: guilt appeal (S4). Thus, the matched conditions were S1 and S3, and the unmatched conditions were S2 and S4. In Qualtrics, the randomizer logic was used so that each of the conditions were randomly presented to participants an even number of times. The intent was to capture an equal sample size of each condition for analytical purposes. Regardless of the condition assigned, all participants saw the two introductory slides and were asked to answer all wrap up questions in the final block of the study, which consisted of 13 slides (S5).

In the first part of the study, participants were informed that they would be asked to write about two experiences from their past. Following in the footsteps of previous researchers, the participants were told that were completing a psychology task to assist researchers in understanding how people remember and describe previous life events (Dahee Han et al., 2014;

Passyn et al., 2006). To manipulate incidental affect, participants were asked to take part in the recall exercise twice back-to-back:

Please recall a past event that made you feel intense guilt and what it felt like to be guilty. After reflecting on that event, please describe as vividly as possible the details surrounding this event as well as possible factors that contributed to your intense feelings of guilt. Please describe the event, your actions, your feelings, and your thoughts regarding the event in as much detail as possible, using at least 50 words or more below. Please click and drag the box to expand it to allow for more space in typing your response.

Please recall a second event from you past that made you feel intense guilt and what it felt like to be guilty. After reflecting on that event, again please describe as vividly as possible the details surrounding this event as well as possible factors that contributed to your intense feelings of guilt. Please describe the event, your actions, your feelings, and your thoughts regarding the event in as much detail as possible, using at least 50 words or more below. Please click and drag the box to expand it to allow for more space in typing your response.

This recall exercise has been used extensively in previous research involving affect and consumer behavior (Septianto et al., 2021; Rowe et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2018; Newman et al., 2017; Baek et al., 2017; Allard et al., 2015; Dahee Han et al., 2014; Hung et al., 2012; Duhachek et al., 2012; Agrawal et al., 2010; Winterich et al., 2011; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007; Passyn et al., 2006). Following in the footsteps of previous researchers, participants were asked to briefly write about two real life situations when they experienced intense affect (guilt, pride) (Allard et al., 2015; Lewis et al., 2010).

Specifically, “participants [will be] told to write down their feelings and thoughts regarding [the] event, trying to accurately recollect how they felt and acted during this episode ... Participants in the guilt [pride] condition [will be] asked to recall a past event that made them feel intense guilt [pride] and what it felt like to be guilty [proud]. They then [will be] asked to write down the conditions surrounding this event and to describe as vividly as possible what factors contributed to their intense feelings of guilt [pride]” (Dahee Han et al., 2014).

Responses to both recall exercises were required to each have a minimum of at least 50 words (executed through a 150-character minimum length validation in Qualtrics). This requirement was in line with previous qualitative research on positive self-conscious emotions where the researchers required the participants to have at least 80 words (Pham and Sun, 2020). While no time limit was enforced on the recall exercises, MTurk participants were influenced to complete tasks in a timely manner in order to receive the benefit of an MTurk fee. Since there was a maximum of 440 HITs accepted for this study (which was disclosed to MTurk workers), the first 440 MTurk workers that completed the study (including passing validation checks) would be those that got paid the \$5.00 MTurk fee. Those that started but did not complete the survey before the 440th survey was completed would not receive the \$5.00 MTurk fee.

A version of this manipulation has been pretested and used extensively in prior consumer behavior research. In Rowe's study of influencing sustainable choices through behavior recall, the authors note that:

“A total of 211 US-based Mechanical Turk (MTurk) users took part in the pretest. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions, recalled pride and recalled guilt, in a between-subjects design. The pretest revealed that recalling a positive event elicited higher pride than recalling a negative one, 5.55 versus 2.43, $F(1, 209) = 139$, $p < 0.01$, and that recalling a negative event elicited higher guilt than recalling a positive one, mean 4.91 versus 1.27, $F(1, 209) = 295$, $p < 0.01$ ” (Rowe et al., 2019).

For the purposes of this study, participants were asked to recall two experiences where they felt intense affect (guilt, pride) rather than just one to ensure that the assigned affect (guilt, pride) was evoked.

After completing both recall exercises, participants moved to the second part of the study. To further mask the intent of the study, participants were told that they were about to participate in a study about the co-occurrence of different emotions in everyday experiences. Specifically,

participants were told: “You will be asked to reflect on how you are currently feeling. Then you will be asked to indicate how well a series of emotions describes your current feeling. Please answer all questions that follow.”

Separating the recall exercises from the emotional evaluation exercise into two separate tasks was done intentionally to further dilute the salience of the true intention of the experiment in the design. In actuality, participants were asked to complete a scaled down version of the PANAS Scale. This task was used as a manipulation check of the intended affect from the previous two recall exercises. Prior consumer behavior research has used other scales that more directly asked participants to indicate the extent to which they felt guilty (or proud) after completing the recall exercise using questions like: “Thinking about this occasion, how intensely did you feel guilt?”, “Thinking about this occasion, how intensely did you feel bad about yourself?”, “Thinking about this occasion, how intensely did you feel remorse?” (Levine et al., 2012 and Soscia, 2007; $\alpha = 0.95$), or “Thinking about this occasion, how intensely did you feel pleased?”, “Thinking about this occasion, how intensely did you feel good about yourself?”, “Thinking about this occasion, how intensely did you feel pride?” (Levine et al., 2012 and Roseman, 1996; $\alpha = 0.90$) a 7-point scale (1 = Not at all, 7= Extremely) (Rowe et al., 2019). However, to avoid creating a demand bias and to avoid alerting participants to the true intention of the study, a scaled down version of the PANAS scale was used to evaluate the participants’ emotions instead.

The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) scale has been used in previous consumer behavior research (Septiano et al., 2021; Newman et al., 2018; Manika et al., 2017). The PANAS scale was developed to be a brief, easy to administer scale that has high reliability in assessing an individual’s proneness to positive or negative affect. Participants were asked to

rate a series of ten emotions on a 5-point Likert scale (1-Not-At-All to 5-Extremely). In the original scale (which consists of 20 emotions), ten emotions are used to assess positive affect, and ten emotions are used to assess negative affect. Both “guilty” and “proud” are included as two of the twenty emotions that participants are asked to rate. The PANAS scale was adapted for the purposes of this study to include five emotions of positive affect (excited, enthusiastic, proud, inspired, good) and five emotions of negative affect (upset, guilty, ashamed, remorseful, bad).

Asking participants about their affect immediately following the manipulation can potentially heighten the awareness to their own feelings as well as heighten the effect of the incidental affect itself. Multiple consumer behavior studies have chosen to measure the participants’ affect immediately following the manipulation (either in their pretest or in their main study) to demonstrate the recall exercise’s effectiveness in manipulating the intended affect (Septianto et al., 2021; Rowe et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2018; Baek et al., 2017; Newman et al., 2017; Allard et al., 2015; Dahee Han et al., 2014; Winterich et al., 2011; Agrawal et al., 2010; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). This prior research provides evidence that the recall exercises successfully evoked the intended affect. Repeating the recall exercise back-to-back was expected to only heighten the overall impact of assigned incidental affect.

In the third part of the study, participants were informed that they would be shown two advertisements. Participants were asked to take a few minutes to review each advertisement and then subsequently answer all the questions that followed. The participants were told that were completing this exercise to assist a market researcher in understanding how individuals respond to certain messages. All participants were shown two advertisements in total. The first of the advertisements was the filler task. In the filler task, the same advertisement was displayed to all participants and was always shown first regardless of which condition they were assigned. The

second advertisement was the persuasion appeal and varied (guilt, pride) by which condition the participants were assigned.

Review of the first advertisement was the participants' filler task. This advertisement was created in PowerPoint using an image from the website freepik.com, specifically Toolbox with working tools isolated on white Premium Photo (freepik.com, 2022). The advertisement contained an image of a black toolbox lying on top of what appears to be a disorganized pile of black and yellow tools. A logo ("Black & Decker") and copy were added to the image. The logo and copy on the advertisement were inspired from previous advertisements and content published by Black & Decker either online or via their website. After viewing the image, participants were asked to evaluate the following three statements about the advertisement using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Completely Disagree to 5 -Completely Disagree: (a) The ad is easy to understand (b) The ad is interesting (c) The is likable. This scale was adapted from a study on the emotions that arise from buying or not buying at an unintended purchase opportunity (Mukhopadhyay, et al., 2007). The filler task was added to this specific spot in the study because it creates a gap in between the prime for incidental affect and the presentation of the persuasion appeal. This gap in the 2X2 design helps to further mask the true intent of the study. The advertisement for the filler task was not pretested. The ad ratings of the filler advertisement were not used for any analysis in this study. The filler ad is Graph 6 of this paper.

The second advertisement served as the persuasion appeal (guilt, pride). The advertisement contained the same image and the same layout in each condition (guilt, pride) with changes only to the copy to manipulate either guilt or pride. To create the advertisements used for the persuasion appeals, a copy editor was consulted. The intent of the study was disclosed to him. The image and the copy were provided to the copy editor. After four edits, the final product

was used for the pretests. Results of the pretests are discussed later in this paper. For the purposes of the visual, the image of the dog was selected from the website freepik.com, specifically Cute dog looks down over the banner. Kalamurza (freepik.com, 2022).

Prior research has found support for the successful use of animals, specifically dogs, in advertisements soliciting charitable contributions (Lancendorfer et al., 2006). Prior research has also found support for the characteristics of a dog that are most appealing when used in advertising; these include where the dog's gaze is forward facing (Gavin, et al., 2015), the dog's expression is neutral and the intensity of the appeal is moderate (Park et al., 2021). Hence, an effort was made to utilize an image that fit these characteristics. The call to action or prompt to donate is the same in both persuasion appeals. The name Cooper was selected from a list of the most popular dog names published in 2020 (Rhodes, 2020). Copies of the guilt and the pride appeals are included in this paper for reference as Graph 7 and Graph 8.

The language for the copy in the persuasion appeals (guilt, pride) was adapted from previous literature. For the guilt appeal, the language adjacent to the visual, "You are Cooper's last chance. Your hesitation will cost Cooper his life...", was adapted from Allard's "Cross-Domain Effects of Guilt on Desire for Self-Improvement Products" in the Journal of Consumer Research (Allard, et al, 2015). The tagline below the visual, "How can you enjoy the rest of your day knowing that without your personal support Cooper's time is limited?", was adapted from Peloza's "Good and Guilt-Free: The Role of Self-Accountability in Influencing Preferences for Products with Ethical Attributes" in the Journal of Marketing (Peloza, et al. 2013). For the pride appeal, the language adjacent to visual, "With a donation, you will make a big difference and help Cooper survive another day to find a new life...", was adapted from Septianto's "Proud powerful, grateful powerless: the interactive effect of power and emotion on gift giving" in the

European Journal of Marketing (Septianto, et al. 2020). The tagline below the visual, “Be proud in every moment for the rest of the day knowing that your actions saved Cooper's life,” was adapted from Septianto's "The interactive effect of emotional appeals and past performance of a charity on the effectiveness of charitable advertising" in the Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services (Septianto, et al. 2019).

