

Curtin Business School

School of Marketing

**Conceptualising Guilt Appeals in Advertising: The Mediating Roles of
Inferences of Manipulative Intent and Attitude towards Advertising**

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to extend the knowledge on the three classifications of guilt; Existential, Anticipatory and Reactive in the luxury branding context. Previously advertisers and scholars used guilt as a unified concept and this research explains why future studies should use specific types of guilt by identifying the differences with empirical support. To measure these differences the research developed and validated three scales that are specific to each type of guilt.

The study also provides a holistic model that investigates the key variables that have a direct and indirect influence on each type of guilt in three luxury product categories (non-durable, durable, service). Variables such as ad credibility, attitude towards the advertisement and inferences of manipulative intent and purchase intention were used to measure the effectiveness of guilt appeals. This is the first research to systematically compare the differences between each type of guilt in a non-charitable donation context.

Using a factorial experimental design (3x3) the research will examine the effectiveness of each type of guilt in each product category. A variety of analysis techniques were used, more specifically, SEM and mediation analysis were used to test the model.

Results indicate significant differences between the three classifications of guilt in each of the luxury product category. The findings show that each type of guilt was different in predicting behaviour. Reactive guilt appeal was more powerful in promoting non-durable luxury products. While anticipatory guilt appeal was less effective in promoting durable luxury products. On the other hand, existential guilt appeal did not predict behaviour but was able to predict purchase intentions indirectly through attitude towards the advertisement.

The findings also suggest that attitude towards the ad and inferences of manipulative intent are the two key variables that can determine the effectiveness of guilt appeals. The results showed evidence that these variables mediated the relationship between guilt and other variables. For example, IMI consistently mediated the relationships across nine studies and attitude towards the ad was just as influential.

The most significant contribution of the research is the development of the three guilt scales. These scales provided a more accurate measure and allowed comparisons between the three types of guilt. The findings from the study have bridged many gaps in the literature. Further, it educates scholars, branding managers and policy makers on the relative effectiveness of each type of guilt so that they can make better decisions. The findings of the research have provided a sound foundation for future studies and hopefully it has reinvigorated research interests into guilt appeals.

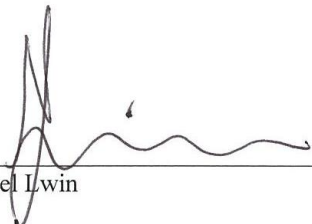
Key words: Guilt, Existential, Anticipatory, Reactive, Emotion, Persuasion, Affect, Manipulation, Luxury Brand, Scale Development

STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made.

This thesis contains no material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.



Michael Lwin
15-Mar-2013

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND OF GUILT

Guilt is commonly described as a **motivating, action-oriented emotional** appeal that is evoked due to the unambiguous nature of linkage between feeling of guilt and actions that led to its elicitation (Lewis 1993). Traditionally, guilt is researched as a unified concept and this has produced mixed results (e.g. Chang 2011; Coulter and Pinto 1995). However, the literature clearly indicates that there are three classifications of guilt appeals, namely, **existential, anticipatory, and reactive** guilt appeals (Izard 1977; Rawlings 1970). Unified form of guilt appeals are commonly used by advertisers to influence consumers' behaviour in numerous contexts including, social marketing (Alden and Crowley 1995; Becheur et al. 2007; Bennett 1998; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005), marketing communications (Ghingold 1980; Pinto and Priest 1991) and advertising (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995). It has been empirically shown to influence consumer decision making process (Burnett and Lunsford 1994), ad and brand attitudes (Coulter and Pinto 1995; Godek and LaBarge 2006), and charitable donation intentions (e.g. Chang 2011; Hibbert et al. 2007).

While this suggests that guilt appeals could be applied across numerous contexts, the majority of the research in recent years has focused more on the use of guilt appeals in a charitable donation context (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005; Lwin and Phau 2008). However, currently guilt appeals have gained importance in the society due to *changing demographics* (higher number of females in the workforce), *Changing lifestyles* (more people working longer hours in 2002, 1.7 million Australians worked 50 hours or more per week, twice as many as 1982 (ABS 2003)), *Changing societal values: greater emphasis on the environment* (Gibbons and Nye 2007) and *health* (Wooten 2000). Due to these changes, the use of guilt appeals is shifting away from the social marketing context to hedonic and luxury brands (Doherty 2012; Fahmy 2009, 2013; Maguire 2012; Murphy 1994).

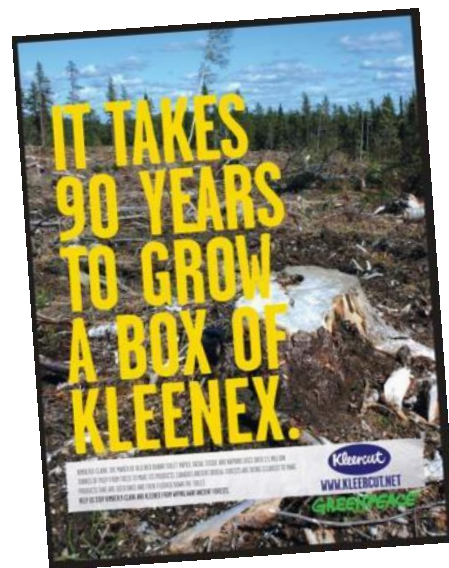
Guilt appeals are described as one of the negative emotional appeals that are available for advertisers (Chang 2011). Some researchers have suggested that negative appeals result in unfavourable attitude towards the advertisement (Burke and Edell 1989; Edell and Burke 1987). However past studies have shown a positive relationship between guilt and behavioural intentions (e.g. Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007), and it could provide a strategic tool for advertisers in a competitive and cluttered advertising industry (e.g. Anderson et al. 2012; Hossain 2012; Jhally 1998; Perloff 2012).

Guilt appeals could provide an edge as it could be used as a mechanism to regulate social functions in the relationship between self and others (Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; De Rivera 1984; Hibbert et al. 2007; Scheff 1984). One of the key human desires in psychology is to belong and be loved by others that are close to you (e.g. families and friends), as well as individuals that are not within your social group (Amichai-Hamburger and Vinitzky 2010; Maslow 1943; Merchant 2012; Yoganasimhan 2012). Thus, guilt appeals can act as a vehicle to repair relationships and it is one of the most persuasive forms of communication that is available to advertisers due to the action oriented nature of the emotion (e.g. Chang 2011).

The persuasive nature of guilt is clearly underpinned by theory, for example the Negative State Model suggests that individuals are driven by innate feelings to reduce negative emotions (Cialdini and Kenrick 1976). However, the use of guilt appeals warrants a strong understanding of the persuasion process (Friestad and Wright 1994; Perloff 2012). It has been suggested that consumers are active readers of advertisements therefore guilt appeals must consider these factors before implementation. For example, a number of organisations in environmental, humanitarian and animal welfare have misused guilt appeals with severe consequences (backlash from consumers) (BBC UK News 2012; Charity Times 2007). See Exhibit 1 for examples for guilt appeals that used guilt appeals inappropriately. Thus, it is imperative for all advertisers to understand how guilt appeals operate. This is more relevant for industries that heavily rely on image, reputation and branding (e.g. luxury brands) (e.g. Buil, de Chernatony, and Martinez 2013; Keller 2009). A “blunder” in the communication

strategy for luxury brands such as Godiva Chocolates, Bulgari Jewellery and Banyan Tree Holiday Resorts can deteriorate brand equity very quickly. As such, key persuasion measures such as ad credibility and inferences of manipulative intent should be measured against key advertising effectiveness measures such as attitude towards the advertisement, guilt arousal and purchase intention (e.g. Anderson et al. 2012; Campbell 1995; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Hossain 2012; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; Perloff 2012).

Exhibit 1: Inappropriate Execution of Guilt Appeals



RESEARCH ISSUE / JUSTIFICATION AND OBJECTIVES

As mentioned earlier, traditionally researchers have employed a unified concept of guilt (e.g. Chang 2011; Coulter and Pinto 1995), while literature clearly indicates that there are three classifications of guilt appeals, namely, **existential**, **anticipatory**, and **reactive** guilt appeals (Izard 1977; Rawlings 1970). Recent studies that specifically used each type of guilt have shown positive results (e.g. Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005). However, one of the major reasons why there is a vacuum of guilt appeals research in recent years is due to a lack of a reliable measure for the three types of guilt. As a discipline, very limited progress can be achieved without an accurate measure. For example, studies that tested the effectiveness of specific types of guilt appeals relied on scales that are designed to measure the unified guilt construct (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Lindsey 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007). The problem escalates further when guilt appeals are shown to be domain specific (Kugler and Jones 1992; Mosher 1968). That is, the use of a composite scale cannot assess specific domains that are related to consumer's behaviour in the luxury brand context (Mosher 1968).

Guilt appeals have been researched extensively in the charitable donation context (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005), however there is limited research in other contexts. For example, there is no research in the luxury branding context, yet there is strong evidence to suggest that it could be applicable in repairing relationships (Fahmy 2013; Maguire 2012; Murphy 1994; Perloff 2012).

In relation to understanding the three types of guilt, the literature lacks a robust and an empirically established framework to compare the effectiveness of each classification of guilt (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). Godek and LaBarge (2006) was one of a few to empirically test and compare the effectiveness of anticipatory and reactive guilt appeals. To date, no one has conducted a conceptual comparison between the three classifications of guilt. This is a major gap in the literature, as researchers and managers are dubious on the relative effectiveness of guilt appeals.

Further, researchers have shown that guilt appeals are more commonly used than fear appeals (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). Their research indicates that guilt appeals are predominately used in **non-durable**, **durable** and **service** product categories (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). Their research fulfilled a key gap in the literature by identifying where guilt appeals are being utilised, however it does not indicate which type of guilt appeal is more effective in each context. Therefore, comparisons between the three types of guilt in these three product categories are required.

Moreover, key studies in the advertising literature have conceptualised the direct influences of guilt appeals (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008). A lack of empirical models in the discipline has further inhibited the understanding of guilt appeals in advertising (e.g. Coulter and Pinto 1995). Thus, a holistic model that comprises of direct and indirect relationships is needed. Scholars have identified attitude towards the advertisement and inferences of manipulative intent as the two most important variables that could influence the effectiveness of guilt appeals (Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Perloff 2012).

In summary, the study will (1) undertake the development of three specific guilt scales to measure the three classifications of guilt, (2) measure and compare the effectiveness of each type of guilt in the luxury brand context, (3) evaluate and compare the effectiveness of each type of guilt in three product categories and (4) develop a conceptual model that incorporates the direct and indirect relationship of all key variables. In light of these conceptualisations, the key research question for this study is **‘How do the specific types of guilt appeals (existential, anticipatory, and reactive) differ in their effect on consumer’s behaviour in the luxury brand context’**. More specifically, the research questions and objectives for the study are:

Research Question One: What is the relative effectiveness and measure of each type of guilt appeals for purchase intentions of different product categories and industries?

Objective 1: To develop three distinctive scales to measure the three types of guilt (Gap 1)

Objective 2: To develop a research framework that specifically measures different types of guilt appeals in the luxury brand industry (Gap 2)

Objective 3: To measure the relative effectiveness of each type of guilt appeals in non-durable, durable and service product categories (Gap 3)

Research Question Two: What variables have direct and indirect influences on the effectiveness of guilt appeal?

Objective 4: To develop a research framework for guilt arousal that incorporates key constructs including ad credibility, attitude towards the advertisement, IMI and purchase intention (Gap 4)

Objective 5: To test the mediating roles of attitude towards the advertisements and IMI with other variables in the guilt framework (4 sets of mediations) (Gap 4)

DELIMITATIONS AND SCOPE

In order to achieve the research questions effectively this section will provide the delimitations and the scope of the study. The **primary** focus of the study is to understand how respondents would react to each type of guilt appeals. As such, the research will only focus on the effectiveness of three classifications of guilt, existential, anticipatory and reactive guilt. Furthermore, the lack of research in the non-charitable donation context has prompted the study to focus on the use of guilt appeals in the luxury branding context. Changes in societal values have ignited a growing popularity and relevancy of guilt appeals in recent years (e.g. Doherty 2012; Fahmy 2009, 2013; Maguire 2012; Murphy 1994). In consultation with the literature, it has been suggested that guilt appeals are predominately utilised in non-durable, durable and service products (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). As such the study will only focus on luxury brands from these product categories.

In the interest of achieving a desired comparison between the studies, a homogenous sample is required to control for external factors (DeVecchio 2000). By limiting respondents to the same 'life stages' (being in this case students) the researcher can control and reduce external factors that may influence the respondent's proneness to guilt (Silfver et al. 2008). Thus, subjects are limited to being aged between 18 and 26 years of age. This age group is seen as the targeted for luxury brands in the market place (Doherty 2012; Fahmy 2009, 2013; Maguire 2012; Murphy 1994).

DEFINITIONS AND KEY UNDERPINNINGS

Definitions

For the purpose the study, the following definitions are adopted:

- **Guilt appeal:** A motivating, action-oriented emotional appeal that is evoked due to the unambiguous nature of linkage between feeling of guilt and actions that led to its elicitation (Lewis 1993).
- **Existential guilt appeal (EGA):** An appeal that evokes guilt as a result of a **comparison** between one's own well-being and others' well-being (Izard 1977).
- **Anticipatory guilt appeal (AGA):** An appeal that evokes guilt when an individual contemplates a **potential** violation of one's own standards (Rawlings 1970).
- **Reactive guilt appeal (RGA):** An appeal that evokes guilt as a **response to the past** and over an act of having violated those standards (Rawlings 1970).
- **Ad credibility (A_{cr}):** The "extent to which the consumer perceives claims made about the brand in the advertisement to be **truthful and believable**" (MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).
- **Inferences of manipulative intent (IMI):** "Consumer inferences that the advertiser is attempting to **persuade by inappropriate, unfair or manipulative means**" (Campbell 1995).

- **Attitude towards the ad (A_{ad}):** “Predisposition to respond in a **favourable or unfavourable** manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion” (Lutz 1985).
- **Purchase intention (PI):** Planned behavioural response to acquire or obtain a product or a service (Ajzen 1991).

KEY UNDERPINNINGS

The study is underpinned by three overarching theories namely Cognitive Dissonance Theory, Heuristic-Systematic Model and Elaboration Likelihood model. A brief description is as follows:

Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Cognitive Dissonance Theory suggests that consumers will feel anxiety or discomfort when there is an existence of two inconsistent beliefs (Festinger 1957). Dissonance occurs when the individual commits to a behaviour and then assesses the meaning of the behaviour against their own standards (Stone and Cooper 2001). When the beliefs contradict with the behaviour, the assessment of the person’s past behaviour will evoke anxiety and discomfort. Cognitive Dissonance Theory is applicable to guilt appeals because the feelings of guilt drive dissonance (e.g. consumers believe that smoking is bad for their health (belief) but they continue to smoke (behaviour). Belief contradicts with behaviour, and when the consumer assesses their past behaviour it will evoke guilt, anxiety and discomfort. As the result, the consumer may be pressured to quit smoking to reduce these negative feelings). That is, the feeling of guilt is aroused when the individual’s behaviour is inconsistent with their standards. As such consumers have the urge to reduce the feelings of guilt based on self-assessment of their failures.

Heuristic-Systematic Model

The Heuristic-Systematic Model explains how consumers process persuasive information to satisfy their goals using two approaches (Chaiken 1980). The first approach is known as the **Systematic approach**, this is when consumers use cognitive resources to process the

message. The information that is provided from the advertisement is processed analytically by consumers before making the judgements. That is, consumers will assign cognitive resources to judge whether the advertisement is credible (ad credibility) and whether the advertiser is using appropriate means to communicate (inferences of manipulative intent). The second approach is referred to as the **Heuristic approach**, in this approach consumers use previous experiences to make the judgement. These judgements are formed by previous memories or “knowledge”. Consumer’s previous experiences may determine their ability to cope with the feeling of guilt, thus it may influence the intensity of the guilt feelings that is evoked after watching a stimulus.

Elaboration Likelihood Model

The Elaboration Likelihood Model shows that consumer’s attitude could be formed differently due to the way they process the advertising (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). The theory suggests that there are routes of processing, the **central** and **peripheral** route of processing could be used to process the advertisement. Consumers will process the message using central route of processing when they are more involved in purchasing the product. This method involves high cognitive processing to scrutinise the persuasion attempt (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). On the other hand, peripheral route of processing analyses the message with limited elaboration and cognitive processing (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). This method relies more on the environmental characteristics such as credibility of the source, attractiveness of the source, or other visual aspects of the advertisement to influence the decision making process. It has been suggested that consumers use this approach as a mental shortcut to accept or reject the message, rather than using cognitive processing to evaluate the relevant information.

Other Secondary Theories

Furthermore, the relationship for each hypothesis is underpinned by other secondary theories in conjunction with the overarching theories as discussed in the preceding section. These include the following:

- **Cognitive Response Theory** (Greenwald 1968) (H1, H2, H9 and H11) is defined as a method to understand how consumers respond to persuasive communication by acquiring and changing their attitudes.
- **Attribution Theory** (Heider 1958) (H3) is defined as how individuals interpret cause and effect relationships, and how this influences their thinking and behaviour.
- **Self-perception Theory** (Bem 1972) (H3) is defined as the motivation to act in accordance with their attitudes and behaviours.
- **Persuasion Knowledge Model** (Friestad and Wright 1994) (H4, H11 and H12) explains how consumers cope with persuasion attempts by building knowledge about advertiser's persuasion techniques.
- **Reactance Theory** (Brehm 1966) (H5, H6, H11 and H12) is defined as the motivation to reject forceful messages due to perceived loss of freedom.
- **Equity Theory** (Adams 1965) (H5, H6, H11 and H12) is defined as the perception of a fair/unfair exchange.
- **Dual Mediation Hypothesis** (MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986) (H10 and H11) explains how attitude towards the advertisement can affect other variables through beliefs and liking.
- **Negative State Model** (Cialdini and Kenrick 1976) (H7) is defined as the innate drive to reduce negative emotions.
- **Theory of Planned Behaviour** (Ajzen 1991) (H8) is defined as the theory that shows attitudes, subjective norms, perceived control and intentions to predict behaviour.

METHODOLOGY

In line with previous studies (e.g. Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007) data is captured using self-administered surveys. The research is to be conducted in two parts. The first study (as explained in Chapter 5) will develop the scales and validate the three scales to measure the three types of guilt (existential, anticipatory and reactive). These scales are used as manipulation check in the second study (main study – Chapter 6). For the main study, the developed guilt scales are replicated in different product categories to further validate and generalise the guilt scales. Further, previously developed scales for A_{cr} , IMI, A_{ad} and PI derived from past studies are adopted and added to the survey instrument (Campbell 1995;

Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995; Holak and Havlena 1998; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; Putrevu and Lord 1994). The survey instrument design for the main study is discussed below:

- **Part A:** Prior attitude towards the brand (manipulation check)
- **Part B:** Filler task: watch humour ad
- **Part C:** Emotional response - Standardised Emotion Profile (SEP Scale)
- **Part D:** Watch guilt ad
- **Part E:** Emotional response - SEP, (EGA/AGA/RGA), A_{cr} , IMI, A_{ad} and PI

To test the model, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) and a combination of Baron and Kenny mediation method and Sobel mediation tests were used (Baron and Kenny 1986; Sobel 1982). Further, Pearson Correlation, Cronbach's Alpha and, exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis are the key statistical techniques utilised in the study.

EXPECTED RESULTS

As discussed previously, an empirical research void for guilt appeals exists in the literature for the three types of guilt appeals (as opposed to the unified form of guilt appeal). The issues and complications on related topics have been identified as deficient areas of the advertising literature (e.g. Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). To test the hypotheses and, answer the research questions and objectives (see Chapter 3) a sound research methodology (discussed in Chapter 4), a number of relevant scales / measures and appropriate research techniques have been adopted and developed. The first study will develop and validate the **existential**, **anticipatory** and **reactive** guilt scales using nine studies (see Chapter 5). It is predicted that these scales will measure differences in respondent's reactions to the three types of guilt in three product categories (non-durable, durable and service). For the main study, a new set of data will be collected using a 3 x 3 (3 types of guilt x 3 types of product) factorial experimental design. The results for the nine studies are discussed in Chapter 6. Findings and

implications for conceptual, methodological and managerial significance are expected to be uncovered (these are discussed in Chapter 7).

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The key research question of this thesis is to examine how specific types of guilt appeals (existential, anticipatory, and reactive) differ in their effect on consumer's behaviour in the luxury brand context. As an overview, significant differences were recorded between the effectiveness of each type of guilt in the three product categories, thus it indicate the need for a shift in the paradigm of researchers, practitioners and policy makers using guilt appeals. This research is designed to achieve conceptual, methodological, and managerial significance as follows:

Conceptual Significance

Firstly, it empirically shows evidence of **three distinctive types of guilt** (existential, anticipatory and reactive scales) which will provide a much needed measure for each specific type of guilt. This is a significant conceptual contribution to literature as it allows the three types of guilt to be empirical tested for relative effectiveness.

Further, the study will **investigate the effectiveness of guilt appeals in a luxury brand context** and it provides a much needed expansion of our knowledge of guilt appeals in non-charitable advertising context. Additionally, this study will provide a new conceptual understanding as it is the **first empirical research** to investigate the effectiveness of **guilt appeals in the luxury brand context** (H1-H12).

More specifically, the research is also the **first to examine and compare** the effectiveness of each type of **guilt methodologically in three product categories**. This is a major leap in increasing the understanding of guilt appeals as Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) has shown where and how often each type of guilt is being used. And now this research will extend their

research by empirically showing how effective each type of guilt is in each of the three product categories.

The study further extends previous models in guilt appeals by incorporating **variables that could have direct and indirect influences on the effectiveness of guilt**. Previous studies relied on models that only incorporate variables that have a direct influence on the effectiveness of guilt appeals (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). Thus, the current study is one of the first to investigate the direct and indirect influences of attitude towards the ad and inference of manipulative intent on guilt appeals.

Methodological Significance

The most significant methodological contribution for the study is the **development and validation of the three specific scales to measure the three types of guilt reactions**. The scale development procedure is discussed in Chapter 5 and it entails three steps, nine studies, and 1890 respondents, resulting in a unidimensional 6-item scale for existential guilt, a 4-item scale for anticipatory guilt and a 7-item scale for reactive guilt.

The second methodological significance of the study is the process that will be used to develop the scales. The scale development procedure will follow the traditional guilt scale development procedure by generating the scale items based on literature reviews (Churchill 1979), thesaurus searches (Wells, Leavitt, and McConville 1971), and experience surveys (Chen and Wells 1999; Churchill 1979). However, the significance of the study is, it will capture the **essence of each scale** by sourcing the scale items **from the cues** that are used in the execution for each type of guilt appeals (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997).

Moreover, the process of generating, purifying and validating the three guilt scales is also a significant contribution to theory. Previous researchers used text scenarios to differentiate and measure guilt (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995; Godek and

LaBarge 2006; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). However, guilt is an enduring and action oriented emotion (Lewis 1993), thus print and text scenarios may not be effective at evoking guilt. As such, the study provides a methodological contribution by analysing Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using real broadcast advertisements that contained images, sounds and animations that are more engaging to elicit guilt feelings (Chaudhuri and Buck 1995).

Managerial Significance

There are a number of managerial contributions from the study. A snap shot of the findings that is established from hypothesis testing is provided in the following section. To provide a more structured overview the significance of the study has been summarised under each heading.

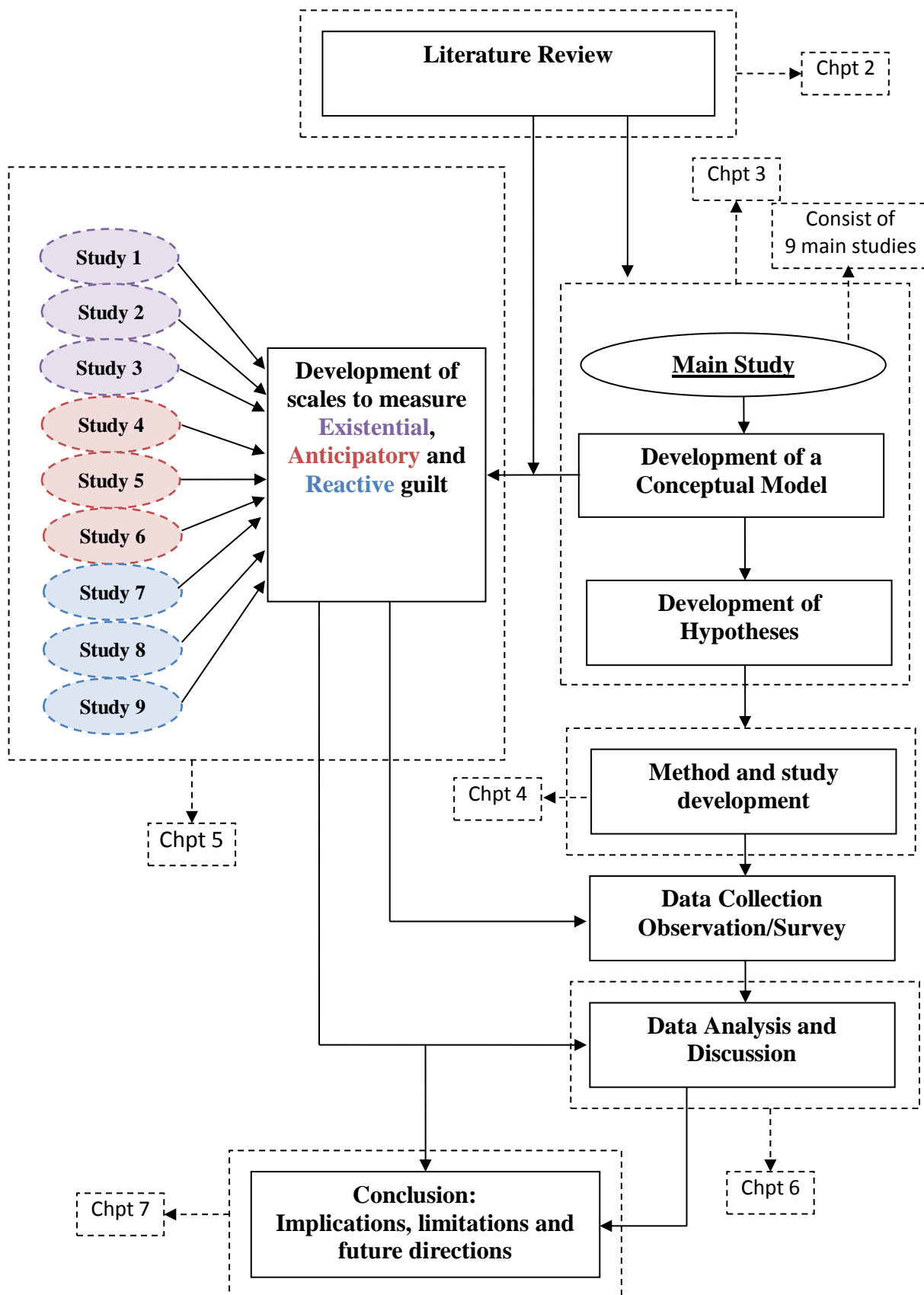
(a) **Relative effectiveness:** The study will compare and show the relative effectiveness of each type of guilt in each product category. This will provide a blue print for advertisers, brand managers and policy makers. That is, the study will provide important information on when each type of guilt should be used (e.g. existential guilt could be more effect in a charitable donation context, anticipatory guilt could be more effective for preventive scenarios and reactive guilt could be more effective for repairing relationships).

(b) **Key constructs for guilt appeals:** The study will identify the constructs that are crucial in increasing advertising effectiveness. It is predicted that there are differences between the three types of guilt (Izard 1977; Rawlings 1970) and their relationship with key advertising persuasion and effectiveness measures. Thus, the study will attempt to uncover these differences. In doing so, it will identify which constructs are the key for each type of guilt and advertisers, brand managers and policy makers may need to reconsider using guilt appeals if their advertisement performs poorly on these constructs.

(c) **Advertising cues and elements:** The study will identify which cues and elements are more important for each type of guilt appeal. For example, should the advertisement focus more on facts and figures to make it more credibility or use visual elements to make the advertisement more attractive and likeable? This will help advertisers and brand managers create guilt advertisements that employ the right mixture of cues and elements for each type of guilt. Thus, the study will show how much persuasion is appropriate for each context.

The research process undertaken to achieve these objectives and significant contributions is shown by Figure 1. This shows the process and related chapters for the research undertaken.

Figure 1 A Schematic Overview of the Research Process



CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The thesis highlights the need to move away from the ‘unified’ view on guilt appeals and the study of previous work on guilt appeals demands more rigorous empirical research. As seen in Figure 1 the dissertation is structured as follows; Chapter 2 contains the literature review exploring guilt appeals and its use in marketing. Next, the theoretical framework and development of the hypotheses for this study is explained in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 provides an explanation of the methodology undertaken for the main study. The scale development process that is utilised will be discussed in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 provides in-depth discussion on the results from the main study. Finally, Chapter 7 concludes the study with implications, discussion on the findings, limitation and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a discussion on the guilt literature and other variables that could influence the effectiveness of guilt appeals. Firstly, the chapter shows the relevant literature on guilt appeals. This section shows how guilt appeals are viewed, conceptualised and used by researchers and advertisers from different disciplines. The second section of the chapter provides a conceptual definition of guilt for the research. Further, an extensive review of past studies was undertaken and this section identified the three types of guilt, namely, existential, anticipatory and reactive. The discussion then describes the characteristics of each type of guilt and suggests that there are major differences between the three categories of guilt. The third section of the chapter highlights the measurement issues faced by researchers in the field and illustrates how this has limited the understanding of guilt. This is then followed by a description of how guilt appeals work in advertising and a discussion on variables and concepts that could influence consumer's response to guilt advertisements. Finally the chapter concludes by presenting the major research gaps identified from a robust review of the guilt literature.

RELEVANT LITERATURE

GUILT APPEALS

Guilt appeals are commonly used by advertisers to influence consumers' behaviour in numerous contexts including, social marketing (Alden and Crowley 1995; Becheur et al. 2007; Bennett 1998; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005), marketing communications (Ghingold 1980; Pinto and Priest 1991) and advertising (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995). It has been empirically shown to influence consumer decision making process (Burnett and Lunsford 1994), ad and brand attitudes (Coulter and Pinto 1995; Godek and LaBarge 2006), and charitable donation intentions (e.g. Hibbert et al. 2007). While this suggests that guilt appeal could be applied to numerous contexts, the majority of the research in recent years has focused more on the use of guilt appeals in a charitable

donation context (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005; Lwin and Phau 2008).

Freud's theorisation of guilt originated from neurosis (Freud 1961; Lewis 1984). He explained that there is a necessity of social constraints on the individual to enable people to live harmoniously together. Freud (1961) suggested that society puts unrealistic, imperfect and cruel structures on the individual resulting in a conflict between the person's ego and superego. Guilt is described as a result of the resolution of the Oedipus complex. Researchers have suggested that guilt is central in the understanding of the psychodynamic theory (Erikson 1963). For example, guilt was found to be a central construct of love and reparation (Klein 1948) and guilt was central in restoring affectionate bonds between mother and child (Lewis 1984).

However, contemporary theories explain guilt as an innate emotion that supplies information about one's behaviour, and helps prepare the individual for an appropriate response (e.g. Izard 1977). Some scholars have suggested that guilt resulting from the individual's actions is driven by the person's cognition and intention (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). Further, a number of researchers have defined guilt as an emotion that is caused by the actions of the individual's violation (Weiner 1985). Guilt has also been described as a mechanism to regulate social functions in the relationship between self and others (De Rivera 1984; Scheff 1984).

Guilt appeal is considered as a negative emotion that is aroused when the individual's actions do not meet the individual's own standards (O'Keefe 2002). For example, guilt could be aroused when the person conduct such actions as neglecting the loved ones, failing to perform a duty for the family, friend or society, lying about certain situations, stealing, and cheating (Keltner and Buswell 1996; O'Keefe 2002; Tangney 1992). Therefore, guilt is felt due to self-perception of one's own standards and perceived shortfall of his/her own behaviour in meeting his/her own standards. As the result, there is a "desire to fix the things that you have done wrong" (O'Keefe 2002; Roseman, Wiest, and Swartz 1994, 215). This suggests that guilt appeal is a highly action oriented and motivating advertising appeal. It

suggests that advertisers may evoke positive behaviour as the result of the consumer's transgression of their own standards.

Further, a review of the literature indicates that there are three classifications of guilt appeals, namely, **existential**, **anticipatory**, and **reactive** guilt appeal (Izard 1977; Rawlings 1970). Advertisers have traditionally treated guilt as a unified concept and this has produced mixed results. Some scholars have suggested that there is no significant relationship between guilt and behavioural intentions (e.g. Coulter and Pinto 1995).

However, a number of recent studies focused on specific types of guilt appeals have shown positive results (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). The recent studies have explored the effectiveness of existential guilt appeals (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007), however the anticipatory and reactive guilt appeals remains largely ignored (e.g. Godek and LaBarge 2006; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). These studies clearly indicate that existential guilt is effective in a charitable donation context. Furthermore, these studies used a unified scale to measure the effectiveness of existential guilt. The unified scale is designed to measure a unified concept of guilt, thus it has limited validity and reliability when it comes to specific types of guilt appeals. For example, the items in the unified scale do not capture the domain of existential guilt. Thus, the findings of these studies may not be 100% reliable due to the unified scale. The major reason that has hindered the understanding of guilt has been due to the lack of a sound psychometric guilt measure (Tangney 1996). Moreover, a review of the literature clearly highlights the shortage of empirical evidence for anticipatory and reactive guilt appeals in a non-charitable context.

To effectively arouse guilt, advertisers must understand how consumers could be persuaded. The challenge is a fine line between what is considered as a persuasive guilt appeal and a manipulative guilt appeal. If guilt is evoked effectively it will be persuasive and it could be a powerful tool for advertisers to motivate positive behaviour (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). Cialdini and Kenrick's (1976) Negative State Model helps explain why guilt appeals are powerful. The theory suggests that individuals are driven to reduce negative emotions. Guilt is defined as a negative emotion (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005) and thus individuals

will seek to reduce the negative emotions. Therefore, if advertisers can evoke guilt successfully through advertising campaigns, they can offer solutions to minimise the feelings of guilt. Further, guilt appeals have gained importance in the society due to *changing demographics* (higher number of females in the workforce), *Changing lifestyles* (more people working longer hours in 2002, 1.7 million Australians worked 50 hours or more per week, twice as many as 1982 (ABS 2003), *Changing societal values*: greater emphasis on the *environment* (Gibbons and Nye 2007) and *health* (Wooten 2000). Due to these changes the use of guilt appeals is shifting away from social marketing context to hedonic and luxury brands. For example, working mums often feel guilty for leaving their children at the day-care centre to go to work. Thus to reduce the negative feeling, the mums often “bribe” kids with luxuries such as toys, lollies or even expensive jewellery (Maguire 2012; Murphy 1994).

Research in guilt appeals is very limited. These published literature, however shows that guilt appeals are mainly utilised in **non-durable**, **durable** and **service product categories** (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). Scholars described **non-durable** products as goods that cannot be reused once it is consumed (Sullivan and Sheffrin 2003). For example, it includes products such as food, drinks, medication, cleaning products, and many others. On the other hand, **durable** products can be reused once it is consumed (Sullivan and Sheffrin 2003). These products can be yielded over time and examples of durable products include jewellery, electronics, automobiles, equipment and many others. **Services** however are defined as intangible products that are consumed and produced in simultaneously (Shostack 1977). Further, the quality of the service products are difficult to assess and they are not perishable (Lovelock and Gummesson 2004). Some of these products include hotels, airlines, lawyers, insurances and many others. Thus, each type of product is unique and has different sets of characteristics. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) shows where each type of guilt appeal is being used, however it is unclear how each type of guilt will be effective for different types of products.

It is also worth highlighting that guilt appeals are more commonly used than fear appeals (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). Their research on content analysis of advertising appeals shows that there were 153 guilt appeals and 131 fear appeals (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). The results were based on a review of over 2700 advertisements from over 20

magazines. Further, the study showed that guilt appeals appeared more in informational magazines than entertainment magazines (Times magazine and newspaper than Rolling Stone magazines) (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). The study raises an interesting question on why so much is known about fear appeal, while guilt appeal is largely ignored. In fear appeals, there is a well-defined model, measure, and theory. However, advertisers have limited knowledge of guilt appeals and there are uncertainties on the relative effectiveness of each type of guilt appeal in a specific scenario.

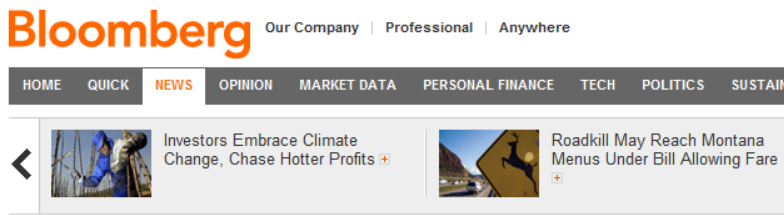
Guilt Appeals in the Luxury Brand Industry

There are a number of changes within our society that has fuelled the use of guilt appeals in a luxury branding industry (Doherty 2012; Fahmy 2009, 2013). Consumers may feel guilty for spending on luxuries that they do not need, e.g. chocolates, jewellery and holidays. To overcome this guilty conscience, consumers often justify for their behaviour. For example, advertisers specifically target females to purchase luxury brands because there is higher number of females entering the workforce (ABS 2003). Females have a growing purchasing power and they prefer luxury brands to help raise their social status (Tai and Tam 1997). To reduce the feeling of guilt from spending most of their earnings on a luxury handbag, these young consumers often justify the purchase by positioning the purchase as an investment. For instance, they convinced themselves that the bag will last for the next ten years, thus, it is good value for money.

Further, more people are working longer hours and often luxuries are bought as a reward for the hard work. Advertisers often use this technique to help reduce the guilt associate with purchasing luxury products. A number of luxury holiday destinations have used this method (e.g. ExecuPlaytime 2012). The advertiser helps the consumer justify their decision to spend money on luxuries by suggesting that it is ok to spoil yourself once in a while because they have been working so hard. Thus, it removes the feeling of guilt for spending excessively on luxuries.

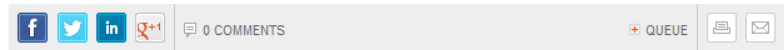
In addition, consumers are putting a greater emphasis on the society (Gibbons and Nye 2007) and health (Wooten 2000), and marketers have used some of these values to promote luxury brands. For example, a number of luxury brands co-brands with a charity (a percentage of the profit is donated to the charity) to show that the company is socially responsible (e.g. Mont Blanc Limited Edition Watches and Pens). The purchase is sometimes driven by the desire to help out on the cause. As the result, consumers justify their purchases on luxury brands because they feel that they are helping the community. Thus, they do not feel as guilty for purchasing these high priced bracket products. It is also important to note that consumers may also feel guilty if they are not helping in the cause. Therefore, the purchase behaviour serves as a guilt reducing mechanism in two ways, (1) to justify and reason for their spending on luxury brands, and (2) to avoid feeling guilty if they did not meet their social obligation. See Exhibit 2.1 for some examples of guilt appeals being used by marketers.

Exhibit 2.1 Examples of Guilt Appeals in the Luxury Product Industry



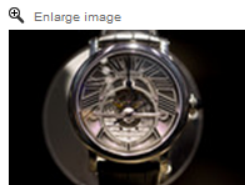
Cartier Turns to Discreet Watches to Assuage Luxury-Goods Guilt

By Dermot Doherty - Jan 17, 2012 1:18 AM GMT+0800



Cartier (CFR), the jeweler whose customers have included the tsar of Russia and actress Elizabeth Taylor, says it's pulling ahead of luxury rivals with watches that match the tenor of the times for less ostentatious displays of wealth.

Cartier is gaining "a lot" of market share, in part because the economic slowdown is steering consumers toward more discreet timepieces such as the brand's best-selling Ballon Bleu collection, Chief Executive Officer Bernard Fornas said in an interview in Geneva. He declined to estimate how much share the Paris-based unit of Cie. Financiere Richemont SA may capture.



"Bigger watches are losing a bit of ground today," he said. "When you are in crisis periods you show off less and you have shapes that are more discreet and more ergonomic. The feel-guilty factor is very important."

Cartier is ensuring it maintains geographical reach and is also benefiting from growth in the branded jewelry market, Fornas (Source: Doherty 2012)

Luxury goods are a guilt-inducing indulgence?

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By Miral Fahmy SINGAPORE | Mon Dec 21, 2009 3:30pm EST

(Reuters) - What's Christmas without a little indulgence and a lot of guilt, with a global survey showing two in three people occasionally treat themselves to a luxury purchase, but a third then feel bad about it.

The survey of 8,100 people by market research firm Synovate also showed that luxury really was what you made of it, with over a third defining it as everything above what is necessary. Nearly a fifth said it was having time to do whatever you wanted.

"Some of us feel we deserve it and revel in unabashed luxury. Some indulge in it, but feel they maybe should not have. Some cannot afford it, but want it. And for many, it's simply not even a consideration," Synovate's luxury research expert, Jill Teiford, said in a statement.

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(Source: Halvorson 2013)

(Source: Fahmy 2009)

DEFINING GUILT

The general consensus is guilt is defined as a motivating, action-oriented emotional appeal that is evoked due to the unambiguous nature of linkage between feeling of guilt and actions that led to its elicitation (Lewis 1993). Three types of guilt appeals namely; existential, anticipatory, and reactive guilt appeals have been identified but researchers have primarily explored guilt appeal as a unified construct (Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Becheur et al. 2007; Coulter and Pinto 1995; Pinto and Priest 1991). As such, the measurements are not designed to measure each specific type of guilt and there has been a constant call to develop scales for each of these categories (such as Lindsey 2005). The three types of guilt have to be more clearly defined.

Existential Guilt Appeals

Izard (1977) asserted that existential guilt is evoked through the result of a comparison between one's own well-being and others' well-being. In the process, there is an urge to bring the two closer together. Similarly, when individuals are aware of the discrepancies between their own well-being and that of others, they will feel existential guilt (Ruth and Faber, 1988). Further, scholars have suggested the importance of existential guilt in the charitable donations context (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2006, 2008; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). Consumers could feel guilty about purchasing luxuries when they compare their well-being with the less privileged, and as a consequence may increase the likelihood of a donation in charity campaigns (Burnett and Lunsford 1994; Moore and Harris 1996; Samalin and Hogarty 1994). Advertisers perceive existential guilt appeal as an appropriate technique for Public Service Announcements (PSA)/Charitable advertisements because it highlights the social injustice and calls for action to fix the issues. It is also accepted by consumers because they feel that they could contribute in fixing the issue. This is clearly highlighted in the Huhmann and Brotherton's (1997) content analysis study of guilt appeals. There were over 85% of existential guilt advertisements being used in PSAs/charities advertisements. Further, the study suggested that 47.4% of existential guilt advertisements used 'statement of fact' and 42.1% used 'suggestion' to persuade consumers (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). To illustrate this further, the advertisement scenario below gives an example on how existential guilt can be evoked.

Advertisement Scenario 1

The message compares two scenarios. The first one shows a child enduring the pain of hunger and thirst by herself. The second scenario shows the rich and the fortunate enjoying all the luxuries of life such as chocolates, jewellery and holidays. The message suggests that a small donation from purchasing these luxuries will lead to a donation to help the less fortunate.

In terms of the luxury brands industry, existential guilt may have a significant role on behavioural intentions. That is when consumers compare themselves with the less fortunate they may take action to bring the well-beings of both closer. For example, when consumers are buying luxury brands, they will feel high level of guilt when they see individuals that are less fortunate. Advertisers could capitalise on this emotion by suggesting that the consumer could help the less privileged through a purchase. Mont Blanc has used this technique to promote their products. However, to be effective the advertiser needs to use some facts about the issue and suggestions on how the consumer can help and how the money will be used to fix the issue. Examples of existential guilt appeals are depicted in Exhibit 2.2.

Exhibit 2.2 Examples of Existential Guilt Appeals



“Landmine victims find it difficult to feed themselves. Not only do they lose their limbs, they lost their jobs. They need specialist training to be able to develop new skills and find jobs to keep their families from starving. So far 40,000 Cambodians have lost their limbs to landmines. Support them. Log on to www.jrscambodia.org to see how you can help.”



See how easy feeding the hungry can be?



Feed SA is a charity dedicated to feeding disadvantaged people throughout South Africa. Despite the rapidly growing numbers of homeless and hungry people on the streets, most fortunate citizens tend to drive by and ignore them. We were tasked to help Feed SA target consumers more efficiently in order to increase their donations.

We placed stacks of hungry-looking street children at the bottom of supermarket shopping trolleys bearing the Feed SA website and the text "See how easy feeding the hungry can be?". Any food placed into the trolley appeared to be given to this child.

Collective donations were also placed in the red trolleys and bins for food contributions were positioned at ends. Our message was seen by hundreds of shoppers every day for the cost of a few dollars, resulting in a marked increase in donations and a significant boost in website traffic.



It's just poverty,
she'll grow out of it.

But only with your help.
1850 222 300 or visit www.barnardos.ie

Barnardos
No child gets left behind

YOU CAN HELP.
STOP GLOBAL WARMING

Animals around the world are losing their habitats due to climate change. By choosing a hybrid or fuel efficient car, you can help prevent this. Take action right now. WWW.WWF.FI

CHRISTMAS MAILING **BOLA AMIGA**



DESCRIPTION:
We sent a Christmas gift to company directors and managers. When they opened the inserted cardboard box, rather than being presented with a gift, they saw a printed image of a homeless child sleeping inside the box. Near the child, a card read:
"For some, Christmas is never merry."

BRIEF:
Creation of a Christmas mailing piece to motivate company directors and managers to donate for helping abandoned children.

RESULTS:
Donations grew 35%.
60% of the people expressed their thanks.
Many felt really touched about it.
"The best Christmas present anyone could receive."
"It was totally surprised."
"My wife even cried when she saw it."



More than a billion people on the planet don't have access to clean and safe drinking water.

Start by helping one.
charityis.org



"more than a billion people on the planet don't have access to clean and safe drinking water"
"Start by helping one"

Anticipatory Guilt Appeals

Rawlings (1970) defined anticipatory guilt as guilt evoked when an individual contemplates a potential violation of one's own standards. Past research shows that this type of guilt is more positive than others, as it can lead to action as a means to avoid the feeling of guilt (Godek and LaBarge 2006; Lindsey 2005; Rawlings 1970). Scholars suggested that anticipatory guilt appeals create a low intensity and negativity over a short term (Giner-Sorolla 2001). Due to these unique characteristics anticipatory guilt is used more than other types of guilt. In fact, research indicates that over 61% of guilt advertisements applied the use of anticipatory guilt (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). Additionally, Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) showed that over 45% anticipatory guilt advertisements are used in the non-durable consumer goods advertisements. Anticipatory guilt appeal mainly uses 'statement of fact' (45.9%) and 'suggestion' (36.3%). Research to date has only explored anticipatory guilt in organ donations (Lindsey 2005) and financial services (Godek and LaBarge 2006). The advertisement scenario below illustrates how anticipatory guilt can be evoked.