Participants were asked to evaluate a series of statements after viewing the persuasion appeal. These are the same statements that participants were asked to evaluate after viewing the filler advertisement (using the same scales). Results from the two pretests of the guilt and pride appeals were assessed and will be discussed later in this paper. Immediately following the ad evaluations, participants were asked to indicate their likelihood and their willingness to donate to the A.S.P.C.A. in separate questions. To assess donation intention, I used two questions repurposed from a study involving self-accountability and the preferences for products with ethical attributes (Peloza et al., 2013). Participants were asked the following two questions to assess their donation intention: (1) “How likely would you be to donate to the A.S.P.C.A.?” (replacing “purchase the product?”), and (2) “How willing would you be to donate to A.S.P.C.A.?” (replacing “purchase the product?”) (Peloza et al., 2013). These questions were evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 5-Extremely likely to 1-Extremely unlikely.

Next, participants were presented with a behavioral prompt via two questions. First, participants were asked if they would like to donate a percentage of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A. Regardless of their response to this question, all participants were then informed that, “The authors of this study are giving you the opportunity to donate a portion of your MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A.”. On the same slide, all participants were then asked, “With your consent, the researchers of this study will make a donation to the A.S.P.C.A. for the participants of this study

who elect to donate their MTurk fees. Would you like to donate \$0.50 of the MTurk fee that you are receiving for the completion of this study to the A.S.P.C.A.?” Instead of using increments of \$0.10 like previous research (Septianto et al., 2019), participants were asked to donate a flat sum (\$0.50) of their MTurk fee (\$5.00) to the A.S.P.C.A. The second question was designed to measure the participants’ actual act of donating versus simply indicating their intention to donate. Like previous consumer research involving experimental design (Coleman et al., 2020), I wanted to strengthen the validity of the study by including an actual behavior as a supplemental dependent variable in addition to the key DV of the study – donation intention. Since previous research has shown that “intentions do not always result in actual behavior,” I sought to avoid a limitation to this study’s outcome by including a behavioral measure in addition to the participants’ intention to donate (Sheeran et al., 2002). Both behavioral questions were measured on a dichotomous scale, where Yes=1 and No=0.

Next, participants were presented with a truncated version of Richins affect scale (Richins et al., 1997) which typically includes emotions such as “happy,” “proud,” “guilty,” and “remorse[ful]” (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). Specifically, participants were asked to “Please read each item below and then select the descriptor that best fits your current relationship to that feeling right now.” This scale was adapted for the purposes of this study (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). Six emotions were presented to participants: remorseful, bad, guilty, pleased, good, and proud. All responses were measured on a 5-point scale: 1-Not at all to 5-Extremely (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). The goal of measuring the participant’s affect at this point was to understand the participant’s emotional state at the end of the experiment. Next, participants were asked the demand check: “What do you think this research was about?” The response was designed as a text field response with no character limitation (maximum or minimum); however,

a validation check was added to force all participants to enter something in this field. Some text had to be entered into the field before the participant could advance to the next slide of the study. A brief review of the responses to this question will be discussed later in this paper.

Next, participants once again saw the persuasion appeal that they were originally served. Below the persuasion appeal, participants were asked two questions. First, participants were asked, “Earlier in Study #1, you were asked to recall two past experiences of extreme guilt. In light of how you were feeling, how much does this ad connect with you?” This question was evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Not at all to 5-Extremely. This question was asked to assess the fit of the ad given the affect that the participants were primed with during the emotion recall exercises. Secondly, participants were asked, “In light of how you were feeling, does this ad stand out to you?” This question was also evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Not at all to 5-Extremely. This question was asked to assess the salience of the ad given the affect that the participants were primed with during the emotion recall exercises. By reintroducing the persuasion appeal and asking these questions, the risk that participants could uncover the true intent of this study was introduced. Thus, these questions were intentionally included at the end of the block prior to the participants moving on to answer the demographic and A.S.P.C.A. awareness and involvement questions.

In the final block (S5), all participants were told that they were almost complete with the study and needed to answer a series wrap-up questions. Regardless of the condition assigned, all participants saw the same information in the same order in this block. First, all participants were asked a series of demographic questions (6 in total) as well as questions about dog ownership. For the demographic questions, participants were asked about their gender, age, race/ethnicity (question was framed as ‘How would you describe yourself’), education (as measured by highest

level completed), household income (as measured by entire household income from the previous year before taxes), and current employment status. The wording and scales associated with the questions were taken from the Qualtrics demographics library, except for gender and race/ethnicity. The response list for these two questions was pulled from a standardized list used at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte. Next, all participants were asked two questions about dog ownership, specifically “Do you currently or have you ever owned a dog?” (a dichotomous scale of Yes=1 and No=0). If they responded with “yes” to this question, participants were then asked, “From where did you acquire ownership of the dog?”, with seven response choices including: shelter, rescue organization (non-shelter), breeder, pet store, family member, gift, and other.

To assess their familiarity and involvement with the A.S.P.C.A., participants were asked three questions: “Are you familiar with the A.S.P.C.A.?”, “Are you currently a member of the A.S.P.C.A.?”, “Do you currently donate to the A.S.P.C.A.?”. The first question was assessed on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Not at all to 5-Extremely. The latter two questions were assessed on a dichotomous scale where Yes=1 and No=0.

After completion of these questions, participants were assigned their 4-digit randomized survey code (values: 1000-8000) to record in MTurk. Finally, participants were thanked for their time and informed that their responses had been recorded.

3.3 Protocols

Since this study involved manipulation, a series of steps were taken to ensure the safety and protection of its participants. Many of these protocols were feedback received from the IRB upon their review of the intent and the design of this study. Secondly, to avoid any participant

exposure to COVID, this experiment was run completely online through MTurk. Third, the persuasion appeals (guilt, pride) created for the purpose of this study were pretested twice via MTurk. Results of both pretests will be discussed later in this section.

3.4 IRB Guidelines

In my IRB application, I applied for a Waiver of documentation of consent as well as a Full or partial waiver of consent. In lieu of obtaining formal consent from the study's participants, two slides of information were included in the beginning of the experiment that all participants were forced to view prior to advancing. The first slide disclosed that the study was being conducted by two researchers (their names and email addresses were disclosed) at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte as part of a doctoral thesis. Next, it was explicitly stated that participation in the study was voluntary and that the completion of the assigned tasks in the study would contribute to information that would be used in research publications. It was also explicitly stated that the risks associated with participating in this study were expected to be rare. Since participants were asked to share personal examples from their past, there was potential for psychological harm. To mitigate this potential, participants were encouraged to only share experiences that they felt comfortable in disclosing, to not disclose any illegal behavior, and to mask their true identities by keeping their responses anonymous (outside of their MTurk ID) to minimize any distress or embarrassment from disclosure of information.

In terms of data privacy and protection, it was stated that the responses received in this study would be stored in a confidential location and only the principal investigator and faculty advisor would have access to it. In addition, it was stated that the MTurk IDs collected would be deleted from the study data once the study was completed. It was also stated that the data

collected could be used for future research studies or distributed to another investigator for future research studies without additional informed consent. In the IRB application, I agreed to adhere to UNCC's data handling policies for Data Classification Level 2 where data is to be stored in a combination of sources (in this case Qualtrics, a UNC Charlotte Google Workspace, and Canvas) with limited access being granted only to a few select individuals (in this case only my faculty advisor or dissertation committee). Secondly, I agreed to only share the data collected in Qualtrics publicly via summarized tables and in graphs in the “Results” and “Discussion” sections of the paper or in the paper’s appendix. In the final bullet on the first slide, participants were prompted to obtain information, ask questions, or discuss any of their concerns about the study with the Office of Research Protections and Integrity at uncc-irb@uncc.edu should they have wished to discuss with someone other than the researcher(s) themselves.

The second introductory slide contained a high-level overview of the details of the experiment: the study was a series of unrelated tasks, the study should take no more than twenty-five minutes to complete, a fee of \$5.00 would be issued via MTurk upon successful completion of all questions. Next, each of the three tasks was outlined for the participants. Finally, the process of obtaining and then inputting the survey code into MTurk for payment was described.

3.5 Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk)

In their book, Conducting Online Research on Amazon Mechanical Turk and Beyond, the authors seek to clarify the “the relative advantages and disadvantages of Mechanical Turk versus market research platforms,” to offer a conceptual overview of MTurk, and to highlight different approaches that researchers can take to successfully conduct their study online (Litman et al., 2020). Despite the numerous advantages of conducting studies online (large, diverse samples,

cost and time efficiencies, development of more specific samples, and quick validation of data integrity), the use of platforms like MTurk have traditionally been challenged with questions related to data quality, control, and technological issues. Since 2011, there have been numerous studies published that have debunked some of the historical hang-ups associated with using MTurk:

“Within a few years following the publication of Buhrmester et al.’s (2011) seminal paper in the journal *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, the paper was cited more than 5,000 times. As of 2015, 40% of all research papers published in the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* had at least one study with MTurk workers (Zhou & Fishbach, 2016). Researchers quickly began to explore how Mechanical Turk could accommodate research in each of their specific subfields of the social and behavioral sciences. Within a short time, researchers from more than 30 different academic disciplines were routinely using Mechanical Turk for their research studies (Bohannon, 2016).” (Litman et al., 2020)

In a review of 50 studies involving affect published in top tier Marketing Journals (Journal Grades: A+, A), 42% (or 21 of the articles) used MTurk to conduct at least one if not all the experiments in their study. These studies were all published after 2011 with latter half of the last decade showing the biggest surge in the use of MTurk in articles published in these journals.

In discussion of their demographic profile, the authors note the surprising diversity of MTurk workers:

“They [MTurk workers] come from a variety of racial groups, occupations, and geographic locations. Contrary to common beliefs, MTurk workers are not any more likely to be White than is the general U.S. population. The gender distribution is approximately even. Workers are more likely to be employed, and not substantially more likely to be students, compared to the general U.S. population. Additionally, the distribution of MTurk workers across all 50 states almost perfectly matches the distribution of the U.S. population.” (Litman et al., 2020).

That said, the MTurk worker population skews much younger than the U.S. population (70% of MTurk workers are younger than 40) (Litman et al., 2020). In addition, the authors note

that, “even when controlling for age, MTurk workers are more liberal politically, less religious, and more educated” (Litman et al., 2020).

Given the current context of COVID related outbreaks, I conducted this entire experiment online using MTurk in the Spring of 2022. Given the amount of research published on the quality of MTurk data, I did not anticipate that conducting this experiment entirely online would hinder the outcomes of the study in any way. The increased use of MTurk for studies published in top tier Marketing journals lends further support to this planned approach. While MTurk may present a few limitations given the demographic profile of its workers, conducting this experiment on campus in person with university students might very well present the same challenges. The demographic profile of MTurk workers is like that of university students (younger, more liberal, less religious, and more educated). Lastly, to reaffirm the findings of this research, this design can be reperformed in an in person setting at a future date once COVID restrictions have been lifted to test the generalizability of its results.