<i>Advertisement Scenario 2</i>
<p>The message shows that Christmas is coming soon and reminds the viewer to purchase one of their mother's favourite luxury products (chocolates, jewelleries and holidays) for Christmas. The message shows a strong link between the mother and the child through a series of images from childhood to adulthood. It highlights all the sacrifices that the mother has made over the years and encourages the viewer to impress the mother this Christmas. Finally, the message ends with how the viewer could avoid disappointing the mother by giving her one of her favourite luxury products for Christmas.</p>

The uniqueness of anticipatory guilt appeal allows consumers to feel more positive than other guilt appeals. This suggests that consumers will view anticipatory guilt more favourably than other types of guilt. The fact that the consumer can avoid the feeling of guilt may have a significant positive effect on persuasion. Literature shows that as human beings, we do not like to feel negative emotions. Thus, consumers will do everything that they can to avoid feeling guilty. For example, advertisers can help consumers avoid feeling guilty for spending excessively on luxury brands by suggesting that it is a good investment, value for money or

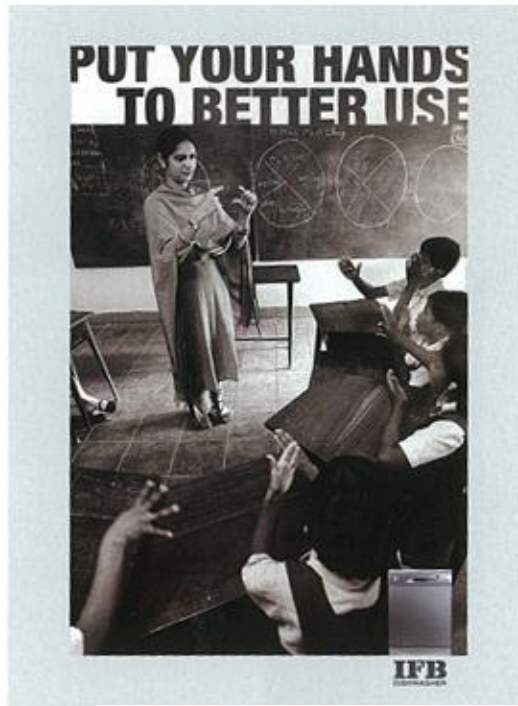
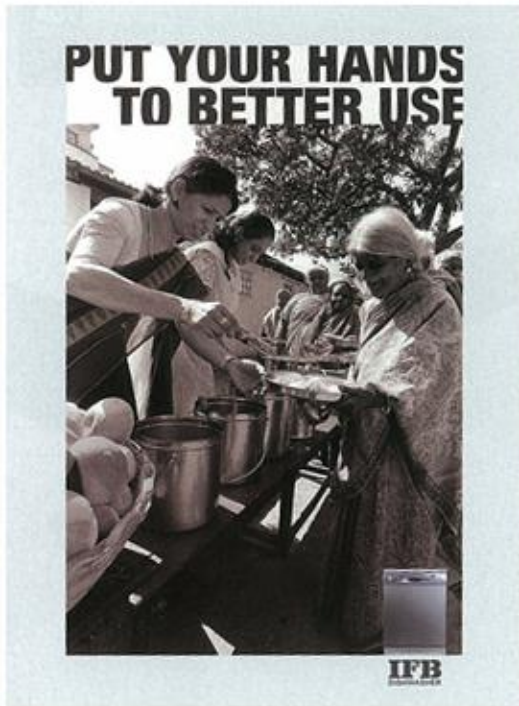
“priceless”. Patek Philippe was able to position itself as a legacy watch and therefore you cannot put a price on the product. Thus it removes all the guilt that is associated with spending so much money on a luxury watch. Retail outlets for luxury brands also rely on this method. For example, East Midlands Designer Outlet uses the guilt free shopping experience as a motto to help consumers avoid the feeling of guilt. The consumers avoid the guilt feeling for spending money on luxury brands because the retailer sells them at a huge discount. Examples of anticipatory guilt appeals are depicted in Exhibit 2.3.

Exhibit 2.3 Examples of Anticipatory Guilt Appeals



WELCOME TO THE WORLD OF
GUILT~FREE
SHOPPING™

- ASHFORD
- BRIDGEND
- CHESHIRE OAKS
- LIVINGSTON
- EAST MIDLANDS
- SWINDON
- YORK



Not everyone who gets hit by a drunk driver dies.




Jacqueline Saburido was 20 years old when the car she was riding in was hit by a drunk driver. Today, at 23, she is still working to put her life back together. Learn more at www.TexasDWI.org

DON'T DRINK & DRIVE

Save a Life

Texas Department of Public Safety • Texas Alcoholic Beverage Commission • Texans Standing Tall • Partnership for a Drug-Free Texas • Texas Commission on Alcohol and Drug Abuse © Texas Department of Transportation

“If you don’t stop, your children are more likely to start. They’re also much more likely to develop serious respiratory conditions, suffer from debilitating lung diseases and even die from cancer. For more information about the harmful effects of smoking, visit www.cancercorner.org”



If you don't stop, your children are more likely to start. They're also much more likely to develop serious respiratory conditions, suffer from debilitating lung diseases and even die from cancer. For more information about the harmful effects of smoking, visit www.cancercorner.org

MONTBLANC

HELPING OTHERS GIVES
SUCCESS TRUE MEANING.

NICOLAS CAGE AND MONTBLANC have made a joint commitment to social responsibility. With your purchase of a Montblanc TimeWalker you are supporting a significant donation to "Heal The Bay". MONTBLANC TIMEWALKER CHRONOGRAPH AUTOMATIC self-winding mechanical movement, 43 mm. Swiss made by Montblanc.

Montblanc® www.montblanc.com

SYDNEY 115-117 KING STREET MELBOURNE 172-177 COLLINS STREET CROWN ENTERTAINMENT COMPLEX BRISBANE QUEENS PLAZA FOR INFORMATION 1300 36 4610

KIDS ARE FAST LEARNERS

No parent wants their child to become addicted to nicotine. Cigarette smoke contains over 4,000 chemicals, it's a toxic, poisonous mix of substances. So it's no surprise smoking causes death and disease. When a parent quits, there's a big chance their child will grow up to be a smoker and more chance they'll have a full and healthy life.

NOW IS THE TIME TO QUIT.
australia.gov.au/quitnow

Quitline 131 848

Australian Government

Have yourself a guilt-free Christmas

Rich in protein and 36% less saturated fat* than pork. Perfect.

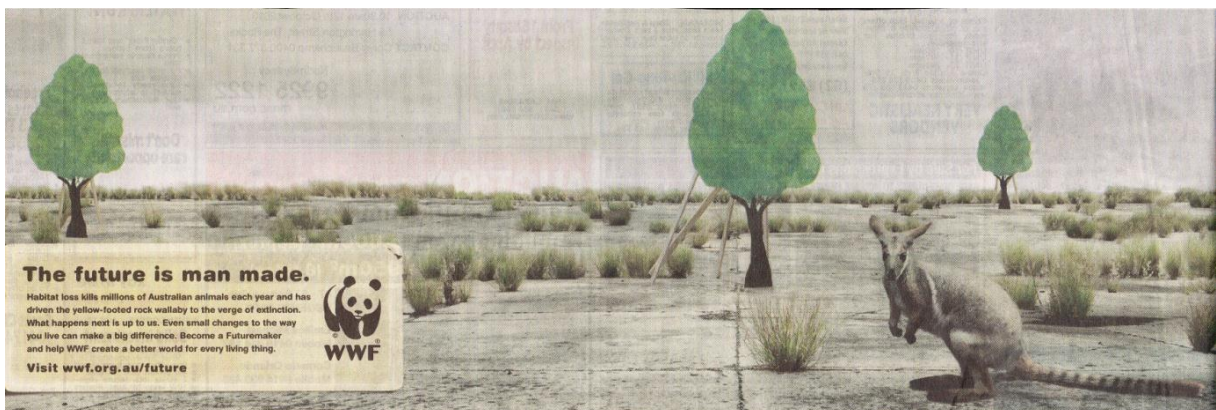
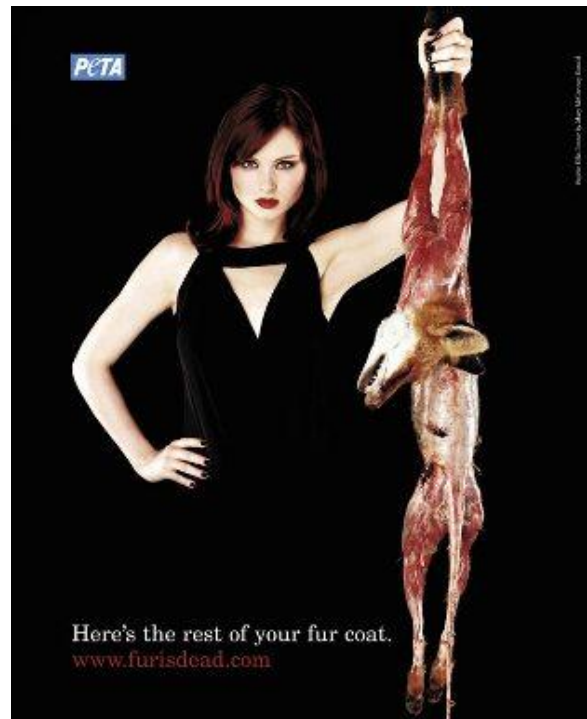
TURKEY THE EASY PROTEIN

INGHAM Turkey

*Maximum values used for comparisons are from the Australian FoodBook database. All cuts were roasted or cooked to and skinned. Careful cooking instructions were used for all meat comparisons. (Source: www.health.gov.au/australian-food-book)

With 36% less saturated fat* than pork, Ingham ready to roast Turkey Breast is perfect festive fare. Less saturated fat* also makes it the perfect protein. Have yourself a delicious guilt-free Christmas and pick up Ingham Turkey in our turkey pack from your local supermarket. Enjoy our easy recipes at www.TodaysTurkey.com.au

INGHAM



Reactive Guilt Appeals

Reactive guilt is defined as a response to the past and over an act of having violated those standards (Rawlings 1970). Out of the three guilt appeals, reactive guilt is considered as the most negative because it evokes past transgressions and therefore it evokes more negative emotions. Scholars have suggested that it creates a short term negative mood (Godek and LaBarge 2006). Additionally, reactive guilt appeals produced higher inferences of manipulative intent due to consumers reacting negatively towards the advertisement (Godek and LaBarge 2006). It is suggested that consumers process reactive guilt advertisements systematically and every detail of the advertisement is questioned (Godek and LaBarge 2006). This enhances negative reactions towards the advertisement and consequently, advertisers tend to avoid the use of reactive guilt appeals (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). In fact, Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) showed that only 29.4% guilt advertisements used reactive guilt appeals as an execution. Further, Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) showed that 17.8% of reactive guilt appeals were used in a consumer durable context and over 42.2% were used in a non-durable context. Interestingly, over 54% of reactive guilt advertisement used 'statement of fact' and 28.1% asked 'a question' to the consumer (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). The advertisement scenario below illustrates how reactive guilt can be evoked.

<i>Advertisement Scenario 3</i>
The message shows that Christmas has recently passed and reminds the viewer that they have not purchased a present for their mother. It shows the mother being disappointed and upset for waiting for the viewer to visit her house during Christmas. However, the viewer was so busy that he/she completely forgot to visit the mother during Christmas. Then the message suggests how the viewer could help repair the relationship by buying one of their mother's favourite luxury products (chocolates, jewelleries and holidays) to make up for Christmas.

To date, only one study has explored the effects of reactive guilt (Godek and LaBarge 2006). The research however has some limitations. First, the stimulus was confined to a scenario that was given to the respondents as such lacking ecological validity. Second, reactive guilt was measured using a general felt emotions scale. Third, the effect of reactive guilt on

behavioural intentions was shown to be significant, however the behavioural intentions scale was measured using a one item scale.

The conceptual literature on reactive guilt suggests that it is more appropriate for food and health related products. Theoretically this makes sense since there is a societal push towards being healthy, and consuming luxuries such as chocolates will be violating our standard to maintain a healthy body. Out of the three guilt appeals, reactive guilt was the only type that commonly used the execution where it questions the consumer. This execution could be more effective for reactive guilt because it questions the consumers' past behaviour. Thus, it is more likely to evoke negativity because the advertiser is recalling the consumer's past violation of their own standards. Non-durable food products such as Weight Watchers often uses this technique by questioning the health of the consumer's body, and suggests how their products are healthier using facts and figures. The use of reactive guilt in other contexts is limited and due to the nature of reactive guilt it is predicted that it will not be appropriate. Examples of reactive guilt appeals are depicted in Exhibit 2.4. Further, Table 2.1 provides a summary of the three types of guilt used in different industries through the content analysis by Huhmann and Brotherton (1997).

Exhibit 2.4 Examples of Reactive Guilt Appeals

**Forgive me skin,
for I have sinned!**

Sin #3
Are you guilty of neglecting your skin?

1. Wash
2. Tone
3. Moisturise



Redeem YOURSELF
Get back to basics and purify your skin with a 3-step routine to keep your skin looking pure and shine free all day.

GARNIER
pure

Take care.
GARNIER

**Is this your
idea of
blood
donation?**



Donate Blood. Save Lives.

Clear Channel

**If you take drugs
who really pays the price?**



**FOR A
DRUG FREE
SINGAPORE**

For help call 1800 733 4444

Clear Channel

**If you take drugs
who really pays the price?**



**FOR A
DRUG FREE
SINGAPORE**

For help call 1800 733 4444



“obesity finds it hardest to catch up with those who are running”

Zita Roberts
1968 – 2007



What it's like to die of lung cancer

By someone who did

Zita Roberts was 36, had three kids, smoked, and had a nagging cough that wouldn't go away. It was lung cancer.

"They said it was stage 4, it was terminal, it was inoperable. My first reaction was who's going to look after the kids? My kids are the most important people in my life. It hurt to think I won't be there. I look at them and I think, oh my God, who's going to kiss them good night? Who's going to do those little things that only I can do? My kids are going to be without a mother."

Zita underwent chemotherapy and the pain, vomiting and hair loss that went with it.

"I didn't think I'd make it through Christmas ... so I'm blessed. It's a painful process. This is what happens; this is what you have to deal with once a week. There's no easy way. How do you deal with the fact you're going to die?"

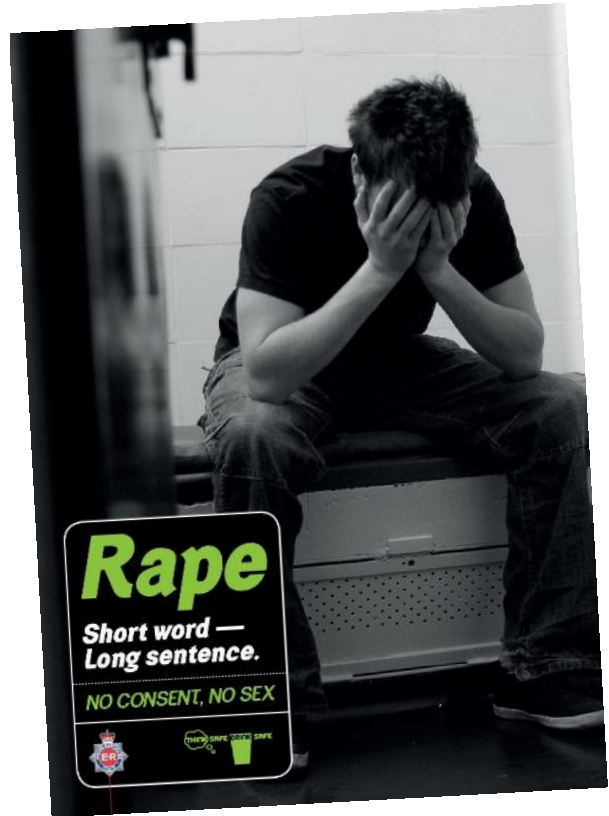
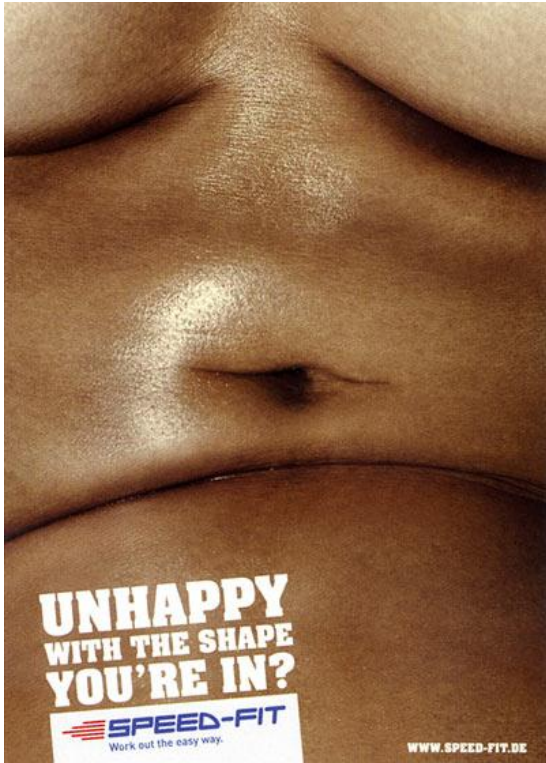
Zita dealt with it courageously, with dignity and determined that others should learn from her story. She visited schools to speak about the effects of smoking.

"I wanted to get the message across about what they should expect if they choose to smoke. It's not enough just to see what it does to your lungs. I want them to see how it tears apart a family, emotionally. I didn't want young kids to find themselves 20 years from now in the same situation. I didn't want kids to be left without mums and dads. I don't want anyone else to go through what I'm going through. If I can stop just one person having to go through this..."

Zita Roberts passed away in February 2007, aged 38.

Quitline 13 7848

NSW cancer institute



**Table 2.1 Summary Table for the Three Types of Guilt Being Used in
Each Industry and Execution**

(Adapted from Huhmann and Brotherton 1997)

Industry	Existential Guilt %	Anticipatory Guilt %	Reactive Guilt %
Consumer durable goods	0.0	7.4	17.8
Consumer non-durable goods	7.1	45.7	42.2
Healthcare	0	19.1	20.0
Financial services	7.2	11.8	6.7
PSAs / charities	85.7	16.0	13.3
Execution			
Statement of fact	47.4	45.9	54.7
Suggestion	42.1	36.3	12.5
Question	10.5	11.9	28.1
Statement of action	0.0	5.9	4.7

MEASURING GUILT

A key factor that has hindered empirical research of guilt is due to the lack of a sound psychometric guilt measure (Tangney 1996). The issue is guilt is an internal affective state that is difficult to access directly. For some individuals it is an unconscious response thus it is hard to pin point the factors that causes the feeling of guilt (Tangney 1996). Scholars have measured guilt appeals through projective techniques (Miller and Swanson 1966), interviews

(Sears, Maccoby, and Levin 1957), self-report inventories (Buss and Durkee 1957; Hibbert et al. 2007), and single-item rating scales (Godek and LaBarge 2006; Moulton et al. 1966). Most of the studies in guilt appeals used self-report instruments to access the immediate feelings of guilt after viewing or reading a scenario (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). Some psychological researchers have focused on the capacity for experiencing guilt by assessing the moral standards of individuals (e.g. Mosher 1968), that is what makes the person feel guilty? Other scholars have also looked at the indirect influences of guilt on moral obligations (London, Schulman, and Black 1964).

Mosher's Guilt Inventory (1968) is the most widely used instrument. However, the measure has some limitations. Mosher (1968) defined guilt as a "generalised expectancy for self-mediated punishment for violating internalised standards of moral behaviour or anticipating the violation of such standards". The conceptualisation of the scale acknowledges that the instrument does not cover the full domain for guilt; rather it was designed to measure a specific domain of guilt. Mosher (1968) included guilt associated with sex, hostility and conscience. This shows that Mosher's Guilt Inventory has its inadequacies in measuring guilt in luxury brand purchases. The guilt domain in this context is more likely to be linked to financial guilt, moral guilt and social responsibility guilt as suggested by Burnett and Lunsford (1994). Based on the research by Mosher (1968) and Kugler and Jones (1992), it is very clear that guilt is domain specific. Thus the instruments are also context specific. This means that it will be very difficult to measure specific types of guilt appeals using a unified guilt scale. However, there is no such specific guilt scale and researchers have to rely on the unified scale suggested by Pinto and Priest (1991). Therefore, the lack of a domain specific scale is a major limitation on the progress of our understanding on guilt.

Other scholars have suggested different types of guilt measures. These measures often use a range of adjectives, descriptive statements, forced-choice alternatives, ratings on emotion response to specific situations, and qualitative analysis of narrative response (Buss and Durkee 1957; Klass 1987; Kugler and Jones 1992; Otterbacher and Munz 1973; Zahn-Waxler et al. 1988). However, there are some issues with these methods. For example, G-Trait scale from the Perceived Guilt Index is a one item measure (Otterbacher and Munz 1973). The

Buss-Durkee Hostility-Guilt Inventory used 9 descriptive statements (e.g. "I am concerned about being forgiven for my sins"). Trait guilt scale consisted of 20 items (Kugler and Jones 1992), (e.g. "Guilt and remorse have been a part of my life for as long as I can recall"). Klass's Situational Guilt Scale recorded the respondents' emotional response to 22 specific guilt inducing situations. However, these scales and items do not reflect the feeling of guilt associated with consumer purchasing behaviour in the luxury brand context.

While there are three types of guilt, scholars have commonly used the unified scale to measure specific types of guilt (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). For example, the unified guilt measure that is commonly used by advertising scholars consists of four items, "guilty", "irresponsible", "accountable", and "ashamed". By analysing these items it is clear that the scale does not capture the essence of each type of guilt. For example, existential guilt is defined as the result of a comparison between one's own well-being and others' well-being. However, the scale items do not capture this characteristic. That is the items should display some level of comparison before the person feel guilty, irresponsible, accountable or ashamed. Similarly, for anticipatory guilt appeal the scale does not explain how an individual can contemplate a potential violation of one's own standards. Further, for reactive guilt how does the scale measure a response to a past transgression? Therefore, it raises a number of issues such as the reliability and the validity of the findings from previous studies.

From reviewing the literature there is a huge discrepancy between studies that employed guilt as a unified concept and specific types of guilt (e.g. Becheur et al. 2007; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005). Recent studies show that guilt appeals could be effective but it is possible that these results are under estimated or over estimated. Thus, developing three specific scales for each type of guilt will show more valid results. Further, the scales will be beneficial for advertisers as it will allow them to measure whether the intended emotion is being evoked or not. When advertisers use emotional appeals they lose control on what emotions the consumer is feeling. The advertisement that is designed to evoke guilt may arouse other emotions such as anger and anxiety. Therefore, the scale will allow the advertisers to see whether guilt is being evoked

through the advertisement and more importantly the type of guilt being evoked from the advertisement.

The literature suggests that the guilt scale could be operationalised in three ways; first, it could be operationalised as a transitory affective state that reflects the immediate psychological consequence of violating moral standards. This will be achieved using guilt animatics that reflect the immediate psychological consequence of violating moral standards. Second, it can be through an enduring personal trait that reflects past transgression or other psychological factors (e.g. trait guilt). To achieve this, the animatics will be based on the scenarios (as suggested in the previous section). The scenarios tap into enduring personal traits (such as loving, caring, happiness, sadness, and guilt), and the affectionate relationship between the mother and child that reflects a past transgression. For example, the child failing to buy the mother a present for Christmas last year is reflected as a past transgression. Third, it can be through a readiness to experience guilt on the basis of the strength of one's moral values (Kugler and Jones 1992). The scenario questions the strength of one's moral values by comparing how they would feel if they did not buy a present or visit their mother during Christmas. Further, it also questions one's values when they are spending so much on themselves with luxuries and yet offers very little to others in need.

GUILT APPEALS IN ADVERTISING

Advertising industry

In 2012, it is estimated the global advertisement spending to reach \$522 billion, a 6.4 percentage increase over 2011 spending (Wolfe 2011). Due to the increasing number of advertisements, there is more advertising clutter which is a major concern for advertisers. Some studies have suggested that consumers receive an estimated 3600 marketing messages in a day (Jhally 1998). These messages far exceed the information processing capabilities of consumers and as the result consumers filter messages to manage information overload (Rumbo 2002). This process known as selective exposure is when the consumer filters a message before paying attention towards the message (Norris, Colman, and Aleixo 2003). Therefore for advertisements to effectively break through the clutter, they need to be unique and persuasive (Rumbo 2002). Thus, guilt appeals which are relatively new in advertising can

provide an alternative for advertisers to help break through the clutter. More importantly it is vital to understand how advertisers can create effective guilt advertisements and understand its influence on key advertising effectiveness measures such as attitudes and behavioural intentions.

Guilt and How Advertising Works

Creating effective guilt advertisements is a major challenge for advertisers as there is a very fine line between what is effective and manipulative. Further, consumers are active readers of advertisements (Meline 1996; Scott 1994) and they will evaluate every element of the advertisement. Thus it is important for the advertiser to understand the following three factors, persuasion knowledge, inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) and ad credibility (Acr).

First, consumers are always learning about the advertiser's persuasion attempts (Friestad and Wright 1994). They continue to build up the persuasion knowledge over the lifetime and thus they are able to cope with persuasion attempts by the advertisers. This means that it becomes harder and harder for advertisers to persuade consumers. Therefore, advertisers need to continuously innovate with their communication strategies. Using new techniques such as guilt appeals which are not commonly used in advertising will be a good strategy since consumers have very limited knowledge with these advertising strategies.