3.6 Persuasion Appeal Pretests

To determine whether the persuasion appeals of this study differentially affect guilt and pride responses, I manipulated two advertisements – the guilt and pride A.S.P.C.A. advertisements discussed earlier – and I measured participants’ emotional responses to them. I conducted two pretests of the advertisements on Amazon Mechanical Turk. In both experiments, the goal was to examine whether the independent variable (persuasion appeal: guilt vs. pride) differentially impacted the emotional responses of participants (measured using different scales).

In the first pretest, the sample ($n=290$) was randomly exposed to one of the A.S.P.C.A. advertisements that were framed as either a guilt or a pride appeal (Graph 7 and Graph 8). In the

introduction, participants were informed that they would be reviewing an advertisement and then asked to answer a series of questions that followed. To receive the \$0.75 MTurk fee, participants were informed that they had to answer all questions and successfully advance to the end of the study to receive and then copy and paste the survey code into MTurk. The entire experiment was coded in Qualtrics. A block was created for each of the two advertisements (guilt, pride). In Qualtrics, the randomizer logic was used so that each of the advertisements was randomly presented an even number of times to participants. The intent was to capture an equal sample size of each condition for analytical purposes. Regardless of the advertisement randomly assigned, all participants saw the same introduction and were asked to respond to the same series of questions following the ad.

After viewing their randomly assigned advertisement, participants were asked a series of questions. For the guilt ad, participants were asked the following: “Thinking about this ad, how intensely did you feel guilt?”, “Thinking about this ad, how intensely did you feel badly about yourself?”, “Thinking about this ad, how intensely did you feel remorse?”. Each of these questions was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Not-at-all to 5-Extremely. For the pride ad, participants were asked the following: “Thinking about this ad, how intensely did you feel hopeful?”, “Thinking about this ad, how intensely did you feel responsible?”, “This ad shows me how I can feel proud of myself.” Each of these questions was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Not-at-all to 5-Extremely. Participants in both conditions were asked a fourth question: “Which of the following most describes how this ad makes you feel,” with the responses Guilt, Proud, Empowered, Responsible, and Indifferent. Participants were then presented with a series of demographic questions.

As expected, the guilt ad was more likely to elicit feelings of guilt than the pride ad (64.1% vs. 35.9%), and the pride ad was more likely to elicit feelings of pride than the guilt ad (70.5% vs. 29.5%). The Pearson Chi Square value was statistically significant ($X^2 = 23.45$, $p < .05$). Each of the persuasion appeals was successful in eliciting more of the intended affect (guilt: guilt, pride: pride) than its oppositely valenced affect (guilt: pride, pride: guilt). Interestingly, the pride ad was more likely to elicit feelings of empowerment (70.4% vs. 29.6%) and responsibility (54.3% vs. 45.7%) than the guilt ad, while the guilt ad was more likely to elicit the feeling of indifference (66.7% vs. 33.3%) than the pride ad. The results of this first pretest provided initial support to the assertion that the advertisements created for the purposes of this study differentially affected participants' guilt and pride responses.

The second pretest followed the exact same design and flow as Pretest 1 with one exception. Instead of being asked four questions after seeing the advertisement, participants were asked only one question. That question, "Which of the following MOST describes how this ad makes you feel?", was followed by three response options that were presented randomly to participants: Guilty, Proud, Indifferent. They were then presented with a series of demographic questions. The second pretest had a smaller sample size than the first ($n_2 = 198$ vs. $n_1 = 290$). The second pretest sought to simplify, but also confirm the results from the first pretest. The MTurk workers who participated in the first pretest were not eligible to participate in the second pretest.

Like Pretest 1, the guilt ad was more likely to elicit feelings of guilt than the pride ad (54.5% vs. 38.1%), and the pride ad was more likely to elicit feelings of pride than the guilt ad (40.2% vs. 24.8%). The Pearson Chi Square value was again statistically significant ($X^2 = 6.5$, $p < .05$). Unlike Pretest 1, both ads produced similar levels of indifference (20.8% vs. 21.6%). Each of the persuasion appeals was successful in eliciting more of the intended affect (guilt:

guilt, pride: pride) than the other two emotions asked. The results of this second pretest provided further support to the assertion that the advertisements created for the purposes of this study differentially affected participants' guilt and pride responses.

3.7 Data Analysis Overview

This study is exploratory research designed to test four novel competing hypotheses. A power analysis was conducted to determine the appropriate sample size for the study. The data collected through MTurk will be analyzed in SPSS through a series of tools discussed later in this section. Lastly, the expected findings associated with the data collected are discussed in more detail later in this section.

3.8 Power Analysis

A power analysis was performed to estimate the appropriate sample size for this experiment. A power analysis consists of four variables: effect size, sample size, significance, and statistical power. Given the values for three of the variables, one can calculate the value for the fourth. For the purposes of this experiment, an effect size of 0.15, a significance level of 0.05, and a statistical power of 0.80 were selected. Conservatively, a relatively small standard Cohen's d value 0.15 was selected for the effect size. For the significance level, the often-used alpha of 0.05 was selected for this experiment. For the statistical power, the often-used value of 0.80 was selected. Referencing Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences, the sample size was calculated to be 352 in total, or approximately 88 per cell for this 2X2 design. Reperforming the calculation with another often-used standard value of 0.20 for the Cohen's d value instead of 0.15 results in a total sample size of 200, or approximately 50 per cell for this 2X2 design. Thus, I aimed to have at least 200 participants, but ideally closer to 350 participants

for this experiment. As discussed earlier, a total of 436 Qualtrics surveys were collected from MTurk workers. Conservatively, a maximum of 440 surveys were collected to account for the potential for submissions being removed for failure of the demand check or qualitative issues.

3.9 Data Analysis

To evaluate the results of my experiment, I plan to use a series of tools in SPSS. First, I plan to use Frequencies to summarize the descriptive statistics of this study, i.e., the demographics and the participant responses to the A.S.P.C.A awareness and involvement questions. Secondly, I plan to use the Independent-Samples T Test to test the manipulation check following the emotion recall exercises. Third, I plan to use a Two-Way ANOVA to examine the results of ad ratings for the persuasion appeal, the results of donation intention, as well as the results of fit and of salience. Lastly, I plan to use a Binary Logistic Regression model to assess the results of the two behavioral questions related to actual donations.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 MTurk Details and Qualifications

In MTurk, the experiment was launched with the following title: “Three brief exercises that involve emotions, ads, or dogs.” The description used for the experiment was the following:

You will perform a series of tasks: a brief writing exercise, a survey about emotions, and a review of 2 ads. Then you will be asked to answer a series of questions. In order to receive credit for your participation, you must answer all questions.

The keywords used for the experiment were: *survey, short, emotion, dog, advertisement, ad*. The goal for the title, description, and keywords was to provide enough information to attract MTurk workers to complete it, while at the same time not unveiling the intent or true purpose of the experiment. In order to participate in the experiment, MTurk workers had to meet the following qualifications: Location (of participant) = US, HIT Approval Rate (%) for all Requesters' HITs greater than or equal to 99%, and Number of HITs Approved greater than 100. These qualifications were also used in both pretests. For successful completion of the study, the MTurk fee paid was \$5.00. The experiment had a public task visibility so that all MTurk workers could see and preview it, and it was launched to capture a maximum of 440 participants.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Those who met the qualifications were served a link to Qualtrics where the full experiment was coded. A total of 436 surveys were successfully completed by MTurk workers. Of the 436 participants in the initial sample, all surveys were used for purposes of analysis. None of the participants correctly identified either the research questions or the hypotheses of this study via the demand check. Thus, the initial and valid sample sizes for this experiment were the same = 436.

The sample was 58% Male ($n=254$), 41% Female ($n=179$), .7% Other ($n=3$). In terms of age, 83% of the sample ($n=362$) was between the ages of 25-54. In describing themselves, participants were 77% White ($n=336$) and 23% Other ($n=100$). In terms of education, participants attained the following as their highest level of education completed: 20% high school degree or equivalent ($n=87$), 12% associate degree ($n=51$), 53% bachelor's degree ($n=231$), and 12% master's degree ($n=53$). For household income, 81.1% of the sample ($n=354$) fell between \$30,000-\$149,999. For employment status, 73% of the sample ($n=320$) identified as being employed either full time - working 40 or more hours per week, 9.4% self- employed ($n=41$), 8% employed part time – working up to 39 hours per week ($n=34$), or 9% Other ($n=41$). Lastly, 87% of the sample ($n=380$) indicated that they currently or have owned a dog, with 32% of the 380 indicating that they had obtained ownership of the dog from either a shelter ($n=94$) or a rescue organization (non-shelter) ($n=44$).

To understand the participants' awareness of the A.S.P.C.A., three questions were asked. The participants indicated whether they were 29% extremely ($n=126$), 31% quite a bit ($n=133$), 20% moderately ($n=89$), 11% a little ($n=46$), or 10% not at all ($n=42$) familiar when asked 'Are you familiar with the A.S.P.C.A.?'. A majority of the participants indicated that they were *not* currently members of the A.S.P.C.A., 69% No ($n=299$) and 31% Yes ($n=137$). Similarly, most of the participants indicated that they were *not* currently donating to the A.S.P.C.A., 63% No ($n=275$) and 37% Yes ($n=161$). Despite most of the sample being at least moderately familiar with the A.S.P.C.A. (80.3%), a much smaller percentage of the sample are currently members of or are currently donating to the A.S.P.C.A.

4.3 Test of the Hypotheses

After the emotion recall exercise, participants were asked to evaluate their feelings as a separate study. The participants were asked to evaluate five positive emotions (excited, enthusiastic, proud, inspired, good) and five negative emotions (upset, guilty, ashamed, remorseful, bad) on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Not at all to 5-Extremely. The results of the test are summarized in Table 3. Participants primed with guilt vs primed with pride produced statistically significant differences for six of the ten emotions (excited, guilty, proud, inspired, good, bad), but did *not* produce statistically significant differences for four of the emotions (upset, enthusiastic, remorseful, ashamed). As expected, those primed with the guilt recall exercises indicated feeling more guilty (mean difference 1.29; $p < 0.05$) and more badly (mean difference 1.02; $p < 0.05$) than those primed with the pride recall exercises. Inversely, those primed with the pride recall exercises indicated that they were feeling more proud (mean difference 1.46; $p < 0.05$), better [good] (mean difference 1.37; $p < 0.05$), more inspired (mean difference 1.21; $p < 0.05$), and more excited (mean difference 0.81; $p < 0.05$) than those primed with the guilt recall exercises. The results that were not statistically significantly different demonstrate that participants did not feel any more or less enthusiastic, remorseful, upset, or ashamed regardless of the emotion recall exercise that they completed.

Of particular interest to this study are the results for guilt and pride. These two emotions exhibited two of the highest mean differences across conditions. As expected, the guilt recall exercises were more likely to elicit the feeling of guilt ($X_{\text{Guilty}}=3.04$; $p < 0.05$) than the pride recall exercises ($X_{\text{Guilty}}=1.75$; $p < 0.05$). Inversely, the pride recall exercises were more likely to elicit the feeling of pride ($X_{\text{Pride}}=3.69$; $p < 0.05$) than the guilt recall exercises ($X_{\text{Pride}}=2.23$; $p < 0.05$). Assessing the Cohen's d values for Guilt ($d=1.022$) and Pride ($d=1.103$) demonstrates

that the effect size for both were large. These results provide support for the assertion that both recall exercises were successful in eliciting their intended affect; thus, the emotional manipulation used in this experiment was a success. As highlighted earlier, this valence effect existed for more than just the two focal emotions of this study with statistically significant results for Excited, Inspired, Good and Bad.

While not critical to the research questions of this study, it was interesting to examine if the emotion manipulation, advertisement manipulation, and their interaction had any impact on the ad ratings. To accomplish this, I first examined the three questions related to ad ratings ('The ad is easy to understand,' 'The ad is interesting,' 'The ad is likable'). These three questions were all measured on the same 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Completely Disagree to 5-Completely Agree. The Cronbach's alpha for the three measures ($X_{\text{Easy to understand}} = 4.51$, $X_{\text{Interesting}} = 3.97$, $X_{\text{Likability}} = 3.76$) was 0.726. Since the alpha coefficient value was between 0.7 and 0.8, these items can be considered as having acceptable internal consistency. Since this group of items has an acceptable amount of reliability, a new measurement was created in the dataset using the mean of the three items and labeled AdRate.

I submitted ad ratings, a combined measure as discussed above, to a two-way ANOVA, with incidental affect (guilt vs. pride emotion recall manipulations) and the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations) as the between-subjects factors. A two-way ANOVA revealed that there was not a statistically significant interaction between the effects of incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) and the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride) ($F(1,432) = 1.026$, $p = .312$). Incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) did not have a statistically significant main effect on ad ratings ($F(1,432) = 1.438$, $p = .231$). However, the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride) did have a statistically significant main effect on ad ratings ($X_{\text{GuiltAppeal}} = 3.94$, $X_{\text{PrideAppeal}} = 4.22$, $F(1,432) =$

9.503, $p = .002$). Thus, regardless of which emotion the participants were initially incidentally primed with (guilt, pride), the participants were just as likely to rate the advertisements the same (mean difference 0.11; $p > 0.05$). Alternatively, participants were more likely to rate the pride persuasion appeal ($X_{\text{PrideAppeal}} = 4.22$) favorably than the guilt persuasion appeal ($X_{\text{GuiltAppeal}} = 3.94$) (mean difference 0.28; $p < 0.05$). Interpreting the Partial Eta Squared value from the test, 2.2% of the variance in ad ratings can be explained by the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations).

After reviewing the persuasion appeals, participants were asked “After reviewing the last advertisement, how likely would you be to donate to the A.S.P.C.A.?” and “After reviewing the last advertisement, how willing would you be to donate to the A.S.P.C.A.?” These questions were included as measures of the participants’ intention to donate, which is the main dependent variable of this experiment. These two questions were both measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Extremely Unlikely (Unwilling) to 5-Extremely Likely (Willing). The Cronbach’s alpha for the two measures ($X_{\text{Likelihood}} = 3.66$, $X_{\text{Willingness}} = 3.77$) was 0.920. Since the alpha coefficient value was greater than 0.9, the items can be considered as having relatively high internal consistency. Since the items have high reliability, a new measurement was created in the dataset using the mean of the two items and labeled *DonateIntent*.

I submitted donation intentions, a combined measure as discussed above, to a two-way ANOVA, with incidental affect (guilt vs. pride emotion recall manipulations) and the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations) as the between-subjects factors. A two-way ANOVA revealed that there was not a statistically significant interaction between the effects of incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) and the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride) ($F(1,432) = .362$, $p = .548$). Incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) did have a statistically significant main effect on donation

intentions ($X_{\text{Guilt}}=3.55$, $X_{\text{Pride}}=3.88$, $F(1,432) = 8.898$, $p = .003$). The persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride) did have a statistically significant main effect on donation intentions ($X_{\text{GuiltAppeal}}=3.53$, $X_{\text{PrideAppeal}}=3.89$, $F(1,432) = 10.390$, $p = .001$). Reviewing the dependent variable for each condition, the Pride:Pride condition elicited the highest donation intention ($X_{\text{Pride:Pride}} = 4.01$), followed by Guilt:Pride ($X_{\text{Guilt:Pride}} = 3.76$), Pride:Guilt ($X_{\text{Pride:Guilt}} = 3.73$), and Guilt:Guilt ($X_{\text{Guilt:Guilt}} = 3.35$). Interpreting the Partial Eta Squared value from the test, 2.0% of the variance in donation intentions can be explained by incidental affect (guilt vs. pride emotion recall manipulations), while 2.3% of the variance in donation intentions can be explained by the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations).

Next, participants were prompted with two behavioral questions to further elaborate on the main dependent variable of the experiment. After indicating their likelihood and willingness to donate to the A.S.P.C.A., participants were first asked, “Would you like to donate a percentage of the MTurk fee that you are receiving for the completion of this study to the A.S.P.C.A.?” (BD1).” Secondly, participants were informed that: “The authors of this study are giving you the opportunity to donate a portion of your MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A.” They were then asked: “Would you like to donate \$0.50 of the MTurk fee that you are receiving for the completion of this study to the A.S.P.C.A.?” (BD2). Both questions were evaluated on a dichotomous scale where No=0 and Yes=1. The KR-20 value for the two measures ($X_{\text{Donate\%}}=0.49$, $X_{\text{Donate$.50}}=0.56$) was 0.895. Since value was greater than 0.75, the items can be considered as having acceptable consistency.

I used a Binary Logistic Regression model to assess the results of the first behavioral question (BD1). The independent variables in the model were coded as follows: the incidental affect (guilt vs. pride emotion recall manipulations) Guilt -1, Pride +1, the persuasion appeal

(guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations) Guilt -1, Pride +1. Additionally, an interaction variable, named MoodAdInteract, was created as the product of the incidental affect * the persuasion appeal. These independent variables were used to predict who was going to be likely to donate a percentage of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A. The results showed 436 responses with no missing cases. Of the 436 responses, 50.9% ($n=222$) indicated that they would not like to donate a percentage of their MTurk fee, while 49.1% ($n=214$) indicated that they would like to donate a percentage of their MTurk fee.

The Null Model (Block 0) showed that the classification accuracy was 50.9%. Thus, if I were to predict that all participants would like to donate a percentage of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A., I could do so with 50.9% accuracy. However, the result of the Null model was not statistically significant. Block 1 reflected that there was no predictive capacity for this regression model since the model was not statistically significant ($p > .05$). The Nagelkerle R Square value demonstrated that 2.1% of the variability in the desire to donate a percentage of their MTurk fee could be accounted for by the independent variables in the model. There was not a statistically significant result in the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test. In the classification table (Block 1), 56.5% of the participants that had the desire to donate a percentage of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A. were not predicted by the model; however, the predictive capacity of the model did increase as compared to the Null model. In the regression model, the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride) was statistically significant ($p = .014$). Both the incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) ($p = .419$) and the interaction variable ($p = .782$) were not statistically significant. Interpreting the result of the equation variables, a one unit increase of the persuasion appeal, i.e., pride +1 vs. guilt -1, was associated with a 0.239 increase in the Logit variable, which is somewhat similar in nature to the probability of participants donating a percentage of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A.

A Binary Logistic Regression model was rerun to assess the results of the second behavioral question (BD2). The independent variables from the previous model (coded in the exact same fashion) were used again in this model with the intention of predicting whether a respondent would be willing to donate \$.50 of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A. The results showed 436 responses with no missing cases. Of the 436 responses, 44.3% ($n=193$) indicated that they would not like to donate \$.50 of their MTurk fee, while 55.7% ($n=243$) indicated that they would like to donate \$.50 of their MTurk fee.

The Null Model (Block 0) showed that the classification accuracy was 55.7%. Thus, if I were to predict that all participants would like to donate \$.50 of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A., I could do so with 55.7% accuracy. The result of the Null model was statistically significant. Block 1 reflected that there was predictive capacity for this regression model since the model was statistically significant ($p = .017$). The Nagelkerle R Square value demonstrated that 3.2% of the variability in the desire to donate \$.50 of their MTurk fee could be accounted for by the independent variables in the model. There was not a statistically significant result in the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test. In the classification table, 79.8% of the participants that had the desire to donate \$.50 of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A. were not predicted by the model; however, the predictive capacity of the model did increase as compared to the Null model. The predictive capacity of the model (58.5%) was only slightly off (-6.5%) the generally accepted standard for model predictability of (65%) when running Binary Logistic Regression models. In the regression model, only the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride) was statistically significant ($p = .003$). Both the incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) ($p = .283$) and the interaction variable ($p = .530$) were not statistically significant. Interpreting the result of the equation variables, a one unit increase of the persuasion appeal, i.e. pride +1 vs. guilt -1, was associated with a 0.286 increase

in the Logit variable, which is somewhat similar in nature to the probability of participants donating \$.50 of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A.

Participants were asked two final questions: “Earlier in Study #1, you were asked to recall two past experiences of extreme guilt (pride). In light of how you were feeling, how much does this ad connect with you?” Secondly, they were asked: “In light of how you were feeling, does this ad stand out to you?” These final two questions were asked to assess the fit and the salience of the persuasion appeals as it relates to the participants’ emotions primed during the recall exercises. Both questions were assessed on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Not-At-All to 5-Extremely.

I submitted fit to a two-way ANOVA, with incidental affect (guilt vs. pride emotion recall manipulations) and the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations) as the between-subjects factors. A two-way ANOVA revealed that there was not a statistically significant interaction between the effects of incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) and the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride) ($F(1,432) = 0.148, p = .700$). Incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) did not have a statistically significant main effect on fit ($F(1,432) = 0.144, p = .705$). The persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride) did have a statistically significant main effect on fit ($X_{\text{GuiltAppeal}}=3.17, X_{\text{PrideAppeal}}=3.51, F(1,432) = 7.166, p = .008$). Reviewing the ratings of fit for each condition, the Pride:Pride and Guilt:Pride conditions elicited the highest ratings of fit ($X_{\text{Pride:Pride}} = 3.51; X_{\text{Guilt:Pride}} = 3.51$), followed by Pride:Guilt ($X_{\text{Pride:Guilt}} = 3.22$), and Guilt:Guilt ($X_{\text{Guilt:Guilt}} = 3.12$). Interpreting the Partial Eta Squared value from the test, 1.6% of the variance in fit can be explained by the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations).