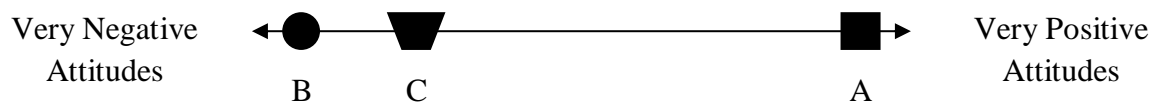
Second, advertisers must understand the importance of IMI, which means how advertisers can persuade consumers without being seen as manipulative and inappropriate (Campbell 1995). This is a difficult challenge as consumers have a negative predisposition towards advertisers (Campbell 1995). Anything that advertisers say is usually seen as a way to sell or promote the brand. Therefore, the use of hard sell techniques to sell or promote the brand is seen to be negative because consumers feel that it is a manipulative or inappropriate method to sell the brand. For advertisers, the advertisements have to be seen as informative or relevant to the consumer. Advertisements using guilt appeals are even more scrutinised due to a large of number of organisations that has abused the use of guilt appeals (Shawn 2012).

These advertisers used highly intensive guilt appeals that are deemed as inappropriate and manipulative.

Further, the research by Cotte, Coulter, and Moore (2005) shows how consumers may react to guilt appeals. They suggested that highly credible advertisements are seen as low IMI and these advertisements will lead to very positive evaluation of attitude towards the advertisement (shown by point A in the Figure 2.1). However, the study also suggests that when the advertisement has low credibility and high IMI, it will lead to a strong negative evaluation on attitude towards the advertisement (point B). Finally, advertisements that are highly credible and have high IMI, it will lead to a mild negative evaluation on attitude towards the advertisement (point C) (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). This suggests IMI has an indirect influence on the relationship between credibility and attitudes.

Figure 2.1 Attitudes Towards the Advertisement Continuum

(Adapted from Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005)



Cognition & Guilt

When consumers view an advertisement, they use their cognition to understand and interpret the advertisement. Cognition can be defined as thinking or mental processes that are used to process and store information that could lead to knowledge (Stillings et al. 1998). This is one of the first stages of learning about the message. If a consumer is unable to interpret the message, then the message will be lost. Thus, the guilt may not be evoked. It is important that advertisers understand the cognitive processing level of the consumer.

Purchasers of luxury brands are conspicuous consumers that seek appearance, status, prestige and approval of others (Phau and Prendergast 2000; Vigneron and Johnson 2004). The

modern culture that embraces overstatement and ostentation has endorsed the popularity of these luxury brands (Phau and Prendergast 1998). It is estimated that the luxury brand market will exceed €200 billion in 2012 despite concerns for the economy in Europe and Asia (Kraus 2012). It is difficult to conceptualise and define what a luxury brand is due to numerous facets that make up this product category (Phau and Prendergast 1998). There are numerous definitions of a luxury brands, however, one of the best definition of this category was provided by Vigneron and Johnson (2004), who suggested that luxury brands are unique, conspicuous, high quality, hedonic and the product represents an extension self. Using this as a conceptual definition, the psychographic profile of luxury brand consumers best fit into innovators and achievers as suggested by the VALS segmentation method (SBI 2012).

The innovators are sophisticated, very successful, high self-esteem and they have the resources (SBI 2012). Image is important to them so that they can show good taste, interdependence and personality. They also have a preference for finer things in life (SBI 2012). Achievers on the other hand are motivated by achievement and image is highly important. They prefer products that show prestige, recognition and demonstrate their success to their peers (SBI 2012). The consumers are highly educated, they are emerging leaders in business therefore they have a high level of cognitive capacity. This means consumers consuming luxury brands have the capacity to determine whether he/she has violated their own standards.

Further, studies suggest that cognitive dissonance could be evoked when consumers make luxury brands purchases. Cognitive dissonance is when there is an uncomfortable feeling that results from a lingering doubt about a decision (Festinger 1957). Buying luxury brands for most consumers is a big decision, not just financially, but also mentally (how will others view me wearing an expensive piece of Tiffany & Co jewellery). The cognitive dissonance theory explains the need to maintain consistency (Festinger 1957). When the individual feels dissonance, they may seek to reduce the negative inconsistencies or attempt to avoid the scenarios that may increase the dissonance. That is, you may feel cognitive dissonance for spending excessively on a Tiffany & Co gold chain instead of a silver chain. Therefore, you would attempt to reduce the dissonance by telling yourself that the girls prefer gold jewellery because it looks more expensive. Therefore, there are strong overlaps between cognitive

dissonance and guilt. Both concepts arouse unpleasant internal state and motivate the individual to take action (Burnett and Lunsford 1994).

Affect & Guilt

Affect is defined as feelings that are experienced during a consumption activity or other marketing activities (Stillings et al. 1998). Guilt is an emotion that is evoked for having violated the individual's obligations (Izard 1977; Rawlings 1970). Thus, the guilt emotion has a direct impact on affect (feelings), that is feeling guilty (emotion) will arouse negative feelings (affect) from watching the advertisement. However, researchers have suggested that the effects of guilt appeals are not limited to feeling guilt (affect) alone. Researchers have shown that guilt advertisements can affect other feelings such as mood, anger, anxiety, disdain and disgust (Coulter and Pinto 1995; Englis 1990; Godek and Labarge 2006). In recent years, studies have shown that negative emotions could have a positive outcome (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). These studies have suggested that negative feelings such as guilt can have a positive effect on attitudes and behaviours. The rationale behind the phenomenon is due to the nature of guilt appeals. Guilt is an action oriented emotion, therefore when it is evoked individuals will attempt to reduce the feeling. The unconscious motivation to remove the guilt feeling is often associated with the attainment of positive behaviour (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). As mentioned previously, through this process consumers may feel better about themselves and as the result it could lead to a short term positive mood that could positively influence the evaluation of the advertisement.

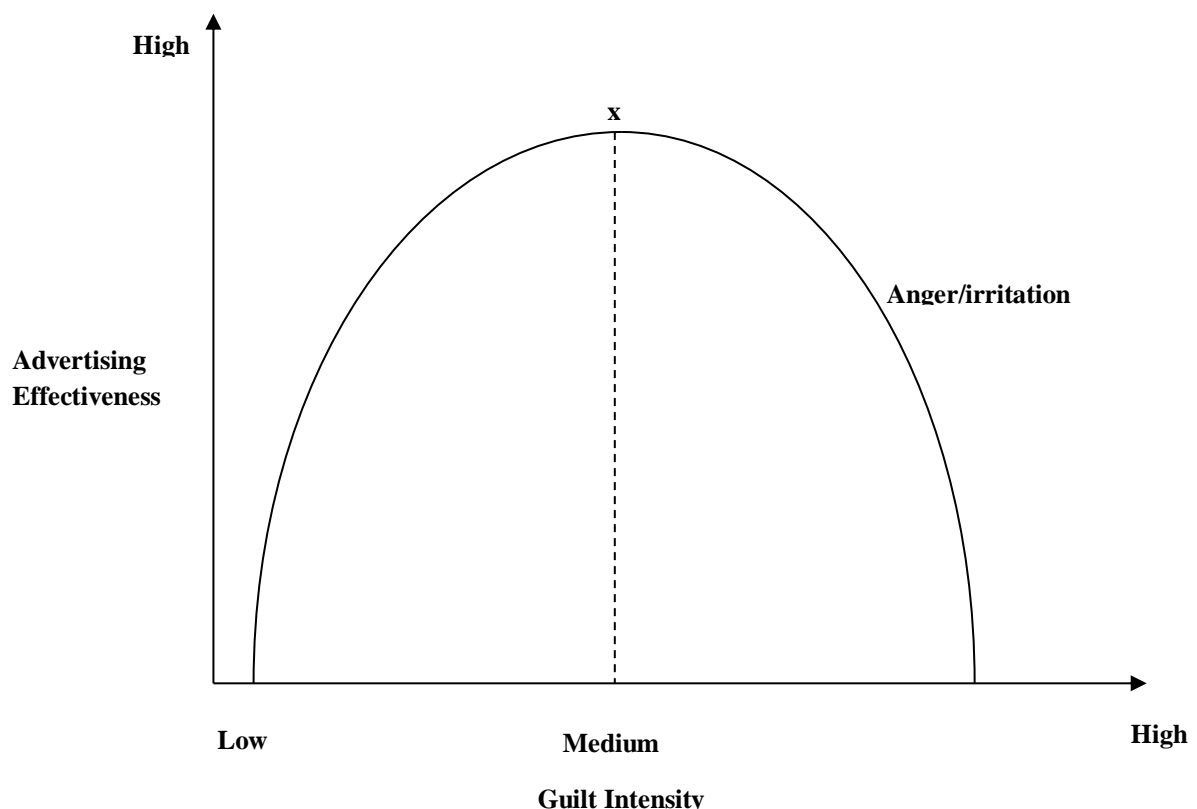
Consumer receptivity to persuasion

Evoking guilt and changing consumers' behaviour through the advertisement is a difficult task. The advertiser must understand the persuasion process. The Persuasion Knowledge Model provides a theoretical foundation to comprehend how consumers are persuaded (Friestad and Wright 1994). It suggests that persuasion is depended on consumer's knowledge of the persuasion attempt and consumer's persuasion coping capabilities. That is how much do consumers know about the current advertising technique and how acceptable are they of the advertiser's persuasion technique. Past studies have indicated that blatant

attempts to arouse guilt simply do not work (Coulter and Pinto 1995). That is, consumers are aware that advertisers are attempting to evoke guilt through the advertisement and they feel that the blatant attempt to manipulate their emotions is unacceptable and inappropriate. It is suggested that highly intensive guilt appeals tend to evoke anger, irritation and annoyance, hence consumers responded negatively towards the ad (Coulter and Pinto 1995). This could be due to consumers perceiving the advertisements to be manipulative. Low intensive guilt appeals on the other hand tend to stimulate little emotional response. Thus it suggests that moderate levels of guilt appeals are most effective. Coulter and Pinto's (1995) findings were consistent with Bennett's (1996) research in fear appeals which suggested that there is an inverted-U relationship between advertisement intensity and advertisement effectiveness. That is, advertisement effectiveness will increase with advertisement intensity only to a certain point. Once the advertisement intensity reaches its threshold, advertisement effectiveness will face diminishing returns because the advertisement will be viewed as being manipulative.

Figure 2.2: Inverted-U Relationship for Advertising Effectiveness of Guilt Appeals

(Adapted from Coulter and Pinto, 1995)



There is fine line between what is manipulative and appropriate for guilt appeals in advertising (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). Consumers evaluate commonality and appropriateness of persuasion tactics and consequently effect advertising effectiveness. For example these factors have a direct influence on attitude towards the advertisement (A_{ad}), attitude towards the brand and purchase intentions (Friestad and Wright 1994). Emotional appeals can also arouse unintended emotions (Englis 1990; Stout, Homer, and Liu 1990; Coulter and Pinto 1995) and studies have identified two important constructs to understand the persuasion process for guilt appeals (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter, Cotte, and Moore 1999). They are ad credibility and inferences of manipulative intent, and they will be discussed in detail in the later part of this chapter.

Persuasion Knowledge and Scepticism in Advertising

The aim of advertising is to persuade consumers, however forceful persuasion methods could lead consumer scepticism towards the advertisement (Obermiller, Spangenberg, and MacLachlan 2005). That means consumer simply do not believe in the advertising claims. Friestad and Wright (1994) suggested that consumers' response to persuasion attempts will be influenced by their knowledge of the persuasion strategies. The Persuasion Knowledge Model explains that beliefs are fundamental in constructing persuasion (Friestad and Wright 1994) that is the beliefs about our own coping tactics, beliefs about the effectiveness and appropriateness of marketer's tactics, and beliefs about the marketers' tactics and goals. Thus it shows that consumers and marketers both have access to the three categories of knowledge, (1) consumers knowledge of the topic, (2) knowledge of the persuasion techniques, and (3) knowledge of the marketer's tactics. The persuasiveness of the advertisement or the message will be depended on the knowledge level of these three categories. For example, the message will not be persuasive (1) if consumers have high knowledge of the luxury brands, (2) know all the communication methods in the industry, and (3) the consumers know all the marketers' tricks. Therefore, the persuasiveness of the message is determined by these three sources of knowledge.

Further, there is a strong resistance against advertising messages and many consumers question the truthfulness of the advertisements (Calfee and Ringold 1994). Obermiller and Spangenberg (1998, 2000) suggested that consumers are sceptical towards advertising and

this has a negative effect on advertising effectiveness. For example, sceptical consumers are less responsive to advertising, they like the advertisement less, they believe in the message less, they are influenced by the advertisements less. The sceptical consumers' view that advertisements are not credible, thus it is not worth their effort in processing the message. The sceptical consumers may also evaluate the manipulative intent of the advertisement more intensely (Obermiller, Spangenberg, and MacLachlan 2005). Unsurprisingly, research shows that emotional appeals were more persuasive than informational appeals (Obermiller, Spangenberg, and MacLachlan 2005). It is unsurprising because facts are more likely to be presented in information appeals and sceptics will question these facts. Therefore, emotional appeals that rely less on facts will be more persuasive among sceptical consumers. The theory suggests that consumers will become more sceptical when they believe that the advertisers are trying to persuade them to purchase products and services. Thus advertisers need to understand consumer's current knowledge of persuasion to create effective advertisements. In summary, consumers' susceptibility towards guilt advertisements is driven by consumer's persuasion knowledge level and their perception of message credibility (Friestad and Wright 1994; Obermiller, Spangenberg, and MacLachlan 2005). The next section will provide a discussion on the latter.

Role of Ad Credibility in Advertising

Ad credibility (A_{cr}) is defined as the "extent to which the consumer perceives claims made about the brand in the advertisement to be truthful and believable" (MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). Based on the previous section, it is noted that persuasion is influenced by consumers' belief and trust in the truthfulness of the advertisement. It is a key construct in advertising as it is one of the main criteria that influence attitudes (Greer 2003; Sundar 1999). Ad credibility is a perceptual response to a stimulus, and it requires cognitive thoughts to evaluate perceptions of the advertisement. Cognitive response theory implies that when consumers perceive communications or arguments about the brand as credible, their cognitive responses and attitude towards the ad will be more positive (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). That means consumers view the advertisement as providing the correct and unbiased information (Hass 1981). Credibility plays an important role especially for low-knowledge consumers (Milburn 1991). If the advertiser is seen as credible and trustworthy, the message becomes more persuasive (Hass 1981). Advertisers for charitable organisations rely heavily on credible and trustworthy celebrities to convey the guilt message. This is evidenced in many recent

advertisements such as Angelina Jolie as the United Nations's Good Will Ambassador, Bono and UNICEF, and Bon Jovi and AIDS Foundation just to name a few. The collaborations with these celebrities not only help raise the profiles of the different charities but also add credibility to the activities that the charity is providing to society. Hence, it is not uncommon for these celebrities to often appear in advertisements to raise the credibility of the organisations.

Advertising scholars have empirically shown that ad credibility has a positive influence on evoking guilt (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007) and attitude towards the ad (Kavanoor, Grewal, and Boldgett 1997; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). That is, when people trust and believe in the message, they will feel the intended emotion and as a result will increase liking towards the advertisement. However, studies indicate that there is a negative relationship between ad credibility and inferences of manipulative intent (Campbell 1995). That is when consumers view the advertisement as credible, they will perceive the advertiser's manipulative intent to be low.

Role of Inferences of Manipulative Intent in Advertising

When marketers attempt to increase attention it could lead to other negative effects such as reducing the persuasiveness of advertisements (Campbell 1995). Research shows that increasing attention could lead to more counterarguments against the advertisement (Petty, Ostrom, and Brock 1981; Wright 1974), irritation (Aaker and Bruzzone 1985) and reduce persuasiveness (Greenwald and Leavitt 1984; Petty and Cacioppo 1986; Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). The literature suggests that attention grabbing techniques could lead consumers to perceive that the marketers are attempting to manipulate, or unfairly persuade consumers. This concept is known as, inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) (Campbell 1995). Campbell (1995) defined IMI as "consumer inferences that the advertiser is attempting to persuade by inappropriate, unfair or manipulative means".

Building from the preceding discussion, the concept suggests that consumers build up their persuasion knowledge throughout their lives from direct and indirect experiences with

persuasive tactics from marketers (Friestad and Wright 1994). Consumers are active readers of advertisements (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), so when marketers attempt to increase attention, consumers would question why the marketers have used that particular execution for the advertisement. Consumer's perception towards marketers is generally negative and most believe that marketers are inappropriately using advertising to manipulate their behaviour (Alsop and Abrams 1986; Bartos and Dunn 1979; Moog 1990; Packard 1980). Younger consumers are shown to be more cynical and sceptical towards advertising (Hwang 1995; Ritchie 1995), thus marketers need to be careful of creating high attention processing advertisements (e.g. highly intensive guilt appeal).

Using the IMI definition as a guide, it is important to understand the inferences of appropriateness and fairness in the persuasion process. Equity theory provides a good explanation of a fair exchange (Adams 1965). It suggests that unfairness is driven by a cost/benefit analysis between the consumer and the marketer. Consumers will perceive an unfair exchange when the cost (time, money, cognitive processing, and attention) outweighs the benefits (informative, entertaining, amusing) (Bartos and Dunn 1979; Bauer and Greyser 1968).

Previous studies in advertising appeals have concluded that consumers will resist the message when they perceive the message as manipulative (Eagly, Wood, and Chaiken 1978; Wood and Eagly 1981). Reactance theory supports this claim and suggests a forceful message will evoke negative reactions due to perceived loss of freedom (Brehm 1966). Research into emotional and guilt appeals have found similar findings and shows that forceful guilt advertisements evoked unintended emotions such as anger and anxiety (Batra and Ray 1986; Coulter and Pinto 1995). Thus, the advertisements had an adverse effect on behaviour. In addition, Cotte, Coulter, and Moore (2005) indicated ad credibility and IMI are negatively correlated. When consumers perceive high levels of ad credibility, they will perceive low levels of IMI. Their research was limited to direct relationships between ad credibility, IMI and guilt arousal. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore (2005) did suggest consumers may perceive the ad as credible, but if the ad was presented in a manipulative manner, consumers will respond negatively. Thus, IMI must have some indirect influence on the relationship between ad

credibility and guilt arousal. Additionally, more recent studies found IMI have a negative influence on guilt (Hibbert et al. 2007) and attitude towards the ad (Campbell 1995).

The Role of Attitudes towards the Advertisement in Advertising

Attitude towards the advertisement is defined as, “predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion” (Lutz 1985). One of the earliest conceptualisation of attitude towards advertising suggested that consumer's beliefs towards advertising have an effect on social and economic factors (Bauer and Greyser 1968). This was viewed as a new measure to understand consumer’s attitudes towards advertising. Before then, attitude towards advertising was predominantly viewed as an economic role of advertising (Bauer and Greyser 1968). A flourish of research in attitudes followed in 1980’s, and researchers started dimensionalising the attitude concept. One of the most notable research in attitude showed that it could be dimensionalised by the advertisement or the advertiser (Sandage and Leckenby 1980). This led to the idea that attitude towards advertising is driven by beliefs toward advertising and attitudes toward the institution (Muehling 1987). Leading from these studies, scholars investigated the economic and social advertising beliefs (Andrews 1989), perception of information (whether it is credible or believable) on attitudes (Alwitt and Prabhaker 1992; Lutz 1985) and emotional/feeling characteristics of attitudes (Muehling 1987; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). Mackenzie and Lutz (1989) suggested that attitude towards advertising is driven by four factors namely ad credibility, ad perception, attitude towards the advertiser and attitude towards advertising. Other scholars in the field have also highlighted the mediating effects of attitude towards advertising as a response to advertising (Batra and Ray 1986; Belch 1986; Cacioppo and Petty 1985; Lutz, MacKenzie, and Belch 1983; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986; Moore and Hutchinson 1983).

However, limited research in negative emotional appeals such as guilt appeals raises some interesting questions regarding the mediating effects of attitude towards advertising. Scholars in the field suggested that there could be a mediating relationship of advertising response (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). However, their study was limited to direct relationship between attitude towards the advertisement, guilt and donation intentions. Furthermore, the

dual mode of persuasion (Lutz 1985) indicate that attitude towards advertising will mediate the relationship between ad credibility and attitude towards the brand. However, it is uncertain whether this relationship holds for guilt appeals because every aspect of guilt appeals is analysed by consumers. Thus it may raise scepticism towards the advertiser and reduce the credibility of the advertisement. As a result, this effect may inhibit the mediating effect of attitude towards advertising.

The Role of Purchase Intention in Advertising

Izard (1977) explains that guilt binds a person to the source of guilt and that an individual's feeling of guilt will not subside until a response has been made. Thus, guilt can be a powerful behavioural motivator. Purchase intention could be referred to as a planned behavioural response to acquire or obtain a product or a service (Ajzen 1991). Researchers have explored the relationship between guilt appeals and behavioural intentions and they have provided with mixed results. Some researchers have suggested that there is a negative relationship between guilt and behavioural intention (Godek and LaBarge 2006), others have suggested that there is a positive relationship (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007), and some scholars even found that there is no significant relationship between the two constructs (Coulter and Pinto 1995; Ghingold and Bozinoff 1982). Therefore the inconsistencies of the findings suggest that more research on the relationship between guilt appeals and behavioural intention is needed. Further, these inconsistencies could be caused by other factors such as measurement and conceptualisation issues.

GAPS IN THE LITERATURE

Based on the preceding discussion on all relevant literature to guilt research, it is evident there are a number of gaps in terms of conceptualisation and measurement of the guilt appeals construct. The key ones are as follows:

GAP 1 – Need to develop specific scales for each type of guilt

The psychometric guilt measure faces numerous issues as it is difficult to access the internal affective state of guilt (Tangney 1996). The current guilt scale in the literature is a composite measure that is based on a unified guilt conceptualisation. This measure however is inappropriate and ineffective on specific types of guilt as the guilt domain has many characteristics. Therefore the composite measure simply cannot cover the full domain of guilt (Mosher 1968). Thus specific measures for each type of guilt appeals are needed (Kugler and Jones 1992; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007).

Gap 2 – Need to empirically test Guilt appeals in the luxury branding industry

A review of the literature clearly indicates a lack of empirical research in guilt appeals in advertising in a non-social marketing context (Ghingold 1980; Hibbert et al. 2007; Kugler and Jones 1992; Steenhaut and Kenhove 2006). Traditionally, guilt is studied extensively in psychology to understand social human behaviour (e.g. Dougherty 1986; Plutchik 1980). Interestingly, review of advertisements show that guilt appeals are being used in luxury brands (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997), yet there is no research on the effectiveness of guilt appeals in the luxury branding industry (Dahl, Honea, and Manchanda 2003; Huhmann and Brotherton 1997).

GAP 3 – Need to identify specific guilt appeals for different product categories

Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) research shows that the three types of guilt appeals have different characteristics, thus advertisers relied on different executions for each type of guilt. Further, there is also a strong indication that the frequency of usage for each type of guilt differs in each product category (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). For example, existential guilt is more commonly used in charitable advertisements, while anticipatory guilt is mainly employed in non-durable products and reactive guilt is heavily used in non-durable and health products. The literature shows the frequency of each type of guilt being used in each context, however the effectiveness of specific types of guilt is relatively unknown. Thus there is a need to test for relative effectiveness of the three guilt appeals and their appropriateness in non-durable, durable and service product categories (Cotte, Coulter, and

Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Huhmann and Brotherton 1997).

GAP 4 – Need of a theoretical model to measure direct/indirect effects of guilt

Key studies in the advertising literature have investigated the direct influences of guilt appeals (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007). A lack of empirical models in the discipline has further inhibited the understanding of guilt appeals in advertising (e.g. Coulter and Pinto 1995). Therefore, a holistic model that comprises of direct and indirect relationships is needed. The literature indicates that the key constructs that could influence the effectiveness of guilt appeal directly and indirectly are attitude towards the advertisement and inferences of manipulative intent (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). In addition to these constructs, the literature has also identified ad credibility and purchase intention as important to understand the persuasiveness of guilt appeals.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This chapter discusses the literature on guilt appeals, and highlights the key constructs that may influence the effectiveness of guilt advertisements. In addition, the critical analysis of the guilt literature has identified the major research gaps that need to be bridged. In Chapter 3, these research gaps will be revisited to generate the research questions and objectives specific to the study. Chapter 3 will also provide the theoretical underpinnings, the hypotheses development and the research model that will help examine these deficiencies.

Chapter 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will provide a theoretical framework and the development of the hypotheses for the study. Before these are discussed, the chapter will first provide the research questions and objectives based on the research gaps identified in the Chapter 2. This is then followed by a quick recap of the three types of guilt appeals (**existential, anticipatory, and reactive**). It will also explain that construct dimensionalisation for each type of guilt is different. Therefore this section will further remind scholars that composite guilt measures are inefficient to meet the objectives of the study. The following section will then discuss the key theories that underpin the research. They will be operationalised to forecast the relationship between the variables. Based on theoretical foundations the research model and hypotheses of the study will be presented before concluding the chapter.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES

The focus of this study, which compares consumer's response to existential guilt appeal, anticipatory guilt appeal and reactive guilt appeal, revolves around acquiring knowledge on four main issues (as discussed in previous section) as attained and influenced by the gaps identified in the literature review. The scope of the research is also specific to the luxury brands industry. Based on the identified gaps the following research questions and the accompanying objectives are developed to underpin the study. These are:

Research Question One: What is the relative effectiveness and measure of each type of guilt appeals for purchase intentions of different product categories and industries?

Objective 1: To develop three distinctive scales to measure the three types of guilt (Gap 1)

Objective 2: To develop a research framework that specifically measures different types of guilt appeals in the luxury brand industry (Gap 2)

Objective 3: To measure the relative effectiveness of each type of guilt appeals in non-durable, durable and service product categories (Gap 3)

Research Question Two: What variables have direct and indirect influences on the effectiveness of guilt appeal?

Objective 4: To develop a research framework for guilt arousal that incorporates key constructs including ad credibility, attitude towards the advertisement, IMI and purchase intention (Gap 4)

Objective 5: To test the mediating roles of attitude towards the advertisements and IMI with other variables in the guilt framework (4 sets of mediations) (Gap 4)

The following section will first provide a quick recap of the needs of the guilt construct and the relevant scales for measurement. It will explore the research question that examines the effects of each independent guilt response. The need for specific scales to more effectively test the existence, and the differences in anticipatory, reactive and existential guilt reactions will be discussed. The three key overarching theories are first discussed followed by a summary of definitions for the various secondary theories that explain individual relationships. Next the research model will be depicted and followed by a discussion and justifications for all the hypotheses developed for this study – specifically, hypotheses based on cognition, emotions, attitudes, and intentions are explored. Finally, the indirect influences on the relationship between guilt and purchase intentions will be examined.

RECAP OF THE GUILT APPEALS CONSTRUCT

Dimensionalising Guilt Appeals

The concept of different types of guilt as highlighted in chapter 2, is discussed by numerous scholars (e.g.; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Izard 1977; Lindsey 2005; Rawlings 1970). As a quick summary, one of the earliest studies in psychology identified two types of guilt, namely anticipatory and reactive guilt (Rawlings 1970). The study explained that **anticipatory** guilt is generated when the individual contemplates a **potential violation** of one's own standards (guilt that is evoked due to future action/inaction). Rawlings (1970) also added that **reactive**

guilt is evoked when the **response to a past**, and overt act of having violated those standards (Rawlings 1970) (guilt that is evoked from past action/inaction). Izard (1977) extended the research in guilt by suggesting that there is a third type of guilt, namely, **existential** guilt which is defined as a **comparison** of one's own well-being to the well-being of others, and encourages action to bring the two closer together. While this distinction of guilt appeals is made, previous empirical studies have not explored these types independently of each other. Instead, guilt appeals are often defined using a unified concept.

Scholars defined guilt as a motivating, action-oriented emotion due to the unambiguous nature of linkage between feeling of guilt and actions that led to its elicitation (Lewis 1993). This definition is often used in a number of empirical studies with no distinction made between anticipatory (future), reactive (past), and existential (present). Lewis's (1993) definition of guilt is accurate in explaining guilt as the unified concept as it was intended, however evidence suggests that advertisers should be cautious of testing guilt appeals using this method. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) identified various characteristics, executions, and settings that are best suited to each form of guilt, and these could be applicable in the development of advertisements. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) examined each type of guilt appeal and their potential suitability in different products and services. However, the research is limited to current strategies being used by advertisers for each type of guilt appeal. It does not measure the comparable effects of each appeal as an advertising tool on consumers' reactions.

Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) identified some specific cues for evoking the three types of appeals. Existential guilt appeal cues mainly consisted of suggestions to **help** the less fortunate (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). Interestingly, "statement of effect" was also used in combination with the suggestion on how consumers can help. However, anticipatory guilt appeal cues mainly used statement of fact (Cordaid – "handbag €32, food for a week €4") and suggestions (Mont Blanc - "Helping others gives success true meaning") (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). On the other hand, reactive guilt cues consisted of "statement of fact" and "asking consumer questions" (Juicy Juice – "You check his helmet. You check his training wheels. Shouldn't you check the label on his juice?"). The reactive guilt advertisements **questioned the consumer's current state** and satisfaction with the current brand, while the

anticipatory guilt advertisements usually suggest how the goods and services could **prevent a negative outcome**. Examples of these are presented in Chapter 2.

As discussed, the research postulates that advertisers should be exploring guilt as three separate appeals due to variation in consumer behaviour as a result of the appeal being used. The reason why these differences are expected to occur is based on the basic premise that, existential guilt by definition, deals with one's current response. On the other hand, anticipatory guilt deals with one's own future response, while reactive guilt deals with one's own past response. Research suggests that this will have varying effects on consumers. The current knowledge on guilt appeals in advertising has been generally limited to testing guilt as a 'unified concept', or at best individual types of guilt appeal without comparison. It is difficult to determine which type of guilt appeal is more effective and more importantly the advertisers lack the knowledge on specific type of guilt effects or response that consumers may encounter when specific types of guilt appeals are used in advertising. This deficiency has been highlighted by previous researchers (e.g. Godek and LaBarge 2006). Some of the expected significant differences in consumer reactions depending on exposure to the varying types of appeals include, consumer's (a) cognition (b) emotional arousal, (c) attitude towards the advertisement and (d), purchase intention. As such, this thesis will test the research model by replicating it across different product categories across three specific types of guilt. A comparison then can be made about the appropriateness and effectiveness of each specific type of guilt for each specific condition and product category.

The Need for Specific Scales

In order to test the hypotheses, it must be clear that consumers are only being exposed to cues of either existential, anticipatory, or reactive guilt in nature, and also those are actually experiencing the intended guilt reaction. To achieve this, the scales that measure each of the guilt appeals independently of each other are needed. The scales would also provide a manipulation check to ensure that only the intended emotion is being evoked from the stimulus. This will allow for a more accurate understanding and better prediction of consumer reactions. This is an issue, as to date there are no scales that measure the three types of guilt independently. Current researchers have relied only on scales that treated guilt as a 'unified'

concept. This means that the ability to measure which specific type of guilt is more effective is currently unavailable. As such, scales need to be developed to bridge this important gap. As such three specific scales will be developed for this study. The full process of scale development of the three scales will be discussed in Chapter 5.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

The research model is underpinned by three key overarching theories, namely the Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger 1957), the Heuristic-Systematic Model (Chaiken 1980) and the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty and Cacioppo 1986).

Cognitive Dissonance Theory

This was first conceptualised by Festinger (1957), which suggests that consumers will feel anxiety or discomfort when there is an existence of two inconsistent beliefs. Dissonance occurs when the individual commits to a behaviour then assesses the meaning of the behaviour against their own standards (Stone and Cooper 2001). For example, consumers believe that smoking is bad for their health but they continue to smoke. That is, the belief contradicts with the behaviour, and when the person assesses their past behaviour it will evoke anxiety and discomfort. As the result, the consumer may be pressured to quit smoking to reduce these anxieties.

In a luxury brands context, consumers know that spending beyond their limitation is bad for their financial stability. Yet, some consumers continue to maximise their credit cards and spend beyond their affordability. As the result, dissonance is often evoked when consumers purchase luxury products. Further, the theory suggests that consumers often rationalise the decision to reduce the feeling of dissonance (Festinger 1957; Stone and Cooper 2001). For example, consumers may justify that spending \$5000 on a branded handbag because the bag will last over 10 years. Therefore, you do not need to purchase so many handbags over the same period, and such purchases could be viewed as good value for money in a long run.

Cognitive Dissonance Theory is applicable to guilt appeals because the feeling of guilt drives dissonance. That is the individual's behaviour is inconsistent with our standards. In recent years researchers have shown that consumer's self-reflections are driven to reduce dissonance (Stone and Cooper 2001). Similarly, consumers have the urge to reduce the feeling of guilt based on self-assessment of their failures. Researchers (such as Stone and Cooper 2001) in the field theorised that there are three perspectives of dissonance, namely:

- a) **“Self-standards expectancies”** which is shaped by the individual's morality to evaluate their behaviour (Thibodeau and Aronson 1992). These standards are derived from the society's values and social norms (Thibodeau and Aronson 1992). The internalisation of these norms helps individuals interpret and evaluate their behaviour and personal standards against what is socially acceptable (Thibodeau and Aronson 1992). Thus, the feeling of guilt is derived from self-assessment of our behaviour to the expectancies of social standards.
- b) **“Self-standards as shared norms”** suggests that individuals are motivated to change their behaviour due to the need to maintain socially accepted norms that govern moral behaviour (Cooper and Fazio 1984). In this instance, it assumes that hedonic evaluation of the behaviour is shared by members of the culture (Stone and Cooper 2001). That is, important groups such as friends and families' values shape the individual's standards (Higgins 1990). Therefore, the feeling of guilt is an assessment of the behaviour which is heavily shaped by our social network.
- c) **“Socio-cognitive factors for assessing behaviour”** shows the importance of accessibility of idiographic self-knowledge and normative standards (Wicklund 1975). The individual may have strong personal standards however the person will not feel guilty if she/he is not aware that it is breaking their standards. For example, when you are driving overseas you may not get fined for minor driving offences because you are not familiar with the local road rules. In the same vein, if the advertiser cannot highlight that the person is violating their own standards, the individual will not feel guilty. Thus cognitive dissonance theory helps explain how guilt could be evoked by highlighting cognitive and affect factors that could influence the feelings of guilt.

Heuristic-Systematic Model

The Heuristic-Systematic Model (Chaiken 1980) underpins the model by explaining how consumers process persuasive information to satisfy their goals. It suggests that the persuasive information is processed either through a:

- a. **Systematic approach** where consumers use cognitive resources to process the message. The information is processed analytically before making the judgements, or
- b. **Heuristic approach** where consumers use previous experiences to make the judgement. These judgements are formed by previous memories or "knowledge".

Thus, the persuasiveness of the information is dependent on how systematically the information is processed and consumer's knowledge to infer judgements. Therefore the theory helps explain whether consumers judge the advertisement as credible or manipulative. This theory also helps explain the defence mechanisms that consumers use to cope with the feeling of guilt.

Studies show that older consumers are more capable of coping with guilt due to the lessons learned from past experiences. It has been suggested that heuristic cues can boost motivation to resolve the defence goal (Chaiken, Giner-Sorolla, and Chen 1996; Chaiken, Wood, and Eagly 1996; Giner-Sorolla and Chaiken 1997). Thus, consumers are more likely to be persuaded when they perceive that the advertisement is trying to help them avoid the feeling of guilt.

It is also predicted that reactive guilt appeals would elicit more systematic processing than anticipatory guilt because reactive guilt appeals elicit more negative emotion (Schwarz and Clore 1996). Godek and LaBarge (2006) suggested that consumers will go through the dual processing method when they are analysing the persuasiveness of guilt induced advertisements.

Elaboration Likelihood Model

The Elaboration Likelihood Model developed by (Petty and Cacioppo 1986) shows that consumer's attitude could be formed differently due to the way they process the advertising message. The theory suggests that central or peripheral route of processing could be used to process the advertisement. Consumers will process the message using central route of processing when they are more involved in purchasing the product. This method involves high cognitive processing to scrutinise the persuasion attempt. Therefore, advertisements that promote expensive luxury brands will be analysed more in comparison to others. Consumers require more elaboration in the central route of processing and they will accept messages that are convincing, reliable and trustworthy (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). Due to these factors the consumers are more likely to accept the message and create a favourable attitude towards the advertisement. That is, consumers may decide if the advertisement is credible, or manipulative leading to the evaluation of attitude towards the advertisement. In such a way, if consumers feel the "guilt appeal" advertisement is appropriate and useful, consumers will accept the message and guilt is aroused. Based on the review of the literature it is clear that consumers are more aware of existential guilt than anticipatory and reactive guilt (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). Thus, the persuasion is more likely to be effective for existential guilt because consumers view this type of guilt as an appropriate strategy to improve the livelihood of the society. Furthermore, this type of guilt appeal is more likely to go through the central route of processing because consumers have the knowledge and capacity to evaluate the appropriateness of the advertisement.

However, consumers who have limited knowledge may rely on peripheral route of processing to analyse the message. Limited elaboration and cognitive processing is used in the peripheral route of processing (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). This method relies more on the environmental characteristics such as credibility of the source, attractiveness of the source, or other visual aspects of the advertisement to influence the decision making process. It has been suggested that consumers use this approach as a mental shortcut to accept or reject the message rather than using a cognitive processing to evaluate the relevant information. For example, in the luxury branding context, attractive celebrities are often used as endorsers or spokesperson. Consumers will likely evaluate the advertisement more favourably because they like the celebrity. It is predicted that anticipatory and reactive guilt will go through the

peripheral route of processing due to consumer's lack of knowledge of the persuasion technique. Therefore, they are unable to utilise cognitive processing effectively and they are more likely to rely on environmental cues to form opinions about the advertisement.

Secondary Theories

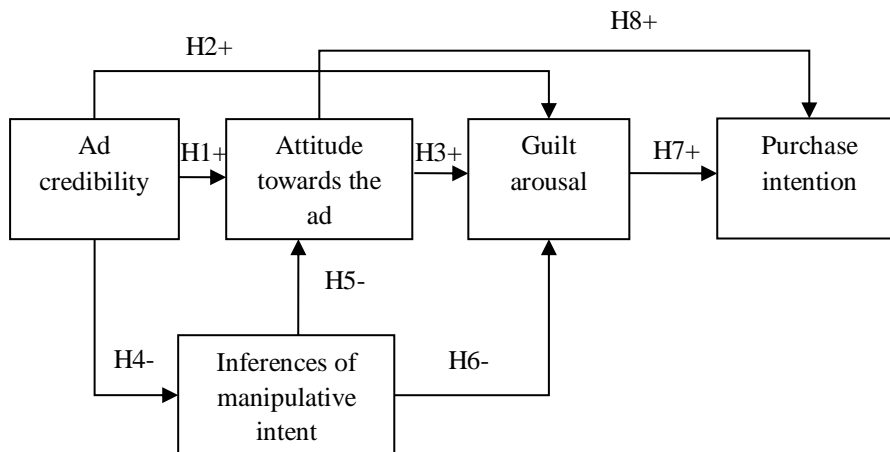
The secondary theories do not underpin the entire model but they help explain specific relationships in the model. While each of these will be discussed in tandem with each hypothesis, the following will provide a brief definition of each theory. Some of these theories have also been reviewed in Chapter 2. These include:

- **Cognitive Response Theory** (Greenwald 1968) (H1, H2, H9 and 11) is defined as a method to understand how consumers respond to persuasive communication by acquiring and changing their attitudes.
- **Attribution Theory** (Heider 1958) (H3) is defined as how individuals interpret cause and effect relationships, and how this influences their thinking and behaviour.
- **Self-perception Theory** (Bem 1972) (H3) is defined as the motivation to act in accordance with their attitudes and behaviours.
- **Persuasion Knowledge Model** (Friestad and Wright 1994) (H4, H11 and H12) explains how consumers cope with persuasion attempts by building knowledge about advertiser's persuasion techniques.
- **Reactance Theory** (Brehm 1966) (H5, H6, H11 and H12) is defined as the motivation to reject forceful messages due to perceived loss of freedom.
- **Equity Theory** (Adams 1965) (H5, H6, H11 and H12) is defined as the perception of a fair/unfair exchange.
- **Dual Mediation Hypothesis** (MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986) (H10 and H11) explains how attitude towards the advertisement can affect other variables through beliefs and liking.
- **Negative State Model** (Cialdini and Kenrick 1976) (H7) is defined as the innate drive to reduce negative emotions.
- **Theory of Planned Behaviour** (Ajzen 1991) (H8) is defined as the theory that shows attitudes, subjective norms, perceived control and intentions to predict behaviour.

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Figure 3.1 depicts the research model illustrating the various relationships. Only the mediating relationships are not shown in the model. Each hypothesis will be discussed with justifications from the overarching theories as well as secondary theories.

Figure 3.1 Guilt Appeal Research Model

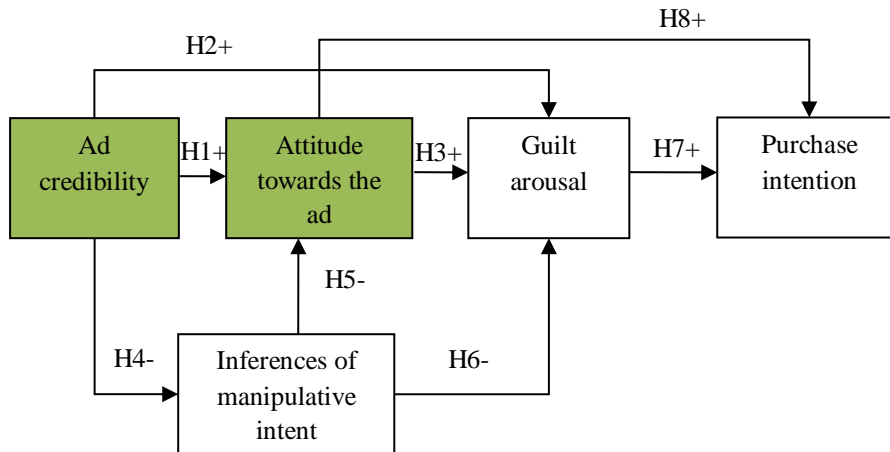


Ad Credibility on Attitudes towards the Advertisement (H1)

Researchers have conceptualised that Ad credibility could have a direct impact on the effectiveness of advertisement (MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). Past research has empirically shown that Ad credibility has a positive effect on consumer reactions to the advertisement (MacKenzie and Lutz 1989) and enhances overall advertising effectiveness (Goldberg and Hartwick 1990). As stated previously in Chapter 2, cognitive response theory suggests that when consumers perceive persuasive communications as credible, the cognitive responses and attitude towards advertisement will be more favourable (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). Therefore, using cognitive processing, consumers will analyse and criticise the advertisement by making judgements on the accuracy of the "statement of facts" and "suggestions" that are commonly used in guilt advertisements. The Ad credibility will be high if consumers perceive the advertisement to make claims that are truthful and believable (MacKenzie and Lutz 1989) by judging both verbal and non-verbal cues within the advertisement. Based on these evaluations, consumers will determine whether the advertisement depicts an accurate picture of the brand. It is suggested that guilt advertisements that portray an accurate picture

will be more likeable (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). Thus, the following hypothesis is postulated:

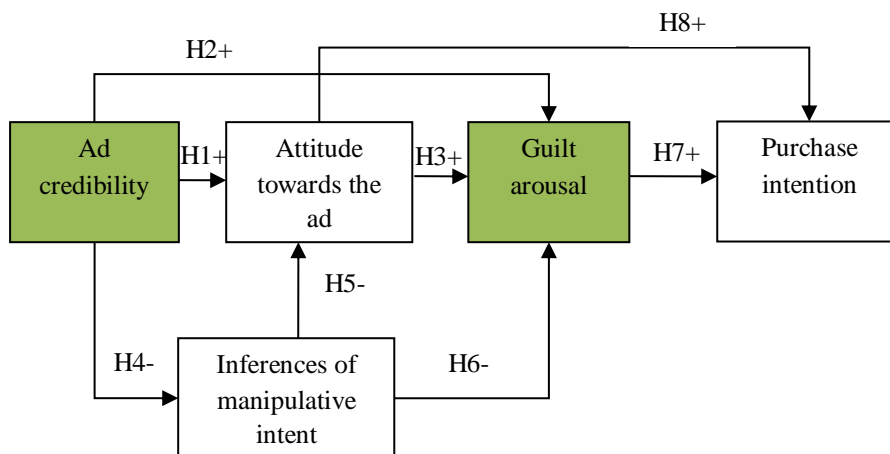
H1: Higher ad credibility will lead to a more favourable attitude towards the ad



Ad Credibility on Guilt Arousal (H2)

When consumers perceives an advertisement as credible, then the consumers' emotional reaction will be more congruent with the advertiser's intention (e.g. the intended emotion will be evoked). The cognitive response theory explains that when consumers believe the facts in the advertisement, they will accept the advertisement, thus the response will be favourable. This means the consumers will feel the emotion that is being evoked through the advertisement (e.g. guilt). Theoretically, it is strongly suggested that cognition could lead to affect (feelings) (MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). However, recent studies show no relationship between the credibility of the advertisement and the feeling of guilt (Hibbert et al. 2007). One reason could be due to the measurement of the emotions (such as using a unified guilt scale instead of the specific guilt measure). Therefore, there is uncertainty whether cognition could lead to negative feelings. More empirical evidence is needed to understand this relationship. Using cognitive response theory as a theoretical support, the research predicts that when a consumer is exposed to a credible guilt appeal, it is more likely to evoke the feeling of the specific guilt. Thus the following hypothesis is postulated:

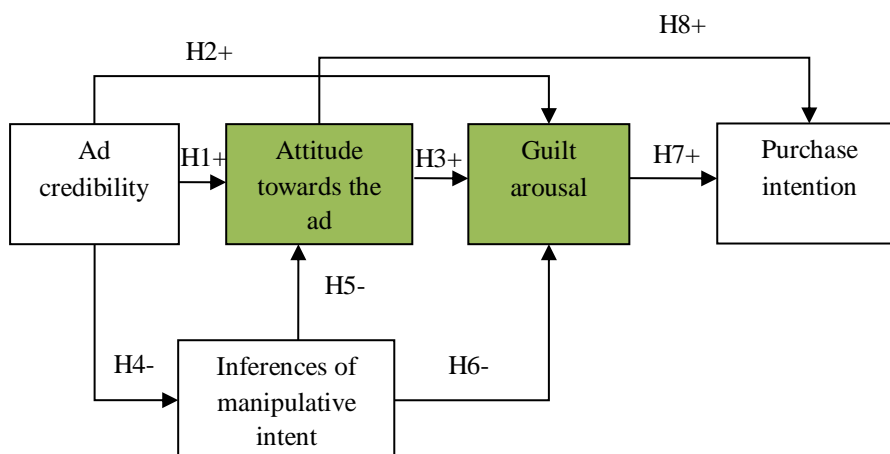
H2: Higher ad credibility will lead to a stronger guilt arousal



Attitudes Towards the Advertisement on Guilt Arousal (H3)

The Attribution theory (Heider 1958) and Self-perception theory (Bem 1972) can provide explanations as to how consumers make judgements about their attitudes based on their own behaviour. For example, consumers attribute their successes due to their hard work but any failures are caused by others. These two theories suggest that individuals interpret their own behaviours in a rational manner as well as using the same manner to explain the behaviour of others. Therefore, consumer's attitudes could shape how we perceive our own feelings and behaviour. That is, if consumers have positive attitudes towards the advertisement, they will accept that the failure to act is caused by themselves and not others. If consumers do accept the responsibility and attribute the violation or the failure of their action or inaction, then the intended emotion will be evoked (e.g. guilt). However, there is limited literature that investigates the relationship between attitudes and guilt. Based on theoretical underpinnings, it is predicted that favourable attitudes towards the ad will lead to guilt arousal. Further, past studies indicate that attitude towards the ad is a mediator of advertising response (Batra and Ray 1986; Cacioppo and Petty 1985; Lutz, MacKenzie, and Belch 1983; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986; Moore and Hutchinson 1983). Literature also suggests a positive relationship between attitude towards the ad and emotional response (Batra and Ray 1986; Edell and Burke 1987; Mackenzie and Lutz 1989). Coulter, Cotte, and Moore (1999) conceptualisations of guilt further suggests a positive correlation to exist between intended emotions such as guilt and favourable attitude towards the advertisement. Thus the following hypothesis is postulated:

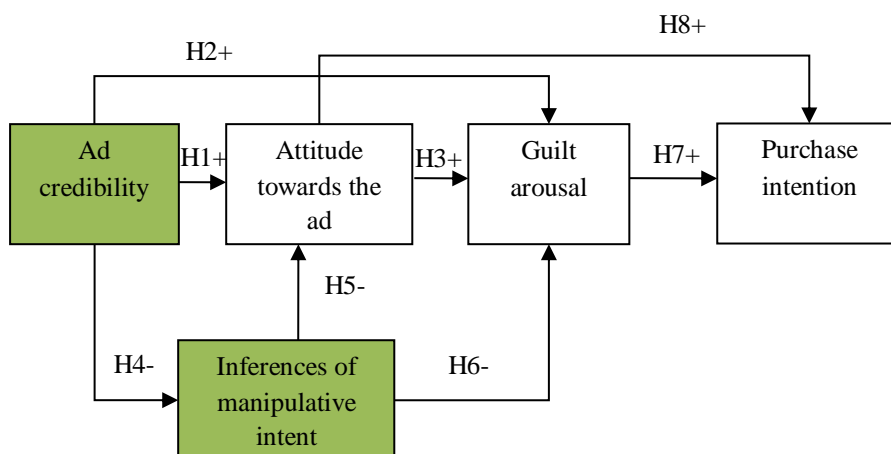
H3: A more favourable attitude towards the ad will lead to a higher guilt arousal



Ad Credibility on Inferences of Manipulative Intent (H4)

Previous studies in advertising appeals have concluded that consumers will resist the message when they perceive the message as manipulative (Eagly, Wood, and Chaiken 1978; Wood and Eagly 1981). Reactance theory supports this claim and suggests a forceful message will evoke negative reactions due to perceived loss of freedom (Brehm 1966). Research into emotional and guilt appeals have found similar findings (Batra and Ray 1986; Coulter and Pinto 1995). Further, the Persuasion Knowledge Model helps explain that consumers are continually learning about advertiser's persuasion techniques (Friestad and Wright 1994). Therefore the consumers are able to conduct a more comprehensive cognitive processing as they get older due to previous experiences with persuasion techniques. That means, consumers are able to make better judgement about the credibility of the advertisement and evaluate whether the advertiser's method of persuasion is appropriate. It has also been suggested that ad credibility and inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) are negatively correlated, when consumers perceive high levels of ad credibility, they will perceive low levels of IMI (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). That is when the advertisement is seen as truthful and believable (e.g. advertisement is credible), consumers will perceive that the advertiser is using appropriate means to persuade the consumer (e.g. advertisement is not manipulative). Thus the following hypothesis is postulated:

H4: Higher ad credibility will lead to lower inferences of manipulative intent



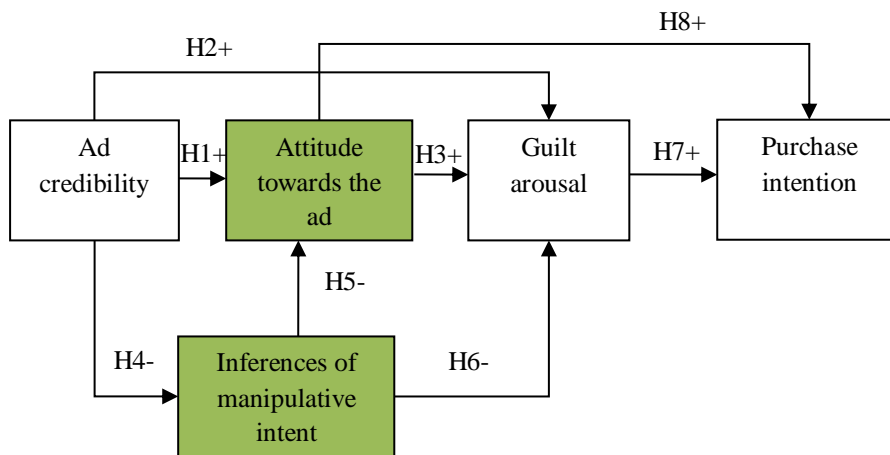
Inferences of Manipulative Intent on Attitude Towards the Advertisement (H5)

Studies have found that IMI have a negative influence on attitude towards the advertisement (e.g. Campbell 1995). That is, when consumers perceive that the advertiser is using an inappropriate persuasion method then they will have unfavourable feelings towards the advertisement. Equity theory as explained by Adams (1965) states that consumers will compare benefits with their investments. Inequity arises when the investment is greater than the benefit. Therefore, if the advertiser's benefit is greater than the consumer's investment, the advertisement could be perceived as inappropriate, unfair or manipulative (Campbell 1995).

Further, the reactance theory suggests that limiting individuals' freedom of choice can be perceived as a loss of choice to make their own decisions (Brehm 1966). Therefore, consumers feel that they are forced to make a choice even though it may not be appropriate for them. A combination of equity theory and reactance theory helps explain that deliberate attempts to persuade consumers are viewed negatively because, the costs of listening to the advertisements exceeds the benefits, and consumers perceive they have lost the freedom to choose their own course of action. To date, there is still limited literature that investigates the relationship between IMI and attitude towards the advertisement (Campbell 1995). Some scholars have suggested that there could be a negative relationship (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). However, more empirical support is needed to confirm the existence of the relationship. It is postulated that advertisements that attempt to persuade inappropriately will

lead to unfavourable attitudes towards the advertisement. Thus the following hypothesis is postulated:

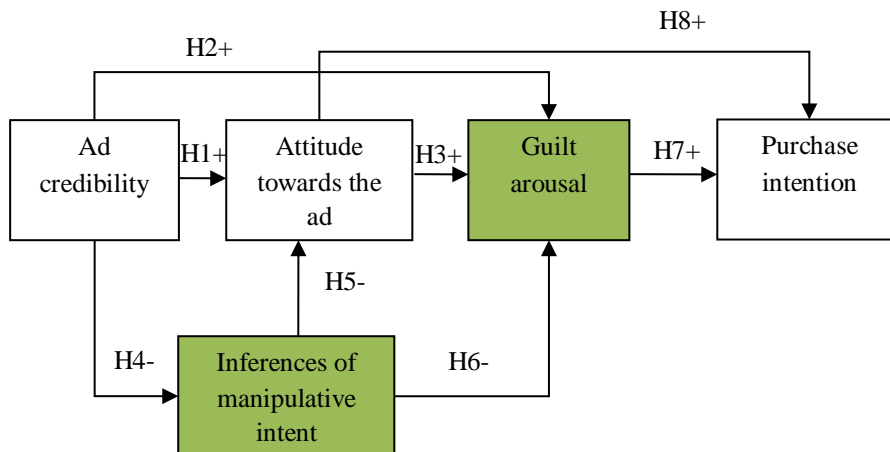
H5: Lower inferences of manipulative intent will lead to a more favourable attitude towards the ad



Inferences of Manipulative Intent on Guilt Arousal (H6)

The persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright 1994) helps explain the relationship between IMI and guilt arousal. Studies in guilt appeals have shown that IMI have a negative influence on guilt (e.g. Englis 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007). If a consumer perceives that the advertiser is using an inappropriate method of persuasion, it is more likely to arouse unintended emotions such as anger and anxiety, and reduce the feeling of guilt (Coulter and Pinto 1995). Further, as suggested earlier by the reactance theory, inappropriate attempts to persuade consumers could lead to negative response to the advertisement (Brehm 1966). As suggested by MacKenzie and Lutz (1989), cognition could lead to affect, therefore when consumers perceive that they are being manipulated, they will behave negatively. Research by Hibbert, Hogg, and Quinn (2005) and Coulter and Pinto (1995) suggested consumers will respond negatively through feeling of anxiety and anger, and will feel less guilt as a result. Therefore, when consumers perceive the advertisement to be appropriate (e.g. not manipulative) they will feel more guilt. Thus the following hypothesis is postulated:

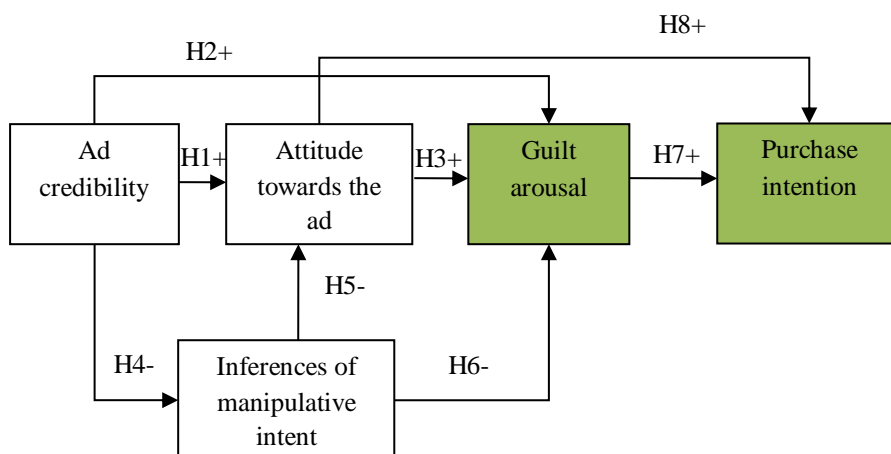
H6: Lower inferences of manipulative intent will lead to a higher guilt arousal



Guilt Arousal on Purchase Intention (H7)

The negative state model suggests that individuals have innate desires to reduce negative emotions (Cialdini and Kenrick 1976). To reduce these feelings, individuals are motivated to perform altruistic (Baumann, Cialdini, and Kenrick 1981) and hedonistic (Weyant 1978) behaviours. Thus, individuals are motivated to perform behaviours to reduce negative emotions such as guilt. Therefore, advertisements that evoke guilt could motivate consumers to behave positively because consumers desire to reduce the negative emotion. Research in existential guilt appeals have shown that guilt and behavioural intentions are positively related (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). However, other research involving purchase intentions of products in non-durable contexts have disputed these claims and suggested that there was no significant relationship (Coulter and Pinto 1995). Therefore, it is unclear how the relationship will hold for each type of guilt appeal under different product categories. Based on the negative state model, it is predicted that feeling guilt will lead to a positive purchase intention. Thus the following hypothesis is postulated:

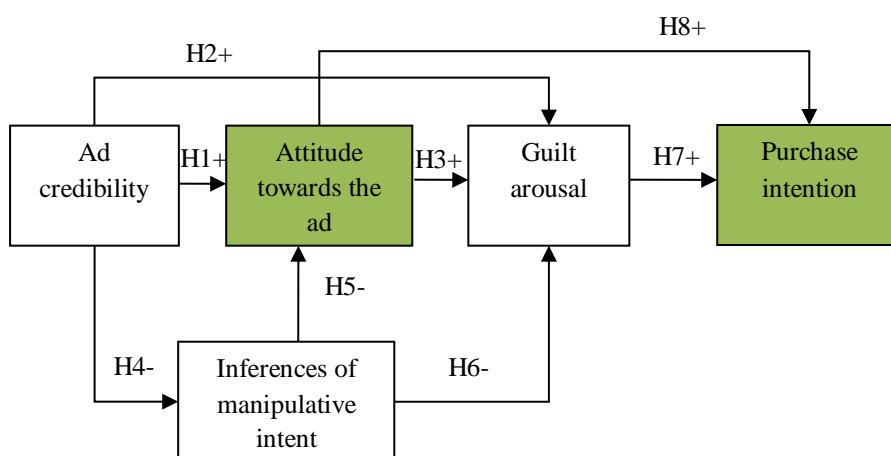
H7: A higher guilt arousal will lead to a higher purchase intention



Attitude towards the advertisement on Purchase Intention (H8)

The theory of planned behaviour suggests that planned behaviour or intended behaviour is heavily influenced by attitudes (Ajzen 1991). It has been suggested that there is a positive relationship between the two constructs (Ajzen 1991; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). That is when consumer's attitudes are positive, their intended behaviour will also be positive. However, there is limited empirical support for the relationship for advertisements that uses guilt (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). However, based on numerous studies in advertising and psychology it is predicted that the positive relationship will exist between the two variables (e.g. Ajzen 1991; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). Thus the following hypothesis is postulated:

H8: A more favourable attitude towards the Ad will lead to higher purchase intention



Mediating Effects of Attitude Towards the Ad and IMI (H9-H12)

Advertising literature has clearly shown the mediating role of attitudes as an advertising response (e.g. MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). The dual mediation hypothesis explains that attitudes have two influences, one directly through to beliefs and the other through liking. Therefore, it is predicted that attitudes will mediate the relationship between Ad credibility and guilt arousal as well as the relationship between IMI and guilt arousal. Further, as suggested in the preceding discussion, cognitive response theory helps to explain consumer's perception of the accuracy of information. The appropriateness of the persuasion will influence whether the individual views the advertisement as favourable or not. In the same vein, the persuasion knowledge model helps explain that IMI could act as mediator of advertising response (Campbell 1995). As such, the following hypotheses are presented.

H9: Attitude towards the ad will mediate the relationship between ad credibility and guilt arousal

H10: Attitude towards the ad will mediate the relationship between inferences of manipulative intent and guilt arousal

H11: Inferences of manipulative intent will mediate the relationship between ad credibility and guilt arousal

H12: Inferences of manipulative intent will mediate the relationship between ad credibility and attitude towards the ad

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The review of the literature highlights a number of gaps that needed to be filled. This research attempts to fill these gaps by identifying key constructs that could influence the effectiveness of each type of guilt appeal. As discussed in the previous chapter the literature lacks a scale that provides an accurate and rigorous measure of guilt. Thus, the development of the scales will be discussed in Chapter 5. The results for the main study will be discussed in Chapter 6 to showcase the differences between each type of guilt in various product categories in the luxury brand industry. The next chapter will review the research methodology of the thesis.

Chapter 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the methodology used in the main study. A detailed proceeding of the scale development procedure is discussed in Chapter 5. Chapter 4 will first begin with a discussion of the preparation of the product category, preparation of stimulus and pre-testing of advertisements and brands. These will be fully justified using theoretical support. This is then followed by the research design for the main study. This section will describe the structure of the factorial design used to test the hypotheses from Chapter 3. It will then discuss the data collection method that was used for the main study. In the subsequent section, it will describe how the scales are constructed and their reliabilities as prescribed by the literature. The next section will then explain the design of the survey instrument using a six step approach. Furthermore, a short description of the ethics approval process is presented before a description of the analysis methods and statistical technique. The chapter will then provide concluding comments for Chapter 4.

Preparation of Product Category

The decision on the choice of the three product categories for the study was first consulted with the literature. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) showed that guilt appeals are commonly used in non-durable, durable and services, thus these categories were chosen for the study. However, the literature did not indicate which industries in each of the product category are more relevant for guilt appeals. Therefore, a focus group was used to pre-test four industries for each of the product category. The focus group was provided with a definition and an explanation of each type of guilt appeal. Participants were then asked which of the industries were more relevant to them in a study that utilised the three types of guilt. Non-durable products consisted of, chocolate products, grocery products, cleaning products and health products. Participants explained that chocolate products are more appropriate and relevant for their age group. Durable products consisted of jewellery, consumer electronics, automobiles and furniture. Participants explained that jewellery products are often bought for their

partners as a gift thus it could be more appropriate for the study. Service products consisted of holiday resorts, education products, financial service products and professional service products (e.g. doctors and dentists). Most of the participants had a direct purchasing experience with holiday resorts recently, thus it could be more relevant for the study. Based on the results from the focus group, chocolate products, jewellery products and holiday resorts were chosen to represent their respective product categories.

Care was taken to ensure that advertisement designs were consistent across the study (e.g. similar size, length, and colour). Each type of guilt advertisement had three products namely of a non-durable, durable, and service category. For non-durable product category, Ferrero Rocher chocolate was used as the stimulus, for durable product category Tiffany & Co jewellery was used as the stimulus, and for the service category Club Med resorts was used as the stimulus. These categories were chosen based on the recommendations from the literature (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997) and the brands were chosen based on another study. The choice of the brands will be discussed later in the chapter.

Preparation of Stimulus (advertisements)

To test the hypotheses empirically, the research required advertisements that are controlled for a number of variables. Still shots of the final advertisements developed for the study are attached in Appendix A, B and C. These advertisements were shown in the form of conceptual broadcast style advertisements. Three advertisements were created; each was designed to evoke one specific guilt emotion, namely, existential anticipatory or reactive. Each of these guilt appeals had three product categories making a total of nine different executions. The advertisements were developed based on the cues specific to each type of guilt using the conceptual definitions from the literature (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Izard 1977; Rawlings 1970). Each advertisement was pre-tested to ensure that it only evoked the intended emotion. Previous studies in guilt appeals, used scenarios as the stimulus to test the hypotheses (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005) and the scenario examples are discussed in Chapter 2. To increase the validity of the results, these scenarios were converted into a still shots animatics.

A review of the literature clearly shows that the existential guilt advertisements utilised cues that help consumers **compare** themselves with others (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Izard 1977). The majority of these cues are used to show how the person can **help the less fortunate** (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997), thus the advertisement must embed this perception. These advertisements mainly employ “statement of fact” and “suggestion”, thus these features were included in the advertisement.

Anticipatory guilt advertisements consisted of cues that help **avoid** the feeling of guilt (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). These advertisements are often set in the **future** and they often **suggest** how the product can prevent a **negative outcome** for the consumer (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Rawlings 1970). The literature also suggests that a majority of these advertisements uses “statement of fact” as a cue, thus these cues were embedded in the advertisement.

Reactive guilt advertisements used cues that **questioned** the consumer's current state (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). These advertisements are often set in the **past** and they often highlight the dissatisfaction with themselves (Izard 1977). Further, the literature also suggests that a majority of these advertisements used “statement of fact” as a cue, thus these cues were incorporated in the advertisement.

The advertisements were created using resources that were available on the public Internet websites. Pictures and copy were manipulated for each of the advertisements. A scenario was used to set the scene for the respondents which is a common method used by scholars to measure the effectiveness of guilt (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). The pictures in the advertisement showcased the type of guilt (e.g. the story is set in the future, the past or a comparison), and the copy execution consisted of a suggestion, a question or a fact. Before the advertisement concludes, the advertisements suggested how consumers can reduce the feeling of guilt. A pre-test of each advertisement was conducted with a group of undergraduate advertising students to identify the type of guilt that was being elicited.

All three advertisements were positioned using Christmas as the background story. The respondents were asked to imagine that their mum/dad is coming home for the holiday season for the first time in a very long time. This could be because, the mum/dad works overseas or the respondent is overseas travelling or studying, therefore the entire family has not met each other during the Christmas period. Previous studies have used similar scenarios (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). This scenario was chosen based on the results from the focus group that was conducted in the scale development stage (See chapter 5).

The existential guilt advertisement describes that Christmas is just around the corner, and that the mum/dad is coming home for Christmas where they have been away for a very long time. The respondents were asked to imagine that they are buying a favourite product/service as a present for the mum/dad to celebrate the special occasion. The images showed the respondent's childhood with their mum leading up to the time whereby they were seen in the graduation ceremony for their university degree. Then the images show the mum coming home, and catching up with the main character of the ad. It then shows images of the main character's Christmas family gathering with lots of food and present. Then the images show a comparison with kids from Asia and Africa that do not have families or food during the festive season. It then suggests that proceeds from the sale of Ferrero Rocher, Tiffany & Co or Club Med will go to World Vision to provide the necessities for these kids during Christmas. Then some images from the actual product's advertisement were shown. Finally, it concludes with the mum enjoying the product. A suggestion and statement of fact show that the product is the mum's favourite product and to share that experience with the mum this Christmas.

The anticipatory guilt advertisement describes to consumers that Christmas is just around the corner, and that the mum/dad is coming home for Christmas who has been away for a very long time. The respondents were asked to imagine that they are buying a favourite product/service as a present for the mum/dad to celebrate the special occasion. The images showed the respondent's childhood with their mum leading up to the time whereby they were seen in the graduation ceremony for their university degree. Then the images show the mum coming home, and catching up with the respondent. It then suggests that respondents should spoil the mum/dad with gifts to celebrate the special occasion. The images then show how the

viewers can avoid disappointing their mum/dad by avoiding unwanted Christmas presents such as cookware, jigsaw puzzles, teddy bears, hygienic products, garden ornaments and socks and jocks (Today Tonight 2012). The ad then suggests that the special occasion should be celebrated with their mum/dad's favourite products such as Ferrero Rocher, Tiffany & Co or Club Med. Then some images from the actual product's advertisement were shown. Finally, it concludes with the mum enjoying the product with a suggestion and statement of fact to show that the product is your mum's favourite product and to share that experience with the mum.

The reactive guilt advertisement told consumers that Christmas just finished, and that the mum/dad was waiting for the viewer to come home and visit for Christmas. The respondents were asked to imagine that they are buying a favourite product/service as a present to apologise for their behaviour (past violation). The images showed the respondent's childhood with their mum leading up to the time whereby they were seen in the graduation ceremony for their university degree. Then the images show the mum waiting at home for a visit from their child during Christmas. The images then show how the mum was distraught while waiting for the respondent to come home for Christmas. The ad then questions the respondent what they would do to make it all better. It then provides a solution on how the respondents can repair the relationship by saying how sorry they are for the past transgression and to 'make it up' by giving the mum/dad's favourite products such as Ferrero Rocher, Tiffany & Co or Club Med. Then some images from the actual product's advertisement were shown. Finally, it concludes with the mum enjoying the product with a statement of fact and question to show that the product is your mum's favourite product and to repair the relationship with the mum.

Pre-tests of Advertisements and Brands

To ensure the images were relevant, expert judges were used. A total of 30 images that showed guilt emotions were collected and the three expert judges grouped each image to each type of guilt, e.g. anticipatory, reactive and existential. Consensus as a group was required before selecting the images to the storyline. Images that did not meet the criteria were excluded.

Using a combination of images, the concept advertisements were created using PowerPoint. Advertisements consisted of three types of guilt (existential, anticipatory, and reactive) and three types of intensity (low, medium and high). There were a total of nine advertisements, Existential 1 – low, Existential 2 – medium and Existential 3 – high, Anticipatory 1 - low, Anticipatory 2 - medium and Anticipatory 3 - high, Reactive 1 - low, Reactive 2 - medium, Reactive 3 – high. A focus group consisting of 8 participants evaluated each ad. These ads were first asked based on which emotions were evoked from looking at the advertisement. Participants all agreed that the advertisements evoked guilt, sadness, regret etc. Then they were asked to order the advertisements from the highest to lowest level of guilt and inferences of manipulative intent. Reactive 3 evoked the highest level of guilt and inferences of manipulative intent. On the other hand, anticipatory 1 evoked the lowest level of guilt and inferences of manipulative intent. The literature states that guilt advertisements are most effective when it evokes medium intensity of guilt (Coulter and Pinto 1995). Thus Existential 2, Anticipatory 2 and Reactive 2 were selected. These advertisements had medium level of guilt and inferences of manipulative intent, thus they will have optimal level of ad effectiveness (Coulter and Pinto 1995).

The selection of the brands for each category was also tested. Three well-known “luxury” brands in each category were used (e.g. 3 in non-durable, 3 in durable and 3 in services products) and tested with 53 undergraduate students using quantitative analysis. The respondents were asked to rate which brands were representative of each luxury product category. For non-durable products, three executions using Ferrero Rocher, Lindt and Godiva chocolates were used. For durable products, Tiffany & Co, Swarovski and Pandora jewellery were used. For services, Club Med, Mövenpick and Sandals Hotels were used. Surprisingly, respondents identified Ferrero Rocher as a high end chocolate product due to high quality of the packaging, the use of other brand elements such as gold wrappers and the seductive executions of the advertisements. Unsurprisingly, respondents identified Tiffany & Co and Club Med as the best representatives of their respective product categories. Thus, these brands were selected for the study.

MAIN STUDY

The research used a 3 x 3 factorial design (existential, anticipatory, and reactive) x (non-durable, durable, service). Using an experimental approach, the study will investigate the effectiveness of each type of guilt in each product category. The methodology has been adopted and adapted from previous studies. These include the use of scenarios to develop the advertisement, the data collection technique, the sample method, and the scales that are used (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005). Table 4.1 shows the breakdown of the factorial research design for the study.