I submitted salience to a two-way ANOVA, with incidental affect (guilt vs. pride emotion recall manipulations) and the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations) as

the between-subjects factors. A two-way ANOVA revealed that there was not a statistically significant interaction between the effects of incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) and the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride) ($F(1,432) = 0.520, p = .471$). Incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) did not have a statistically significant main effect on salience ($F(1,432) = 0.326, p = .568$). The persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride) did not have a statistically significant main effect on salience ($F(1,432) = 0.132, p = .717$).

4.4 Discussion of Results

The results of the manipulation check supported the assertion that the emotion recall exercises were successful in eliciting their intended affect. The guilt recall exercises elicited more guilt than the pride recall exercises (mean difference 1.29; $p < 0.05$), and the pride exercises elicited more pride than the guilt recall exercises (mean difference 1.46; $p < 0.05$). Both had large effect sizes with Cohen's d values for Guilt ($d=1.022$) and Pride ($d=1.103$). These results demonstrated that both the mean difference and the effect size for pride were larger than those for guilt. This means that the experiment was successful in priming all participants with their intended affect; however, those primed with pride demonstrated a stronger influence of that affect post the recall exercise than those primed with guilt. In addition, the valence effect where the guilt recall exercises elicited more negative emotion (than the pride recall exercises) and the pride recall exercises elicited more positive emotion (than the guilt exercises) existed for more than just the two focal emotions of this study with statistically significant results for excited, inspired, good and bad. The results of the manipulation check at least partially uncovered some of the affect that participants were feeling as they moved to the ad manipulation task.

For the ad ratings of the persuasion appeals, participants were just as likely to rate the advertisements the same regardless of which emotion they were initially primed with (guilt, pride). This means that someone primed with guilt in the emotion recall exercises was just as likely to find the guilt (pride) appeal easy to understand, interesting, and likable as someone that was primed with pride in the emotion recall exercises. However, participants were more likely to rate the pride persuasion appeal favorably than the guilt persuasion appeal (mean difference 0.28; $p < 0.05$). Thus, participants found that the pride appeal overall was easier to understand, more interesting, and more likable than the guilt appeal. This means that the prior emotional state did not play a significant role in producing differential ad ratings; however, the actual manipulation used in the content of the advertisement itself did.

The results of the tests on the dependent variables all provide support in favor of the Positive Affect Dominance (Pride) Hypothesis (H2) with little to no support for the other three competing hypotheses. For donation intentions (likelihood and willingness to donate), there were statistically significant differences for incidental affect, guilt vs. pride emotion recall manipulations, (mean difference 0.33; $p < 0.05$) and the persuasion appeal, guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations, (mean difference 0.36; $p < 0.05$); however, there was no statistically significant difference for the interaction between the two. The Pride:Pride condition elicited the highest donation intention ($X_{\text{Pride:Pride}} = 4.01$), followed by Guilt:Pride ($X_{\text{Guilt:Pride}} = 3.76$), Pride:Guilt ($X_{\text{Pride:Guilt}} = 3.73$), and Guilt:Guilt ($X_{\text{Guilt:Guilt}} = 3.35$). Thus, the conditions that ended with a pride appeal were the most likely to elicit the highest donation intentions. Secondly, the three conditions that involved pride, either in the ad manipulation or in the recall manipulation, all outperformed the condition that involved only guilt in terms of donation intentions. Building on the finding from the ad ratings, this finding for donation intentions demonstrated further

support that participants were more responsive to pride than guilt. There was no evidence of an interaction between the incidental affect (guilt vs. pride) and the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride); however, the matched condition of pride to pride was the superior condition in terms of donation intentions.

The Binary Logistic Regression models for both behavioral questions (BD1 and BD2) provided further support for the Positive Affect Dominance (Pride) Hypothesis (H2). Despite having relatively high internal consistency (alpha coefficient = 0.895) between the two measures, the models for each question produced different results. The model for BD2 where participants were asked to donate \$.50 of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A. resulted in more participants actually donating than in BD1 when participants were asked if they would like to donate a percentage of their MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A. (BD2: No-44.3% ($n=193$), Yes-55.7% ($n=243$) vs. BD1: No-50.9% ($n=222$), Yes- 49.1% ($n=214$)). The Binary Logistic Regression model for BD2 demonstrated that there was predictive capacity for the model since the model had statistical significance ($p < .05$), whereas the model for BD1 did not ($p > .05$). In addition, the model for BD2 demonstrated a higher predictive capacity (58.5%) than the model for BD1 (56.5%). However, both models demonstrated that the persuasion appeal (guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations) was the only statistically significant variable in the model. The incidental affect (guilt vs. pride emotion recall manipulations) and the interaction variable were not statistically significant in either of the models. That said, a one unit increase of the advertisement manipulation, i.e., pride +1 vs. guilt -1, was associated with an incremental positive increase in the Logit variable in both models. The Logit variable is somewhat similar in nature to the probability of participants donating. Despite their differences, both models demonstrated that the persuasion appeal had predictive capacity as it related to either donating a

percentage of or \$.50 of the participants' MTurk fee. More specifically, the models consistently demonstrated that an ad manipulation with pride was more likely to elicit an actual donation (either percentage of or the actual amount of \$.50) than an ad manipulation with guilt. This finding provided further support for the Positive Affect Dominance (Pride) Hypothesis (H2) and builds on the support from the previous two findings for ad ratings and for donation intentions.

In comparing the results for BD1 and BD2, it is interesting to note that MTurk workers overall were more likely to donate their fee when asked to donate a specific amount versus a general percentage. The results for BD1 and BD2 may potentially be explained by a few influences, which would all need to be further investigated. First, some participants might have been aware that the donation of \$.50 could not be deducted from their MTurk fee of \$5.00 given MTurk configurations. If the participants were aware of this fact, the indication of their donation intentions might be artificial since they would know to expect their MTurk fee not to be reduced. Thus, they may have answered "Yes" or "No" to the BD2 question, knowing that regardless of their answer, their actual fee would not be adjusted. Secondly, asking participants if they would like to donate a percentage of their MTurk fee is nebulous, while asking participants if they would like to donate \$.50 provides them with an amount to react to. Understanding the per participant amount provides clarity on exactly what is being asked of the participants. Lastly, participants were informed that the researchers were giving the participants the opportunity to donate. Built into the question is a certain amount of pressure to comply. In addition, participants might have been suspicious that their indications were being tracked and that it might reflect poorly on them if they refused to donate. Thus, they might have felt pressure to donate, regardless of whether they actually wanted to.

In the final tests for fit and salience, there were no statistically significant differences for the incidental affect (guilt vs. pride emotion recall manipulations) for either fit (mean difference 0.06; $p > 0.05$) or for salience (mean difference 0.07; $p > 0.05$). For fit, there was a statistically significant difference for the persuasion appeal, guilt vs. pride advertisement manipulations, (mean difference 0.34; $p < 0.05$). The Pride:Pride and Guilt:Pride conditions elicited the highest ratings for fit ($X_{\text{Pride:Pride}} = 3.51$; $X_{\text{Guilt:Pride}} = 3.51$), followed by Pride:Guilt ($X_{\text{Pride:Guilt}} = 3.22$), and Guilt:Guilt ($X_{\text{Guilt:Guilt}} = 3.12$). Like the results for donation intentions, the conditions that ended with a pride appeal were the most likely to elicit the strongest fit. Secondly, the three conditions that involved pride, either in the ad manipulation or in the recall manipulation, all outperformed the condition that involved only guilt. This result is identical to the one for donation intentions. For salience, there was no statistically significant difference for the advertisement manipulation (mean difference 0.04; $p > 0.05$). For both fit and salience, there were no statistically significant differences in the interactions ($p > 0.05$).

I tested for fit and salience to try and better understand the underlying mechanism that would help explain the results of this experiment. Being that the results for fit mirror the results of donation intention in this experiment, it appears that fit could help us uncover some of the underlying mechanism of donation intentions. Interestingly, the matched condition of Pride:Pride ($X_{\text{Pride:Pride}} = 3.51$) and the unmatched condition of Guilt:Pride ($X_{\text{Guilt:Pride}} = 3.51$) produced the highest indications of fit. In initially justifying my hypotheses, I used fit to rationalize the Affect Congruency Hypothesis where donation intentions were predicted to be strongest when participants were primed with the same emotion as they were served in the persuasion appeal. These results suggest that my initial logic was too narrow. Potentially, the fit of a persuasion appeal to a preexisting affect can expand beyond just valence like I originally reasoned and as

the results of this experiment would suggest. Additional research on this topic would be beneficial. Interestingly, the persuasion appeal served was just as likely to stand out to the MTurk workers regardless of whether it was a pride or a guilt appeal and regardless of whether participants had been primed with guilt or pride in the emotion recall exercises.

The tests on ad ratings, donation intentions, actual donations, and fit resulted in the following conclusions: (1) pride outperformed guilt in soliciting charitable contributions in this experiment, (2) a matched condition of positive self-conscious affect (pride:pride) outperformed all other conditions, and (3) there were no examples of statistical significance for the interaction of incidental affect and the persuasion appeal. Without statistical support for the interaction between the incidental affect and the persuasion appeal, two of the hypotheses of this study, Affect Congruency Hypothesis (H3) and Affect Contrast Hypothesis (H4), can be rejected. Without an interaction, the determination of which hypothesis is dominant comes down to the examination of the main effect. Across all tests, pride outperformed guilt in this experiment. Thus, this experiment has demonstrated support for the second hypothesis, Positive Affect Dominance (Pride) Hypothesis (H2). Therefore, the first hypothesis, Negative Affect Dominance (Guilt) Hypothesis (H1) can be rejected in favor of H2.

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Results Overview

The primary motivations for this study were to contribute to the discussion of self-conscious emotions and to examine how mixed emotions, specifically those of opposite valence (i.e., guilt and pride), function together in a charitable contribution setting. The data collected in this experiment provided support for two conclusions: (1) pride has the potential to outperform guilt in soliciting charitable contributions, and (2) an ad manipulation has a strong influence regardless of what preexisting emotion exists when soliciting charitable contributions. Thus, this study provided the strongest support for the Positive Affect Dominance (Pride) Hypothesis (H2).

5.2 Theoretical Implications

Like previous consumer behavior research involving affect, this design utilized a match-up effect (Septianto et al., 2019). While previous research has matched up emotional appeals and deviation messages, my study matched up incidental affect and persuasion appeals (Septianto et al., 2019). Previous research has examined the matched and unmatched conditions of recalled guilt (pride) and anticipated guilt (pride), whereas my study examined recalled guilt (pride) with a guilt (pride) appeal (Rowe et al., 2019). While the design of this study answered the call to research self-conscious emotions in parallel, it also explored the previously unexplored match up of incidental affect and persuasion appeals involving self-conscious emotions (Rowe et al., 2019). My study also addressed the call to study responses to mixed emotional appeals (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007). Specifically, my study examined whether an unmatched condition (incidental affect that does *not* match affect used in the persuasion appeal) involving two self-conscious emotions (guilt, pride) would drive increased intention to donate as compared to a

matched condition (incidental affect that does match affect used in the persuasion appeal) (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2007).