Table 4.1 Factorial Research Design for the Study

Category	Existential Guilt	Anticipatory Guilt	Reactive Guilt
	Pre-tests		
Non-durable (Ferrero Rocher Chocolates)	Study 1	Study 4	Study 7
Durable (Tiffany & Co Jewellery)	Study 2	Study 5	Study 8
Service (Club Med Holidays)	Study 3	Study 6	Study 9

DATA COLLECTION

Undergraduate university students studying in a large Australian university was used as subjects for the study. Student sampling has been proposed as being representative of general consumers (DeVecchio 2000; Yavas 1994) and the use of students in this study is beneficial as they provided a homogenous sample for the experimental study. This was necessary for the study as consumers coping capabilities to guilt grow with age and life experiences (Davis 1979; Silfver et al. 2008). Further, the study required consumer's income to be controlled because the products in question are relatively expensive. There is a smaller chance of data being contaminated by other influences such as consumers 'life station', age differences, life experiences and differences in brand / product recognition / familiarity. Therefore the benefit of using student sample is that it reduces external influences. As the sample has similar characteristics, it is easier and more effective to create targeted messages. Further, students have also been used in past studies on guilt appeals (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). However, the downside of using student sampling is that it does limit generalizability and increase response error. However, the respondents commonly purchased products such as chocolate, jewellery and holiday resorts as gifts or for personal consumption. Further the pre-tests of the brands and products used were also from similar samples.

A sample size of 100 per cell was targeted for the study, therefore a total of 900 usable responses are to be collected for the main research. The research will be conducted in a classroom environment. The respondents are given instructions before completing the surveys. The researcher was responsible for all collection, entering and analysis of the data. The researcher was introduced by the tutor of the class, at which stage they were informed that they were able to take part in market research to a new broadcast style advertisement. The potential respondents were then briefed on their right to anonymity and other ethics related matters (such as the right to discontinue the survey). Instructions on how the experiment is to be conducted were also described to the sample. Participants were then given the survey forms face down and instructed to leave them in this condition until instructed.

The subjects were then exposed to the guilt scenario (existential, anticipatory or reactive guilt). Each subject was only exposed to one of the advertisements that contained one type of guilt cues in one product category as discussed previously. They were reminded that discussion between peers was not allowed. After exposure, respondents were asked to immediately complete the thought elicitation exercise. Guilt was not mentioned throughout the exercise in line with previous studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). Subjects were asked to circle their feelings after viewing the advertisements on the survey instrument that consisted of all the measures. Subjects completed this task at their own pace. Then demographic data was collected. Respondents were asked to remain silent after finishing the survey to allow others to complete their survey under similar conditions. Upon completion the researcher collected all surveys. After this time, respondents had the opportunity to ask questions during the debrief. Respondents were thanked for their time and participation.

SCALE MEASUREMENTS

Six established scales were used, namely, prior attitude towards the brand (A_{br}) (adapted from MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), Standardised Emotion Profile (SEP) (adapted from Coulter and Pinto 1995; Holak and Havlena 1998), ad credibility (adapted from Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989), attitude towards the advertisement (adapted from Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989), inferences of manipulative intent (adapted from Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), and purchase intentions (adapted from Coulter and Pinto 1995; Putrevu and Lord 1994). Brand familiarity was measured using one item scale "I am very familiar with this brand". All the scales were measured on a seven point Likert scale. A majority of studies in the guilt literature used the seven point scale because it allowed respondents to choose a neutral point (e.g. Coulter and Pinto 1995; Hibbert, Hogg, and Quinn 2005). A score of one represented strongly disagree and a score of seven represented strongly agree. The anticipatory, reactive and existential guilt arousal scale was developed for this study. This scale was developed following the guidelines by DeVellis (2003), Churchill (1979), and Wells, Leavitt, and McConville (1971). (See Chapter 5 for further details for the development of the three guilt scales). See the Table 4.2 for the summary of the scale item reliability.

Table 4.2 Summary of the Scale Item Reliabilities for the Study

Scale	Number of items	Cronbach Alpha Reliability
Prior attitude towards the brand (A_{br}) “I have good attitudes towards the brand” “My attitude towards the brand is favourable” “My attitude towards the brand is positive” “I dislike the brand”	4 items (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989)	0.86 - 0.97
Standardised Emotion Profile (SEP) For each of the following emotions, please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling: Accountable, Guilty, Ashamed, Bad, Irresponsible, Uneasy, Upset, Laugh, Happy, Smile, Amused, Good, Irritated Annoyed, Angry	15 items (e.g. Coulter and Pinto, 1995; Holak and Havlena 1998)	0.85 - 0.89
Ad credibility (A_{cr}) “This ad is believable” “This ad is truthful” “This ad is realistic”	3 items (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989)	0.74 - 0.80
Inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) “The way this ad tries to persuade people seems acceptable to me”, “The advertiser tried to manipulate the audience in ways I do not like”, “I was annoyed by this ad because the advertiser seemed to be trying to inappropriately manage or control the audience”, “I didn’t mind this ad; the advertiser tried to be persuasive without being excessively manipulative”, “The ad was fair in what was said and shown” “I think that this advertisement is unfair”.	5 items (e.g. Campbell, 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005)	0.80 - 0.90
Attitude towards the ad (A_{ad}) “I have good attitudes towards this ad”, “My attitude towards the ad is favourable”, “My attitudes towards this ad is negative”, “I dislike this ad”.	4 items (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989)	0.85 - 0.95
Existential Guilt Arousal (EGA) Anticipatory Guilt Arousal (AGA) Reactive Guilt Arousal (RGA)	To be developed	
Purchase Intention (PI) “It is very likely that I will buy the brand” “I will purchase the brand the next time I need it” “I will definitely try the brand”	3 items (e.g. Coulter and Pinto, 1995; Putrevu and Lord 1994)	0.90- 0.94

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

The survey instrument consisted of six sections, respondents were given the scenario first, and then they were asked to fill in Part A – prior attitude towards the brand. The measure was used as a manipulation check to identify prior emotional attachment to the brand before the respondents view the advertisement. This allows the researcher to control for prior emotional attachment and ensure that all the respondents had similar prior attitudes. Following this, the respondents were asked to complete Part B - a filler task. The respondents watched a humour appeal advertisement. This was then followed by part C – emotional response, after watching the humour advertisement, the respondents recorded their emotional responses on the SEP scale. This task was used to ensure that the respondents did not know what the researcher is trying to measure. Then the respondents were asked to complete Part D – watch guilt advertisement. In this section, the subjects were only exposed to one advertisement (one type of guilt using one product category).

Following this, respondents completed section E – emotional response to the guilt advertisement. In this section, subjects were asked to complete a number of scales including, Standardised Emotion Profile (SEP), ad credibility (A_{cr}), attitude towards the advertisement (A_{ad}), inferences of manipulative intent (IMI), and purchase intentions (PI). Depending on which advertisement the subjects were asked to view, the respective guilt arousal measure was provided. Following this, the respondents were asked to fill out Part F – demographics. The demographics were used to filter the sample to ensure that a homogenous sample was used. (See Figure 4.1 for the survey instrument design). The survey was pre-tested with 44 respondents to ensure that there were no grammatical or question design issues. The items order was changed and reversed for validity before the data was collected.

Figure 4.1 Survey Instrument Design

- **Part A:** Prior attitude towards the brand (manipulation check)
- **Part B:** Filler task: watch humour ad
- **Part C:** Emotional response - SEP
- **Part D:** Watch guilt ad
- **Part E:** Emotional response - SEP, (EGA/AGA/RGA), A_{cr} , A_{ad} , IMI and PI
- **Part F:** Demographics

ETHICS

The research has applied for the Curtin University's Human Research Ethics and the committee has been identified the research as a low risk research (e.g. the approved ethics id is SOM2008031).

ANALYSIS METHODS / STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The research required a combination of statistical analysis techniques. Firstly, factor analysis and correlation analysis were used to test construct validity to ensure that the scales were unidimensional. Secondly, Cronbach's Alpha was used to measure construct reliability. Structural equation modelling was used for exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis for scale development processes. Further, structural equation modelling was used to test hypothesis one to eight. Mediation analysis was used to test hypotheses nine to twelve. A combination of Baron and Kenny mediation method and Sobel mediation tests was used to test for mediation (Baron and Kenny 1986; Sobel 1982). Past studies have extended Baron and Kenny's mediation analysis method by suggesting that the mediation framework consisted of two dimensions, 'a direct' and 'an indirect' effect rather than a one dimensional effect (full, partial or none) (Zhao, Lynch and Chen 2010). However, Zhao, Lynch and Chen (2010) did concede that different types of dimensionalisation for the mediation analysis did not have any effect on consumer research. Each analysis is discussed in detail in the respective chapters.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This chapter shows the measures and methods that will be used in analysis of the relationship discussed in Chapter 3. To achieve the aims of this research, the support and appropriateness for the measures and methods were discussed. The analysis and results of the hypotheses and research questions developed in Chapter 3 are shown in Chapter 6. The next chapter describes the process and procedures of scale development of the study.

Chapter 5

SCALE DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the process undertaken to develop three scales to be used in the research model in this thesis. Each scale will be designed to measure specific forms of guilt (e.g. existential, anticipatory, and reactive). A more in-depth review of previous scales and the need for scales have been discussed in Chapter 2 (literature review).

The chapter is structured into 5 parts. The first part recaps the definition and dimensionalisation of each type of guilt. It also proceeds to describe the steps taken in the initial stages of scale development. While the scales were developed independently of each other, the purpose and the process in the development of each scale is the same. To reduce the amount of repetition in the chapter, these steps will be described in this part of the chapter. Part 2 will describe three studies namely for the EFA (study I), CFA (study II) and validation tests (study III) for existential guilt scale. The procedure of generating, purifying and validating is described in detail. The final items of the scale will be used in the research model for further generalisation by using a different product and different sample. Part 3 and Part 4 replicates the same process for anticipatory guilt (study IV-VI) and reactive guilt (study VII-IX) scale respectively. A total of nine studies were used to generate, purify and validate the scale as depicted in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 Structure of Scale Development Chapter

Stage	Existential	Anticipatory	Reactive
EFA	Study I	Study IV	Study VII
CFA	Study II	Study V	Study VIII
Validation	Study III	Study VI	Study IX

PART 1 – THE PROCESS OF DEVELOPING THE E.A.R. GUILT SCALE

Dimensionalising Guilt

This section will first recap the definition of each type of guilt appeals and explain the procedure for the scale development.

Guilt is defined as a motivating, action-oriented emotional appeal that is evoked due to the unambiguous nature of linkage between feeling of guilt and actions that led to its elicitation (Lewis 1993). Some scholars have suggested that guilt is used as a mechanism to regulate social functions in the relationship between self and others (De Rivera 1984; Scheff 1984). That is, guilt is an emotion that requires an individual to examine their self-violation cognitively and encourages the individual to repair the relationship with others. Further, the literature has identified differences between the three types of guilt (e.g. Izard 1977; Rawlings 1970). Therefore, this section will dimensionalise each type of guilt by using the conceptual definitions that is provided in the literature. The definitions are:

Existential guilt is evoked through the result of a **comparison** between one's own well-being and others' well-being (Izard 1977).

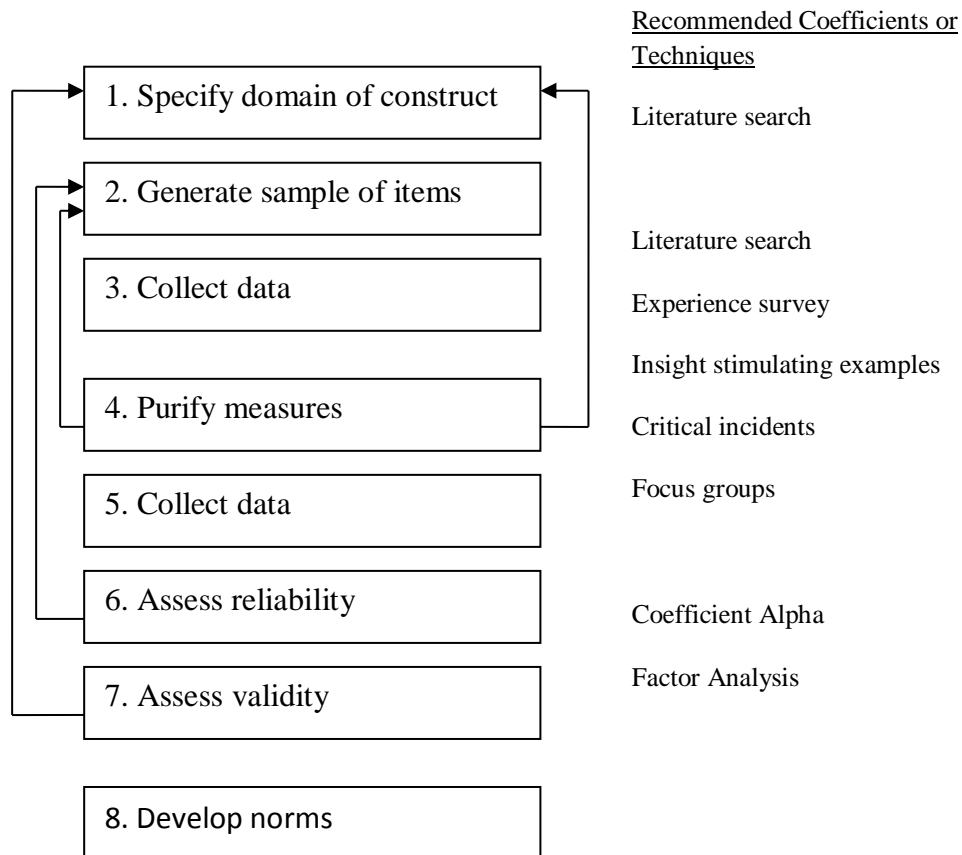
Anticipatory guilt is guilt evoked when an individual contemplates a **potential violation** of one's own standards (Rawlings 1970).

Reactive guilt is defined as a response to the **past** and over an act of having **violated** those standards (Rawlings 1970).

The scale development literature consists of a number of studies that are published as books, journal and conference articles, however the prominent studies in the field are Churchill (1979), DeVellis (1991, 2003), Wells, Leavitt, and McConville (1971), Nunnally (1978), Spector (1992), Li, Edwards, and Lee (2002) and Oh (2005). For the purpose of this research

Churchill's (1979) procedure was most suitable and thus the recommended procedure for 'developing better measures' was adapted and adopted. Figure 5.2 clarifies the procedures and techniques that were undertaken to develop the three scales.

Figure 5.2 Suggested Procedure for Developing Better Measures



(Adapted from Churchill 1979)

The most commonly method used to measure guilt is the self-reported instrument (Kugler and Jones 1992). Mosher Guilt Inventory (1968) is the most widely used instrument, however, the measure has some limitations. Mosher (1968) defined guilt as a generalised expectancy for self-mediated punishment for violating internalised standards of moral behaviour or anticipating the violation of such standards.

EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA): DEVELOPING THE SCALE ITEMS

Overview of EFA

This section describes the procedures that were used to generate and purify the scale items for the existential, anticipatory and reactive scales. The process for generating and purifying the scale items is exactly the same for the three scales hence this section will provide a holistic view of the EFA.

What Are We Trying to Achieve?

The first step of scale development is to specify the domain of the construct (Churchill 1979). The second step of the scale development procedure is to generate sample of items (Churchill 1979). The preceding explanation of guilt shows that the most commonly used guilt scale is a self-reported instrument from Mosher Guilt Inventory (Kugler and Jones 1992; Mosher 1968). However, the instrument does not cover the full domain of guilt as it was designed to measure specific domains of guilt that is associated to sex, hostility and conscience. The current research investigates the effectiveness of guilt in the luxury brand context, thus the domain of the instrument should reflect financial guilt, moral guilt and social responsibility guilt (Burnett and Lunsford 1994).

The scale development procedure by Li, Edwards, and Lee (2002) suggests three methods to generate a set of potential scale items for the scale: literature reviews (Churchill 1979), thesaurus searches (Wells, Leavitt, and McConville 1971), and experience surveys (Chen and Wells 1999; Churchill 1979). Further the study adopts the steps for scale development set out by DeVellis (2003).

What Is It We Want to Measure?

The scale development scholars suggest consulting theories that are related to guilt first to increase clarity for the guilt scale (DeVellis 2003). Construct definition has been shown as one of the key issues with some scale development practices, thus care was undertaken to ensure this stage was completed rigorously (Mowen and Voss 2008). The literature review

(Chapter 2) provides a good overview of the key theories that are related to guilt, although much of the attention was given to Cotte, Coulter, and Moore (2005), Hibbert et al. (2007), Huhmann and Brotherton (1997), Kugler and Jones (1992) and Lindsey (2005), and It is important that scale developers develop scales that are distinct from other measures (DeVellis 2003), thus previous guilt related scales were consulted (e.g. Kugler and Jones 1992).

While the three types of guilt have distinct characteristics, there is a risk that some dimensions could overlap or cross over between the three scales. For example, the “ashamed” dimension could easily cross load on the three scales (Kugler and Jones 1992). However, the purpose of Kugler and Jones’s (1992) guilt inventory was to measure the feeling of guilt as a ‘unified’ concept, thus it was appropriate. More importantly, there could be some differences between specific types of guilt. For example, the “ashamed” dimension might be more important in reactive guilt than in existential guilt. Further, it is possible for the individual to feel a combination of guilt, for example, existential guilt reactions to existential appeal may also evoke reactive guilt from past violations. Thus, it was clear to ensure the scales items were distinct to each type of guilt. This required the use of terms or words to narrow the scope of the item to an event (e.g. past, present and future event). After interviewing a number of luxury brand purchasers the best method to achieve this was to use self-referencing terms such as, “I feel guilty when I spoil myself without helping kids in need” for existential guilt, “I would feel guilty for spending” for anticipatory guilt and “I felt guilty after buying” for reactive guilt.

Generate an Item Pool

First, a large set of pool items was developed using literature reviews, thesaurus searches and expert interviews (i.e. Li, Edwards, and Lee 2002).

Literature reviews

Previous studies on guilt were reviewed to help generate the scale items. The review process identified a majority of the guilt scales were unified measures of guilt (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995; Hibbert et al. 2007). These scales and related guilt

literature provided a number of items that could be used as an initial set of items for the new scale. It is also worth noting that previous scales measured personal violation to an event (e.g. “I felt guilty when I lied about my past spending”). Further, researchers have shown that guilt is context specific and therefore domain specific. It has been suggested that feeling guilt could also evoke other feelings such as regret, shame, disappointment, and irresponsibility (Bennett 1998; Burnett and Lunsford 1994; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Kugler and Jones 1992; Lindsey 2005; Tangney 1996). Other feelings such as, anxiety, self-hate, remorse, and accountability were also shown to describe the feeling of guilt, thus these were also included in the initial set of items (Alden and Crowley 1995; Block 2005; Steenhaut and Kenhove 2006; Merunka et al. 2007).

Other characteristics of the scale included items that used a range of adjectives (“ashamed, guilty, repentant, remorseful”), descriptive statements (“I am concerned about being forgiven for my sins”), forced-choice alternatives (“I would be ashamed of myself”), ratings on emotion response to specific situations “You would think I should have recognized the problem and done a better job”, and qualitative analysis of narrative response (“Guilt and remorse have been a part of my life for as long as I can recall”) (Buss and Durkee 1957; Ghingold and Bozinoff 1982; Klass 1987; Kugler and Jones 1992; Otterbacher and Munz 1973; Zahn-Waxler et al. 1988). These scales were consulted to provide a more rigorous understanding of the scale items for specific types of guilt. These scales originated from advertising literature, psychology literature and sociology literature, thus the scales provided a view of guilt from numerous perspectives. As mentioned earlier, the scales developed previously are concerned with guilt as a ‘unified’ concept. It does not examine a specific domain of guilt evoked in the luxury brand context. Thus many of the items are not expected to be suitable to the dimension of ‘existential, anticipatory and reactive’ guilt. Only some items that are suitable for the new scales are selected to better reflect each type of guilt.

Thesaurus searches

The second step of item generation involved using a thesaurus search to identify potential items (Wells, Leavitt, and McConville 1971). Thus thesaurus search was conducted to generate items that are similar to the feeling of guilt. Thesaurus terms such as ‘disgrace, self-

blame, irresponsibility, dishonour, misbehaviour and transgression' were identified as potential items for the scales. A broader search using these terms revealed items such as 'humiliation, degradation, disapproval, obligation, indignity, wrong-doing, misdemeanour, disobedience, infringement, and violation'. A combination of thesaurus search and literature search provides a solid starting point for the scale. The review of the literature shows no specific scales for existential, anticipatory and reactive guilt, thus the unified scale items were adapted using terms that were related to each type of guilt. Researchers such as Basil, Ridgway, and Basil (2008), Bennett (1998) and Lindsey (2005) have attempted to use specific items and terms to measure specific types of guilt, (e.g. "I feel disappointed after I donate" and "I would feel guilty if I did not give"). Thus, these methods will be adopted in developing the initial pool of items.

Expert Surveys

A panel consisting of seven experts from academia and industry were consulted regarding the wording of the items, suitability of adjectives developed from thesaurus search and reverse sentencing structure of the items. The panel assessed the relevance of items to the guilt concept, the clarity and conciseness of the wording and identified other ways to tap into the phenomenon that were not identified in the previous stages. The initial survey form consisted of items with wording such as, 'I feel guilty when I spoil myself with luxury products without helping kids in need' (existential), 'I would feel guilty for my excessive spending on luxury products' (anticipatory) and 'I felt guilty after buying products that I couldn't afford' (reactive). The panel felt it was imperative to use the word 'guilty' in the scale to highlight the purpose of the measurement. The panel also recommended differentiating each type of guilt using different types of tenses (i.e. past, present and future). The panel felt the 'wordiness' of the items in conjunction with indicators of their personal standards violation needed much attention. The panel also identified some issues with some of the items such as, 'I feel disgraceful', and 'I feel remorseful'. These items were judged to be more suitable for studies in morality. Therefore, the panel agreed that the items were less effective in measuring guilt in a luxury brands context, hence these items were removed from initial set of items.

The next stage required the use of a survey to finalise the initial pool of items. The survey asked respondents to rate how strong they agreed with the statements in terms of the feelings evoked after viewing the advertisement. The respondents rated each statement as highly evoking existential, anticipatory or reactive guilt. These items were processed to the next round where each items were critically analysed for any appearance of ambiguity, length, double-barrelled items, and multiple negatives. The remaining items were then used for the next stage in scale development.

Have the Initial Item Pool Reviewed by Experts

The initial pool of items was then reviewed by three experts to help generate the most appropriate pool to maximise content validity of the scale. Before the assessment began the panel was supplied with the definition of each guilt construct, and then they were briefed on dimensionalising the three types of guilt. Examples of each type of guilt were also provided to ensure all the experts were on the same page. The experts were then asked to rate the relevance of each item one by one. The items for existential guilt was shown first, this was followed by anticipatory and reactive guilt. The experts were also instructed to indicate the items corresponding to each construct. The experts were then asked to indicate any issues regarding clarity and conciseness, as well as to suggest other ways to tap into the constructs. The experts then discussed whether the item captures the essence of the scale. The item was removed if there was no consensus. This process is as suggested by DeVellis (2003).

Following the guidelines suggested by Li, Edwards, and Lee (2002), literature reviews (Churchill 1979), thesaurus searches (Wells, Leavitt, and McConville 1971), and expert surveys (Chen and Wells 1999; Churchill 1979) were used to generate potential scale items for three guilt scales. Using the three techniques an initial pool of, 42 items was first developed for existential guilt, 48 items was first developed for anticipatory guilt, and 34 items was first developed for reactive guilt.

Determine Format of Measurement

Past guilt scales (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008) have successfully employed 7-point Likert style scales, therefore the three scales will be developed using the same anchor. The instrument will be anchored with two extreme ends with 1 as ‘strongly disagree’ and 7 as ‘strongly agree’ on a seven point Likert scale. The instrument is designed so it is consistent with other studies.

Consideration of Inclusion of Validation Items

The literature recommends scale developers to use reversed scale items to detect flaws or issues in responses (DeVellis 2003). Thus, a number of reversed items were used to detect these flaws. To ensure that the construct is valid, the initial pool of scale items originated from the unified guilt scale. The original unified guilt scales were used as the skeleton to generate the initial pool items.

Stimulus and Sample for EFA

In order to dimensionalise guilt and develop the three scales, the initial pool of items needed to be tested first under conditions that evoked specific types of guilt emotions. Three existing broadcast advertisements were used to test the effects of each type of guilt. World Vision advertisement was used for existential guilt, East Midland Designer Outlet advertisement was used for anticipatory guilt and Patek Philippe advertisement was used for reactive guilt (further detail of the stimulus is provided in relevant studies – see study I, IV and VII). These advertisements were tested to ensure they evoked specific types of guilt.