As it related to emotion recall, this experiment affirms the wealth of consumer behavior research that already exists by further demonstrating that asking individuals to recall two intense experiences of a self-conscious affect can result in them feeling incrementally more of that affect. In addition, this study contributes to the existing research by showing that participants demonstrated more of the positive affect than the negative affect when asked to share about those feelings as it relates to experiences from the past. Secondly, this study contributes to the existing research by showing the valence effect of the emotion recall exercises extended beyond the two focal emotions of this study.

This study contributes to the body of research on self-conscious emotions, persuasion appeals, and charitable contributions in several ways. First, this study demonstrated that the use of a positive self-conscious emotion, pride, can be more successful than the use of a negative self-conscious emotion, guilt, in soliciting charitable contributions. Interestingly, the dominance of positive affect was demonstrated across donation intentions, actual donations, and even in the ad ratings of the persuasion appeals (easy to understand, interesting, likeable), with the ratings for the pride appeal being greater than those for the guilt appeal. Secondly, this study demonstrated that the use of mixed emotions, i.e., unmatched conditions where an individual feels guilty but then sees a persuasion appeal laden with pride, are as likely to be successful as the use of congruent emotions (i.e., matched conditions) when it comes to soliciting charitable contributions. Lastly, this study demonstrated that an ad manipulation can have a strong influence despite very successfully priming participants to feel a specific self-conscious emotion that may or may not align with the persuasion appeal that the participants are being served.

5.3 Practical Implications

From a practitioner standpoint, this paper started off with attempting to understand how persuasion appeals, like Sarah McLaughlin's "Angel" advertisement, became so successful in eliciting donations. For practitioners, the main takeaway from this research is that there is another pathway to successfully soliciting charitable contributions despite a tenured history of relying upon guilt appeals. This notion appears to be true regardless of how the consumer is feeling prior to being presented with an appeal. Based on the results of this study, it appears that when guilt is experienced, it has a longstanding impact on the consumer. This potentially highlights another reason for marketers and charitable organizations to use some type of positive affect in their marketing campaigns. In a world full of negativity where consumers may be primed to feel negative affect (not necessarily just guilt) prior to seeing an ad, it is reasonable to assume that the positive affect used in an advertisement has a better chance of connecting with a consumer. The results of this study affirm that conclusion. Thus, marketers should at least consider the use of positive affect when creating their campaigns for charitable contributions.

In trying to determine what drives consumers to give despite challenging financial times (as was highlighted in the introduction), the idea of messaging laden in positive affect seems like a reasonable explanation. If an individual experienced a financial hardship but was still able to make a charitable contribution, it is reasonable to think that that donation would drive even more pride in the consumer. For example, a consumer who loses their job but is still able to contribute \$15 per month to the A.S.P.C.A. has more reason to feel proud about their donation since they are *still* making the donation despite experiencing financial hardships. Researchers and practitioners alike could examine this scenario to determine if this is in fact the case.

With the increased attention and scrutiny of CRM, it would be interesting to see how the results of this study could be implemented by large companies. While consumer demand for companies to engage in CRM is at an all-time high, how would consumers respond to marketing campaigns laden with pride for a company's good deeds and contributions to the community (CauseGood 2017)? While consumers might expect and prefer brands that engage in socially responsible behavior, would consumers respond favorably to a company that launches campaigns to highlight their good deeds (Landrum 2017)? Also, are there industries or contexts where companies can get away with being prideful of their CRM while others cannot? In attempting to understand how to effectively market a company's CRM, these are all valid and important questions to understand from a practitioner standpoint.

A consumer's affective state is constantly triggered by the stimuli in the environment, and this has the potential to then affect how they respond to the messages, ads, or experiences that they see and have. In this study, I examined how pre-existing affective state (guilt or pride) and differential persuasion appeals (laden in guilt or pride) interact and how that interaction impacts subsequent prosocial behaviors. The findings of this study have important implications for things like messaging, copyright, targeting, packaging, and promotion (to name a few). Strategically using the right balance of affective content in messaging, copyright, and packaging could result in increased sales or contributions. Beyond the frame or content that a marketer is trying to use, strategically targeting where emotional content might fit best or leave the most meaningful impact for consumers is also critical to a campaign's success. For example, as a marketer, if you are familiar with what other brands or organizations are posting and where, do you have the opportunity to differentiate yourself by standing out with a more strategic message

or content, i.e., “This Mother’s Day don’t wait until the last minute...” vs. “This Mother’s Day be proud of your purchase, knowing that you made the thoughtful choice regardless of when...”

5.4 Limitations

For the purposes of this research, the sample size is more than adequate. However, this study could be reperformed with a larger sample size to confirm these results. While the results of this experiment demonstrated strong effect sizes, reperforming the experiment in an in-person environment would eliminate any concern or criticism for having conducted the entire experiment online. There were many steps taken to create an experiment that was balanced, i.e., credible to analyze, respectful in terms of time for completion, and attractive to take (for MTurk workers). If conducted in an in-person environment, other potential controls could have been introduced that would have cleared up certain ambiguities. Another option would be to parse out this study into multiple, separate experiments conducted on MTurk, or via another online research portal, and then continue to solicit the same participants to complete each of phase of the experiment. This is a technique that is often used on MTurk by researchers. Arguably, conducting the study over multiple weeks and in multiple experiments might have further masked the intent of the study as well as raised the level of engagement with participants as they felt more committed to something that they were continuing to participate in. Given the timeline of the dissertation process, there had to be a tradeoff between what can be done now while still producing a meaningful result versus what can be done later as I continue to build on this research.

From an execution standpoint, this study has limitations in terms of structure and context. Conducting the experiment entirely online added the pressure of creating crisp, succinct

statements throughout the experimental design, while also making them meaningful in terms of collecting valuable data. In total, participants viewed 34 slides in the Qualtrics experiment: they viewed 6 introductory slides, they performed 2 writing exercises, they viewed 2 advertisements, and they answered roughly 24 questions in total. Participants were told that it would take a maximum of twenty-five minutes to complete, and that they would be paid a \$5 MTurk fee upon completion. Thus, the study is limited by what data could be collected in a reasonable fashion within twenty-five minutes, while also asking participants to actually do two activities. In addition, participants were paid in exchange for their successful completion of this study, which presents a limitation in that their motivation for completion of the study may have been financial gain versus actual involvement with the topic. Furthermore, it is difficult to gauge how engaged the participants were in the study being that it was conducted entirely online. A cursory review of the written responses to the recall exercises and the demand check did not flag any responses for removal. However, all questions were designed to be forced entry, thus some participants could have “clicked” their way through without remaining fully engaged in the study. Lastly, this study employed the use of print ads for the persuasion appeals. The use of the print ad format could potentially have minimized this study’s potential to create an emotional effect.

There is also the limitation that only super users had the opportunity to complete this study since the study was released to the public and a qualification to restrict super users from taking it was not added to the experiment. Given the fact that the experiment took on average 35 minutes and 46 seconds to complete across the 440 MTurk workers that completed it, it seems reasonable to assume that not only super users completed the experiment. All 440 responses were collected on the same day within 7.5 hours of the experiment being launched on MTurk. Subsequent to completion, three MTurk workers reached out via email with feedback, questions,

or concerns. This all seems to suggest that the sample was overall engaged and not dominated by MTurk super users. Had the maximum number of participants been completed in less than an hour with a shorter average response time and no actual direct communication from MTurk workers, the sample composition and engagement might be a stronger concern.

Beyond structure, the scales used to measure the participants' emotions, ratings, and intentions could serve as another limitation of this study. While the scales were adapted from previous research, they were adapted to accommodate the parsimonious approach to conducting this complex experiment online within a respectful time limit. Secondly, the flow of the experiment could serve as another limitation. The experiment was designed to mask the true intent of the research. However, MTurk workers were provided with a name, a description, and key words of what the research was about before actually participating. In addition, given their familiarity with taking studies such as these on MTurk and their familiarity with research practices in general, it is reasonable to assume that some participants might have been more acutely aware of the use of deception used in the experiment, as well as the true intent of the study, despite not indicating so. Thus, while no surveys were eliminated because of the demand check, it is within reason to believe that some MTurk workers, particularly those super users, are keen enough to not reveal what they truly believe a study is about for fear of doing so would result in them not receiving their MTurk fee. Lastly, the structure of the two behavioral questions was flawed as discussed earlier. The results of these questions would be limited by the idea that MTurk workers could have inauthentically responded to the questions knowing that their MTurk fee would not have been reduced regardless of whether they decided to donate.

Overall, most of the limitations of this study could be addressed by reperforming the study in a controlled environment or reperforming the study online through a series of related

experiments. In either circumstance, controls could be added to address the limitations discussed in this section. However, feedback on the results of this study will be helpful in determining how to best execute a confirmatory analysis of these results, particularly on how to best measure the emotions involved with a study of this nature. As Guar highlighted in his review of literature on emotions in top marketing journals: “Marketing scholars also show uncertainty on how emotions work, the amount of influence emotions have, and how best to measure the effectiveness of emotions” (Guar et al., 2014).

5.5 Future Areas of Research

Despite finding support for the Positive Affect Dominance Hypothesis (Pride), this study would benefit from further research on the underlying theoretical mechanism behind this hypothesis. Future research should examine why positive affect and congruent conditions of positive affect outperformed the others when it came to charitable giving as compared to mixed conditions or congruent conditions of negative affect. In addition, researchers should examine whether the dominance of pride generalizes across other domains beyond donation intentions, i.e., purchase intentions, investment intentions, etc.

Beyond the statistical results of this experiment, a content analysis of the 436 responses submitted to the question, “What do you think this research was about?”, uncovered examples of backlash towards persuasion appeals that utilize negative emotion. Participants voiced their frustrations towards the use of guilt appeals, and some even took it a step further to declare, “that they never fall victim to this kind of manipulation.” Future research should examine why consumers have negative sentiment towards the use of guilt appeals, especially given how widely they are used by charitable organization like the A.S.P.C.A. and healthcare organizations like

children hospital foundations to name a few. In addition, it would be helpful to understand whether the use of guilt appeals is still successful in some contexts (donations to combat childhood cancer), but just not in others (donations to a rescue organization for pets).

While this study examined a mixed-emotion experiment through the lens of guilt vs. pride, it would be interesting to see if studies involving other mixed emotions, like remorse vs. inspiration, shame vs. hope, etc., when performed in the charitable giving context or in other contexts, would produce similar results. It would also be a worthwhile exercise to build on the results of this experiment through the following: (1) further examination of the types of pride and how each contributes to these results; (2) examination of whether the pairing of other self-conscious emotions with guilt and/or pride result in a different outcome; (3) examination of what happens when you control for preexisting moods (emotions) and then perform the experiment; and (4) examination of what happens when the experiment is conducted in an in person environment. Lastly, further exploring how the results of this experiment would vary across those consumers that are highly guilt prone versus not highly guilt prone would be an interesting spinoff of this research and it would also answer calls for research issued in recent years (Zermack et al., 2016).

5.6 Conclusion

This study is the first to assess the differential impact of combining pre-existing emotional states (guilt and pride) with opposing persuasion appeals on consumer motivation to participate in a prosocial behavior. I proposed a series of plausible results from this experiment; as well as explained the rationale for these results through four competing hypotheses. I performed an experimental design to provide support in favor of one of these hypotheses. The

findings of this research will contribute to the recent blossoming surge of research on affect (specifically discrete self-conscious emotions), to the research on persuasion (specifically guilt and pride appeals), as well as to the research on prosocial behavior (i.e., charitable giving). The results of this study provided support for a new pathway to successfully soliciting charitable contributions, i.e. employing the use of positively valenced emotions vs. consistently relying upon the use of negatively valenced emotions. Consumers are constantly exposed to emotion infused stimuli that provide them with information as they make decisions about future consumption (Ki et al., 2017); thus, this research has important implications from a practitioner standpoint for prosocial behavior and for marketing. Hopefully, with the insights from this study, scholars and practitioners can build on a better understanding of the most successful approaches to reaching consumers who are not only thinkers and doers, but also feelers (Kim et al., 2017).

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TABLE 2: 2X2 Experimental Design Sample

Incidental Affect and Persuasion Appeal

	Guilt Appeal	Pride Appeal
Guilt Recall	110 Participants (S1)	107 Participants (S2)
Pride Recall	106 Participants (S4)	113 Participants (S3)
Totals	216 Participants	220 Participants

TABLE 3: Summary of Manipulation Check

Affect Indications post Emotion Recall Exercises

Emotion	Guilt Recall	Pride Recall	Mean Var	P-Value	Cohen's d
E1_Excited***	2.31	3.12	-0.81	.041	.582
E1_Upset	2.53	1.78	0.75	.103	.595
E1_Guilty***	3.04	1.75	1.29	.024	1.022
E1_Enthusiastic	2.26	3.19	-0.93	.299	.723
E1_Proud***	2.23	3.69	-1.46	.000	1.103
E1_Ashamed	2.74	1.78	0.96	.051	.741
E1_Inspired***	2.28	3.49	-1.21	.001	.942
E1_Remorseful	3.07	1.94	1.13	.956	.869
E1_Good***	2.59	3.96	-1.37	.000	1.086
E1_Bad***	2.70	1.68	1.02	.000	.800

*** $p < 0.05$

TABLE 4: 2X2 Comparison of Donation Intention (Means)

Comparison of Mean for Donation Intention Variable across the 4 Conditions

	Guilt Appeal	Pride Appeal
Guilt Recall	3.35	3.76
Pride Recall	3.73	4.01
Mean Difference	0.38*	0.25*

* $p < 0.05$

FIGURE 6: Plot of Incidental Affect for Donation Intentions

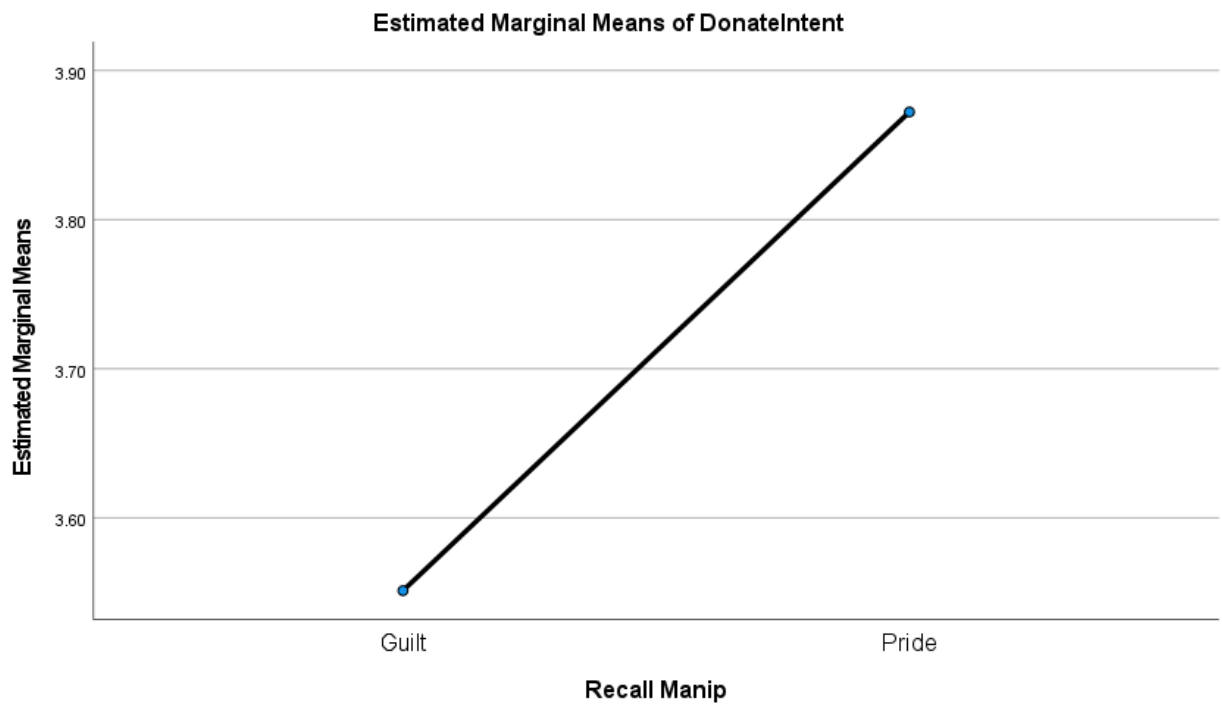


FIGURE 7: Plot of Persuasion Appeal for Donation Intentions

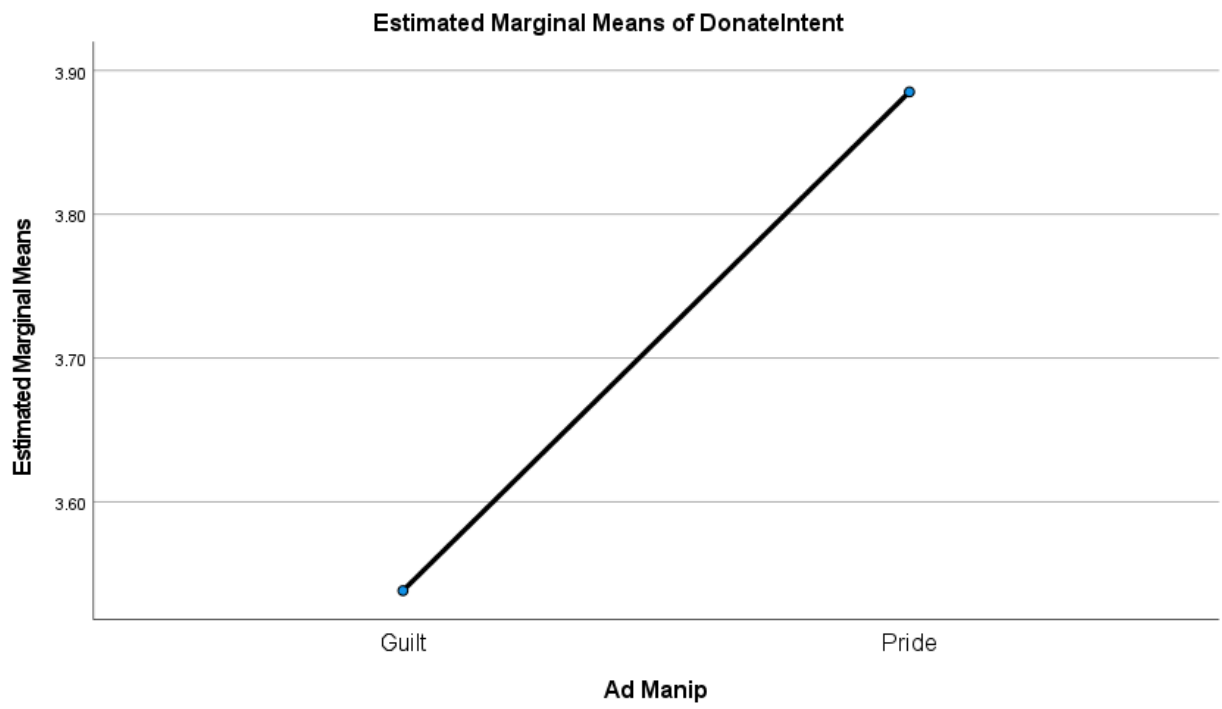
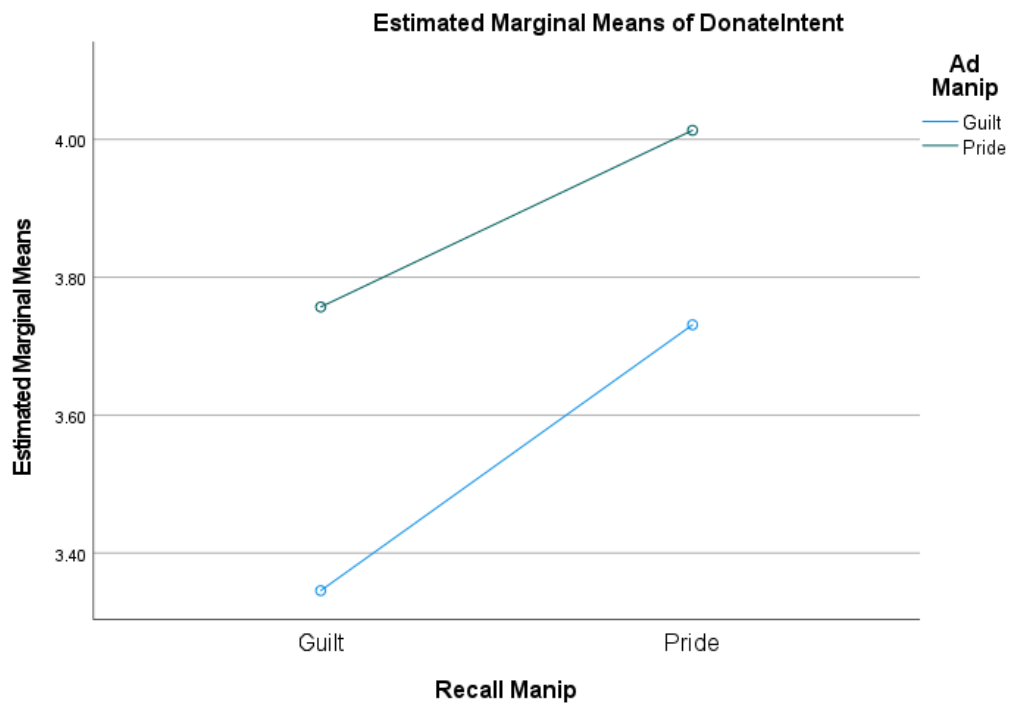


FIGURE 8: Plot of Interaction between Incidental Affect and Persuasion Appeal



APPENDIX A: SPSS Output for Ad Ratings

Between-Subjects Factors

N		
Recall Manip	Guilt	217
	Pride	219
Ad Manip	Guilt	216
	Pride	220

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: AdRate

Recall Manip	Ad Manip	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Guilt	Guilt	3.9333	.85289	110
	Pride	4.1153	.97032	107
	Total	4.0230	.91511	217
Pride	Guilt	3.9497	.91524	106
	Pride	4.3097	.92873	113
	Total	4.1355	.93761	219
Total	Guilt	3.9414	.88201	216
	Pride	4.2152	.95201	220
	Total	4.0795	.92713	436

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: AdRate

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	10.263 ^a	3	3.421	4.064	.007	.027
Intercept	7242.643	1	7242.643	8604.005	.000	.952
RecallManip	1.210	1	1.210	1.438	.231	.003
AdManip	7.999	1	7.999	9.503	.002	.022
RecallManip * AdManip	.864	1	.864	1.026	.312	.002
Error	363.647	432	.842			
Total	7630.000	436				
Corrected Total	373.910	435				

a. R Squared = .027 (Adjusted R Squared = .021)

APPENDIX B: SPSS Output for Donation Intentions

Between-Subjects Factors

N		
Recall Manip	Guilt	217
	Pride	219
Ad Manip	Guilt	216
	Pride	220

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Donatelntent

Recall Manip	Ad Manip	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Guilt	Guilt	3.3455	1.26662	110
	Pride	3.7570	1.04241	107
	Total	3.5484	1.17702	217
Pride	Guilt	3.7311	1.17347	106
	Pride	4.0133	.99207	113
	Total	3.8767	1.09035	219
Total	Guilt	3.5347	1.23418	216
	Pride	3.8886	1.02262	220
	Total	3.7133	1.14487	436

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Donatelntent

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	25.291 ^a	3	8.430	6.684	.000	.044
Intercept	6002.947	1	6002.947	4759.414	.000	.917
RecallManip	11.222	1	11.222	8.898	.003	.020
AdManip	13.105	1	13.105	10.390	.001	.023
RecallManip * AdManip	.456	1	.456	.362	.548	.001
Error	544.872	432	1.261			
Total	6582.000	436				
Corrected Total	570.163	435				

a. R Squared = .044 (Adjusted R Squared = .038)

APPENDIX C: SPSS Output for Logistic Regression OF BD1

Case Processing Summary

Unweighted Cases ^a		N	Percent
Selected Cases	Included in Analysis	436	100.0
	Missing Cases	0	.0
	Total	436	100.0
Unselected Cases		0	.0
Total		436	100.0

a. If weight is in effect, see classification table for the total number of cases.

Dependent Variable
Encoding

Original Value	Internal Value
0	0
1	1

Classification Table^{a,b}

			Predicted		Percentage Correct
			BD1		
Observed			0	1	
Step 0	BD1	0	222	0	100.0
		1	214	0	.0
	Overall Percentage				50.9

a. Constant is included in the model.

b. The cut value is .500

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	-.037	.096	.147	1	.702	.964

Variables not in the Equation

		Score	df	Sig.
Step 0	Variables	Recall Manip #	.746	1
		Ad Manip #	6.222	1
		MoodAdInteract	.088	1
	Overall Statistics		6.951	3

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	6.974	3	.073
	Block	6.974	3	.073
	Model	6.974	3	.073

Model Summary

		Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
Step	-2 Log likelihood		
1	597.303 ^a	.016	.021

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 3 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	.000	2	1.000

Contingency Table for Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

		BD1 = 0		BD1 = 1		Total
		Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Step 1	1	64	64.000	46	46.000	110
	2	59	59.000	47	47.000	106
	3	51	51.000	56	56.000	107
	4	48	48.000	65	65.000	113

Classification Table^a

		Predicted		Percentage Correct
		BD1		
		0	1	
Step 1	BD1	0	1	
		123	99	55.4
		93	121	56.5
Overall Percentage				56.0

a. The cut value is .500

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	Recall Manip #	.078	.097	.654	1	.419	1.081
	Ad Manip #	.239	.097	6.101	1	.014	1.269

MoodAdInteract	.027	.097	.076	1	.782	1.027
Constant	-.040	.097	.173	1	.677	.961

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Recall Manip #, Ad Manip #, MoodAdInteract.

APPENDIX D: SPSS Output for Logistic Regression OF BD2

Case Processing Summary

Unweighted Cases ^a		N	Percent
Selected Cases	Included in Analysis	436	100.0
	Missing Cases	0	.0
	Total	436	100.0
Unselected Cases		0	.0
Total		436	100.0

a. If weight is in effect, see classification table for the total number of cases.

**Dependent Variable
Encoding**

Original Value	Internal Value
0	0
1	1

Classification Table^{a,b}

Observed		Predicted		Percentage Correct
		BD2 0	1	
Step 0	BD2 0	0	193	.0
	1	0	243	100.0
	Overall Percentage			55.7

a. Constant is included in the model.

b. The cut value is .500

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	.230	.096	5.709	1	.017	1.259

Variables not in the Equation

			Score	df	Sig.
Step 0	Variables	Recall Manip #	1.313	1	.252
		Ad Manip #	8.803	1	.003
		MoodAdInteract	.402	1	.526
	Overall Statistics		10.397	3	.015

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	10.415	3	.015
	Block	10.415	3	.015
	Model	10.415	3	.015

Model Summary

		Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
Step	-2 Log likelihood		
1	588.263 ^a	.024	.032

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 3 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	.000	2	1.000

Contingency Table for Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

		BD2 = 0		BD2 = 1		Total
		Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Step 1	1	61	61.000	49	49.000	110
	2	50	50.000	56	56.000	106
	3	41	41.000	66	66.000	107
	4	41	41.000	72	72.000	113

Classification Table^a

		Predicted		Percentage Correct
		BD2		
Observed		0	1	
Step 1	BD2 0	61	132	31.6
	1	49	194	79.8
	Overall Percentage			58.5

a. The cut value is .500

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	Recall Manip #	.105	.098	1.154	1	.283	1.111
	Ad Manip #	.286	.098	8.597	1	.003	1.331

MoodAdInteract	-.061	.098	.395	1	.530	.941
Constant	.233	.098	5.714	1	.017	1.263

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Recall Manip #, Ad Manip #, MoodAdInteract.

APPENDIX E: Experimental Design and Survey

I1:	Introductory Slide 1
I2:	Introductory Slide 2
RIntro:	Recall Study Introduction
R1:	Recall Exercise 1 (Guilt or Pride)
R2:	Recall Exercise 2 (Guilt or Pride)
EIntro:	Co-Occurrence of Emotions Study Intro
E1:	Please take a moment to think about how you are feeling right now. Then please read the list of emotions below and indicate how well each of these characterizes how you are feeling right now (Not at all, A Little, Moderately, Quite a Bit, Extremely)
	E1_1: Excited
	E1_2: Upset
	E1_3: Guilty
	E1_4: Enthusiastic
	E1_5: Proud
	E1_6: Ashamed
	E1_7: Inspired
	E1_8: Remorseful
	E1_9: Good
	E1_10: Bad
PAIntro:	Ad Review Study Intro
PA1:	Ad 1 - Black & Decker Filler Ad
PA2:	The following is a series of statements that could be used to describe the ad. For each statement, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree. The ad... (Completely Agree, Somewhat Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Somewhat Disagree, Completely Disagree)
	PA2_1: Is easy to understand
	PA2_2: Is interesting
	PA2_3: Is likable
PA3:	Ad 2 - Persuasion Appeal for A.S.P.C.A (Guilt or Pride)

- PA2: The following is a series of statements that could be used to describe the ad. For each statement, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree. The ad... (Completely Agree, Somewhat Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Somewhat Disagree, Completely Disagree)
- PA4_1: Is easy to understand
- PA4_2: Is interesting
- PA4_3: Is likable
- PA5: After reviewing the last advertisement, how likely would you be to donate to the A.S.P.C.A.? (Extremely likely, Moderately likely, Neither likely or unlikely, Moderately unlikely, Extremely unlikely)
- PA6: After reviewing the last advertisement, how willing would you be to donate to the A.S.P.C.A.? (Extremely willing, Moderately willing, Neither willing or unwilling, Moderately unwilling, Extremely unwilling)
- BD1: Would you like to donate a percentage of the MTurk fee that you are receiving for the completion of this study to the A.S.P.C.A.? (Yes, No)
- BD2: The authors of this study are giving you the opportunity to donate a portion of your MTurk fee to the A.S.P.C.A. With your consent, the researchers of this study will make a donation to the A.S.P.C.A. for the participants of this study who elect to donate their MTurk fees. Would you like to donate \$0.50 of the MTurk fee that you are receiving for the completion of this study to the A.S.P.C.A.? (Yes, No)
- EV: Please read each item below and then select the descriptor that best describes how you are currently feeling about yourself. (Not at all, Slightly, Moderately, Very, Extremely)
- EV1_1: Remorseful
- EV1_2: Bad
- EV1_3: Guilty
- EV1_4: Pleased
- EV1_5: Good
- EV1_6: Proud
- DE1: What do you think this research was about?

- F2: Earlier in Study #1, you were asked to recall two past experiences of extreme guilt (or pride). In light of how you were feeling, how much does this ad connect with you? (Extremely, Quite a bit, Moderately, A little, Not at all)
- F3: In light of how you were feeling, does this ad stand out to you? (Extremely, Quite a bit, Moderately, A little, Not at all)
- DI: You are making good progress. Please answer the following wrap up questions.
- D1: Which gender do you identify most with?
- D2: What is your age?
- D3: How would you describe yourself?
- D4: What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed?
- D5: Information about income is very important to understand. Would you please give your best guess? Please indicate the answer that includes your entire household income in (previous year) before taxes.
- D6: What is your current employment status?
- D7: Do you currently or have you ever owned a dog?
- D9: From where did you acquire ownership of the dog?
- D10: Are you familiar with the A.S.P.C.A.? (Yes, No)
- D11: Are you currently a member of the A.S.P.C.A.? (Yes, No)
- D12: Do you currently donate to the A.S.P.C.A.? (Yes, No)

APPENDIX F: Advertisements

Filler Advertisement

Guilt Appeal (Advertisement)



This is Cooper.

Cooper has been dropped off at an animal shelter and has been unable to find a new home.

You are Cooper's last chance. Any hesitation from you to donate and help rescue him will likely cost Cooper his life.

How could you enjoy the rest of your day knowing that without your personal support Cooper's time is limited?

Go to *ascpa.org* to donate and save Cooper.

Pride Appeal (Advertisement)



This is Cooper.

Cooper has been dropped off at an animal shelter and has been unable to find a new home.

Thanks to you, Cooper still has a chance. With a donation, you will make a big difference and help Cooper survive another day to find a new life.

Be proud in every moment for the rest of the day knowing that your actions saved Cooper's life.

Go to *ascpa.org* to donate and save Cooper.