Further, a convenience sample of undergraduate business students from a Western Australian University was chosen as a sample. Additionally, the study is focusing on the behavioural response of young consumers to guilt appeals thus university student sample is deemed as an appropriate sample. Students were chosen as they have been indicated by previous studies as good surrogates in scale development (Yavas 1994; Marchegiani and Phau 2013). Further, the student sample provides a more homogenous sample which is imperative for studies in

guilt (see Chapter 2). This allows the researcher to control for variables such as age, guilt-proneness and receptivity to persuasion.

Evaluate the items

The scale development procedure suggests purifying the scale with Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) (DeVellis 1991; Spector 1992; Sweeney, Hausknecht, and Soutar 2000) to examine dimensionality of the items and to allow a reduction of the items. It has been suggested that EFA should be conducted on a construct during the early stages of the research before testing for scale reliability using Cronbach's alpha. Thus EFA was conducted using Factor Analysis on SPSS 18 using Principle Component Analysis and Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization. Furthermore, factor loading of co-efficients less than 0.3 were suppressed (DeVellis 1991, 82-83; Nunnally 1978). Item loading of 0.50 was used as an indicator to determine internal scale consistency (DeVellis 1991, 82-83; Schaufeli et al. 2002). This indicated that there were very little common variance with the other items (as per DeVellis 1991, 82-83). Following this, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to test for scale reliability and to optimise the scale length (Nunnally 1978).

PART 2 – EXISTENTIAL GUILT SCALE

STUDY I EFA EXISTENTIAL GUILT

The existential guilt scale was tested using a real broadcast ad from World Vision lasting six minutes. The choice of the advertisement was tested using a focus group of 20 advertising undergraduate students which rated the ad as highly evoking existential guilt. The advertisement showed young Australian kids complaining and unsatisfied with the luxuries they have in their lives. The advertisement highlighted how young kids wanted more luxuries such as the latest PlayStation console, fashionable shoes and a bigger iPod. Then the advertisement showed images of less fortunate children from Asia and Africa whom do not have the basic necessities such as food, water, shelter and education. The advertisement then makes a comparison between their lives and the lives of Australian kids, and asks the audience to take action to help the less fortunate. The ad scenario is a typical existential guilt advertisement that uses textbook techniques to evoke guilt. For example, it uses **statement of fact** (shows how Australian kids do not appreciate their easy life), **suggestions** (suggests how the viewer can help the less fortunate), and the scenario employs **a comparison** (comparison between the lives of Australian vs Asian and African kids). Thus, the ad was appropriate for the purposes of the study as it fits all the characteristics of existential guilt.

Sample

The study was administered to a convenience sample consisting of 224 undergraduate business students from a Western Australian University. Descriptive analysis was undertaken to identify missing values and some of the responses were removed. A total of 203 valid responses were collected to conduct the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). The demographics and characteristics of the respondents were representative of the student population. The sample consisted of 43.3% males and 56.7% females. The majority of respondents were Australian citizens (38.9%) aged between 20 to 22 (55.0%). Prior to viewing the ad, respondents were asked to fill in a scale to measure their prior attitude towards World Vision. Respondents then recorded their reactions to the ad based on a number of scales on a self-administered survey.

Results

The initial factor analysis of the 42 items for existential guilt extracted five factors with some items cross loading in two or three factors. The aim of this process was to create a unidimensional scale thus items with the lowest coefficients and items that were cross loaded between two or more factors were first removed from the list (as suggested by DeVellis 2003).

Further, a series of factor analyses were conducted to purify the scale. The scale was finally reduced down to 12 items (Cronbach's alpha = .837) with two factors namely, Spending Guilt (Cronbach's alpha = .931), and Social Guilt (Cronbach's alpha = .882). Other statistics are all deemed acceptable (KMO and Bartlett's test = .904, Approx Chi-Square = 1842.415, Df = 66, Sig. = .000). Table 5.1 presents the detailed results of the EFA.

Table 5.1 Rotated Component Matrix for Scale Development Test

Existential Guilt Scale Items	Component	
	1	2
I feel ashamed of myself when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	.860	
I feel guilty when I spend excessively on luxury brands when I see kids dying of hunger.	.856	
I feel guilty when I spoil myself with luxury products without helping kids in need.	.846	
I feel irresponsible when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	.835	
I feel guilty when I spend so much money on luxury brands while some kids are dying of hunger.	.812	
I feel guilty when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could have done more to help save kids dying of hunger.	.723	
I feel guilty when I spoil myself with luxury products instead of helping kids in need.	.697	
I feel disappointed in myself when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	.530	
I feel guilty that I am not donating to charities.		.911
I feel guilty for not taking a proportion out of my spending money for charitable donations.		.890
I feel guilty for not taking a proportion out of my pay for charitable donations.		.744
I feel guilty that I am not donating enough to charities.		.675
Cronbach's Alpha	.931	.882
Eigenvalues (% of Variance)	56.4	11.7
KMO	.904	
Bartlett	Approx. Chi ² = 1842.415	
	Df = 66, Sig. = .000	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 2 iterations. Factor loadings < .03 suppressed.

STUDY II CFA EXISTENTIAL GUILT

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed to examine the unidimensionality and further purify the scales if it is necessary for the scale that was developed in Study I. CFA is considered as a more robust technique over EFA in examining scale unidimensionality (O’Leary-Kelly and Vokurka 1998; Pedhazur and Schmelkin 1991). Further, CFA has been indicated as a means of scale reduction by identifying the items that could be removed from the scale before confirming the scale’s final configuration (Floyd and Widaman 1995; Netemeyer, Bearden, and Sharma 2003). The remaining items will be examined to ensure they reflect the definition of the existential guilt construct.

A new survey was developed for the purpose of CFA. CFA was examined using the AMOS 18 programme. The new survey consisted of 12 existential guilt items from the previous stage, attitude towards the brand, inferences of manipulative intent and behavioural intention measures, and demographics. A pre-test was conducted to ensure the survey had no errors or misunderstanding of the questions. In comparison, the survey was almost identical to the previous version that was used in Study I. To test the scale unidimensionality the same broadcast ad from World Vision lasting six minutes from Study I was used.

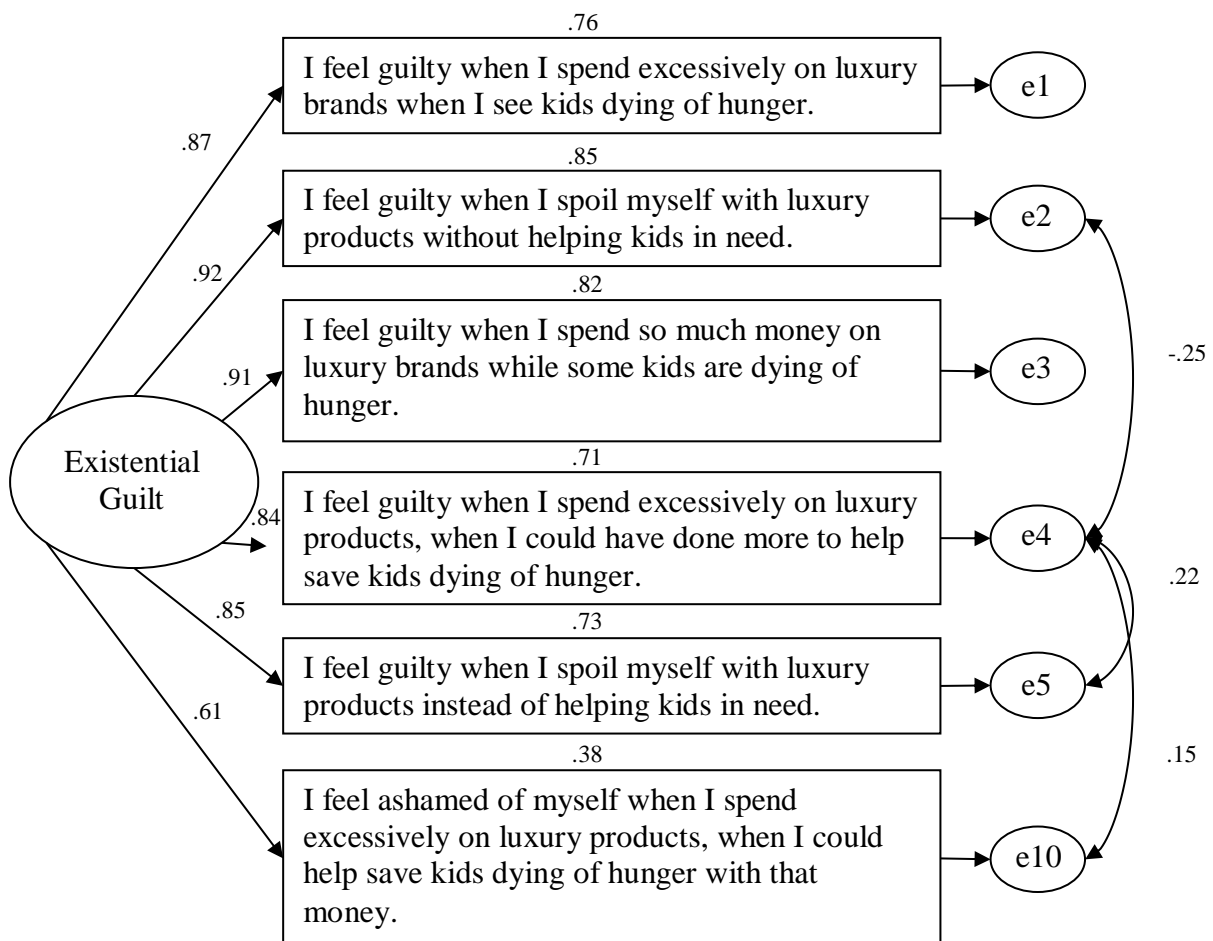
Sample

The study was administered to a convenience sample of consisting of 213 undergraduate business students from a Western Australian University. Descriptive analysis was undertaken to identify missing values and some of the responses were removed. A total of 204 valid responses were collected to conduct the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The demographics and characteristics of the respondents were representative of the student population. The sample consisted of 42.3% males and 57.7% females. The majority of respondents were Australian citizens (33.3%) aged between 20 to 22 (53.5%). Prior to viewing the ad, respondents were asked to fill in a scale to measure their prior attitude towards World Vision. Respondents then recorded their reactions to the ad based on a number of scales on a self-administered survey.

Result

CFA further refined the scales resulting in six items for existential guilt with acceptable measures (Hu and Bentler 1999) (Chi-square = 12.018, Degrees of freedom = 6, Probability level = .062, RMSEA = .070, AGFI = .936, CFI = .994, $\alpha = .933$). The number of items fit the recommendation from Mowen and Voss (2008) whom suggested that there should four to eight items in a unidimensional scale. The CFA is presented in Figure 5.3 below which reveals the six items that emerged from process. The remaining items continue to suit the definition of the construct the scale is intended to measure (content / face validity).

Figure 5.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Existential Guilt Scale



Using CFA the initial 12 items from the existential guilt scale have been refined down to six items. The model fit indices indicate a good fit and the remaining items also show acceptable unidimensionality. From this process, further tests could be conducted to determine scale reliability and validity.

STUDY III VALIDITY EXISTENTIAL GUILT

Study III will attempt to establish the scale's validity by testing the scale's criterion validity (predictive) and construct / trait validity (nomological, discriminant and convergent). Numerous researchers have suggested a guideline to test for scale validity and they will be consulted for the validity procedure (Campbell and Fiske 1959; Churchill 1979; Oh 2005). To test for scale validity a new survey was constructed and a new collection was required.

Sample

The study was administered to a convenience sample of consisting of 130 undergraduate business students from a Western Australian University. Descriptive analysis was undertaken to identify missing values and some of the responses were removed. A total of 128 valid responses were collected to conduct the validity test. The demographics and characteristics of the respondents were representative of the student population. The sample consisted of 52.7% males and 47.3% females. The majority of respondents were Australian citizens (33.3%) aged between 20 to 22 (55.0%).

A pre-test was conducted to ensure the survey had no errors or misunderstanding of the questions. In comparison, the survey format was very similar to the previous versions that were used in Study I and Study II. To test for validity the existential guilt advertisement was created using a series of images as an animatic in PowerPoint. The advertisement was pre-tested to ensure that only existential guilt was evoked (See Chapter 4 for further details of the advertisement development process). Respondents were shown the advertisement and then they recorded their reactions to the ad based on a number of scales on a self-administered survey.

Criterion (predictive) and Construct (nomological) validity

Criterion validity determines "the ability of the scale to predict something that should theoretically be related or ability to predict" (Oh 2005, 301). The existential guilt is constructed using theoretical findings from previous studies (e.g. Godek and LaBarge 2006; Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Izard 1977; Kugler and Jones 1992; Lindsey 2005; Rawlings

1970). The guilt theory is used as a parameter to characterise the existential guilt scale. For example, the theory states that existential guilt is characterised by a comparison between the individual's well-being to others (Izard 1977), hence this feature must be captured in the measure. Thus to confirm criterion validity, this concept is central in the development process of the existential guilt scale. Furthermore, criterion validity test explains the extent to which a measure is related to actual behaviours or outcomes (Anastasi 1986; Eastman, Goldsmith, and Flynn 1999, 44; Nunnally 1978). Using theoretical underpinnings, ad credibility will be used to test criterion validity as previous studies show that there is a significant relationship between ad credibility and guilt arousal (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).

Study III will examine the relationship between ad credibility scale, attitudes towards the ad, inferences of manipulative intent, purchase intention and the existential guilt scale. This could be used to establish 'construct nomological validity' by comparing the results from previous studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). The nomological network as proposed by Cronbach and Meehl (1955) and Churchill (1995) suggested that the developed instrument should behave as expected with respect to another construct to which it is theoretically related. That is, the correlation between the measures, the guilt scale and other related constructs should behave as it is proposed in theory (Cadogan, Diamantopoulos, and de Mortanges 1999).

As discussed, theory and previous studies reveal that, as the level of guilt increases, so should the positive attitudes of the corresponding respondent. Thus, if the scale being developed is measuring what it is intended to measure, there should be a significant increase in attitude for those indicated by our scale as experiencing higher levels of guilt. In terms of nomological validity, this indicates that the constructs the developing scales are measuring are shown as being related empirically to different constructs.

Under the conditions outlined, ad credibility and existential guilt arousal measures received positive Cronbach's alpha scores (respectively ad credibility $\alpha = .935$ and existential guilt arousal $\alpha = .938$). The criterion (predictive) validity of the scale was supported, those experiencing high existential guilt (measured by the scale in development) had a significantly

higher correlation score of ad credibility (High existential guilt arousal = .092**, $p < .01$) than those with lower guilt reaction (Low existential guilt arousal = .002**, $p < .01$).

As discussed previously, using the correlation of behavioural or attitudinal reactions with scale items have been used in past studies (Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein 1991; Shimp and Sharma 1987). As discussed in Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein (1991, 325), “In examining the nomological validity of a measure, it is important to concentrate on a pattern of results between criterion and predictors and not just significance of results (Cronbach and Meehl 1955).” This being the case, although nomological validity is indicated, further research would be need before robustly justifying the scales as having strong nomological validity as patterns need to be shown. However, at this stage and with the support of the previous results, the scales are continuing their line of positive results towards validation.

The Pearson correlation matrix was intended to show nomological validity. The Pearson correlation matrix results incorporating the existential guilt scale are shown at Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Pearson Correlation Matrix Results

	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Existential Guilt (I)	1			
Ad Credibility (II)	.233**	1		
Attitude towards Ad (III)	.182*	.707**	1	
Purchase Intent (IV)	.215*	.419**	.406**	1

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

At this stage, the evidence of nomological validity is demonstrated by significant correlations of the scale with measures of other constructs to which it is expected to be related (Churchill 1979). Results found the existential guilt scale to be positively related to each of these constructs, namely the ad credibility (Pearson Correlation = .233**), attitude towards the ad (Pearson Correlation = .182*), inferences of manipulative intent (Pearson Correlation = .219*) and purchase intention (Pearson Correlation = .215*). These results indicate that the existential guilt scale is performing as it might ‘be expected’ with related constructs.

Trait Validity (Discriminant and Convergent)

Trait validity is used to examine the amount of variance in a measure's scores. It determines whether the variance results in low correlation between the guilt constructs (discriminant) and other non-related constructs, and high correlation between the guilt measures of the construct and other related measures of the guilt construct (convergent)(Peter 1981). To test for trait validity, discriminant and convergent validity test-retest will be used (Campbell and Fiske 1959).

First, discriminant validity will test to validate that the guilt scale is fundamentally different to other constructs or traits (Campbell and Fiske 1959; Churchill 1979), thus ad credibility was chosen for the validity test. That is, ad credibility scale is fundamentally different to the guilt scale; ad credibility is a measure of **cognition**, whereas the guilt scale is a measure of **emotion**. Therefore, the correlation between these two constructs is predicted to be limited. The ad credibility scale was developed by MacKenzie and Lutz (1989), and it is measured by three items on a 7-point Likert scales. The item for the scale consisted of the following statements; 'this ad is believable', 'this ad is truthful' and 'this ad is realistic'. Past studies have shown that the scale is a reliable measure (Cronbach's alpha above 0.80) thus it is suitable for the purposes of this study (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).

Second, convergent validity assesses the degree of agreement in measures of the same construct (Campbell and Fiske 1959; Churchill 1979; Oh 2005). The test examines the correlation between the two measures that assesses the guilt construct. It is predicted that there will be high correlation between the two measures since they are measuring the same construct (Campbell and Fiske 1959). Thus, the correlation between the established related measures may be used to determine the guilt scale validity. One of the most commonly used measures of guilt is the Mosher's Guilt Inventory (1968). However, this instrument was designed to assess guilt in the sex, hostility and conscience domain, thus it is inappropriate for the purposes of the study. A more appropriate guilt measure that could be used for comparison is the composite guilt scale developed by Kugler and Jones (1992). The composite guilt measure applied a series of adjectives (ashamed, guilty, irresponsible, and

accountable) to assess guilt. This measure is widely used by advertising scholars (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007) and it presents a more appropriate comparison as it taps into the guilt domain that is associated with consumer's behaviour in a purchase process of luxury products. The review of the scale shows that the scale is a reliable measure (Cronbach's alpha above 0.85) thus it is suitable for the purposes of this study (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert, Hogg, and Quinn 2005).

The results for the existential guilt scale validation are shown in Table 5.3. The guilt scale continues to show high level of reliability (Cronbach's Alpha = .938). The results indicate a low correlation between the two unrelated measures for the ad credibility construct and existential guilt construct (Pearson Correlation = .233**). Thus it validates a fundamental difference between the two measures and indicates that the ad credibility measures cognition and existential guilt measures emotions.

Further analysis of the table shows a high correlation between the two related measures of the guilt construct. That is the composite guilt scale developed by Kugler and Jones (1992) highly correlates with the existential guilt scale that was developed for the study (Pearson Correlation = .405**). The correlation between the two guilt scales is much higher than the correlation between existential guilt and other measures. Thus it validates and shows that the two related measures of the guilt construct are related. Therefore, discriminant and convergent validity can be established for the existential guilt scale.

Table 5.3: Pearson Correlation Matrix Results

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V
Existential Guilt (I)	1				
Composite Guilt (II)	.405**	1			
Ad Credibility (III)	.233**	.255**	1		
Attitude towards Ad (IV)	.182*	.139	.707**	1	
Purchase Intent (V)	.215*	.127	.419**	.406**	1

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

PART 3 – ANTICIPATORY GUILT SCALE

STUDY IV EFA ANTICIPATORY GUILT

The anticipatory guilt scale was tested using a real broadcast ad from East Midland Designer Outlet lasting 31 seconds. The choice of the advertisement was tested using a focus group of 20 advertising undergraduate students which rated the ad as highly evoking anticipatory guilt. The East Midland Designer Outlet advertisement first start off with a statement of fact by stating that customers can catch a 50% discount sale on all luxury products during the upcoming Christmas period at East Midland Designer Outlet. The ad then shows families and friends ‘catching’ a bargain for Christmas. The advertisement further suggests that the audience can spoil families and friends with an extra sparkle for Christmas by suggesting that you could avoid the feeling of guilt by giving them a present that they really want. The ad scenario is a typical anticipatory guilt advertisement that uses textbook techniques to evoke guilt. For example, it uses **statement of fact** (50% discount), **suggestions** (spoil your families and friends and avoid the feeling of guilt by giving them a present that they really want), and the scenario employs **a future event** (“the upcoming Christmas”). Thus, the ad was appropriate for the purposes of the study as it fits all the characteristics of anticipatory guilt.

Sample

The study was administered to a convenience sample of consisting of 237 undergraduate business students from a Western Australian University. Descriptive analysis was undertaken to identify missing values and some of the responses were removed. A total of 233 valid responses were collected to conduct the EFA. The demographics and characteristics of the respondents were representative of the student population. The sample consisted of 47.5% males and 52.5% females. The majority of respondents were Australian citizens (56.2%) aged between 20 to 22 (56.4%). Prior to viewing the ad, respondents were asked to fill in a scale to measure their prior attitude towards East Midland Designer Outlet. Respondents then recorded their reactions to the ad based on a number of scales on a self-administered survey.

Results

The initial factor analysis of the 48 items for anticipatory guilt extracted five factors with some items cross loading in two or three factors. The aim of this process was to create a unidimensional scale thus items with the lowest co-efficients and items that were cross loaded between two or more factors were first removed from the list.

Further, a series of factor analyses were conducted to purify the scale. The scale was finally reduced down to 11 items (Cronbach's alpha = .780) with three factors namely, Spending Guilt (Cronbach's alpha = .795), Trait Guilt (Cronbach's alpha = .491) and Financial Guilt (Cronbach's alpha = .387). Other statistics are all deemed acceptable (KMO and Bartlett's test = .761, Approx Chi-Square = 691.677, Df = 55, Sig. = .000). Table 5.4 presents the results.

Table 5.4 Rotated Component Matrix for Scale Development Test

Anticipatory Guilt Scale Items	Component		
	1	2	3
I would feel guilty for maxing out my credit card when I won't be able to pay it off.	.811		
I would feel guilty for forgetting to buy a Christmas present for my best friend.	.788		
I would feel guilty for spending so much on luxury products.	.785		
I would blame myself for maxing out my credit card that I can't afford to pay off.	.773		
An important occasion is coming up and I would feel guilty for forgetting to buy a gift.	.630		
I would feel guilty for lying to others about the price of the gift		.815	
I would feel disappointed in myself for buying an inexpensive present		.755	
I would feel guilty if my parents found out that the product I was going to buy was very expensive.		.606	
I would feel ashamed if I purchased a cheap gift		.518	
I would feel irresponsible for my excessive spending on expensive products.			.920
I would feel guilty for spoiling myself with expensive products			.900
Cronbach's Alpha	.795	.491	.387
Eigenvalues (% of Variance)	34.7	17.2	11.4
KMO		.761	
Bartlett	Approx. Chi ² = 691.677		
	Df = 66, Sig. = .000		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 3 iterations. Factor loadings < .03 suppressed.

STUDY V CFA ANTICIPATORY GUILT

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed to examine the unidimensionality and further purify the scales if it is necessary for the scale that was developed in Study IV. CFA is considered as a more robust technique over EFA in examining scale unidimensionality (O’Leary-Kelly and Vokurka 1998; Pedhazur and Schmelkin 1991). Further, CFA has been indicated as a means of scale reduction by identifying the items that could be removed from the scale before confirming the scale’s final configuration (Floyd and Widaman 1995; Netemeyer, Bearden, and Sharma 2003). The remaining items will be examined to ensure they reflect the definition of the anticipatory guilt construct.

A new survey was developed for the purposes of CFA. CFA was examined using the AMOS 18 programme. The new survey consisted of 11 anticipatory guilt items from the previous stage, attitude towards the brand, inferences of manipulative intent and behavioural intention measures, and demographics. A pre-test was conducted to ensure the survey had no errors or misunderstanding of the questions. In comparison, the survey was almost identical to the previous version that was used in Study V. To test the scale unidimensionality the same broadcast ad from East Midland Designer Outlet lasting 30 seconds from Study IV was used.

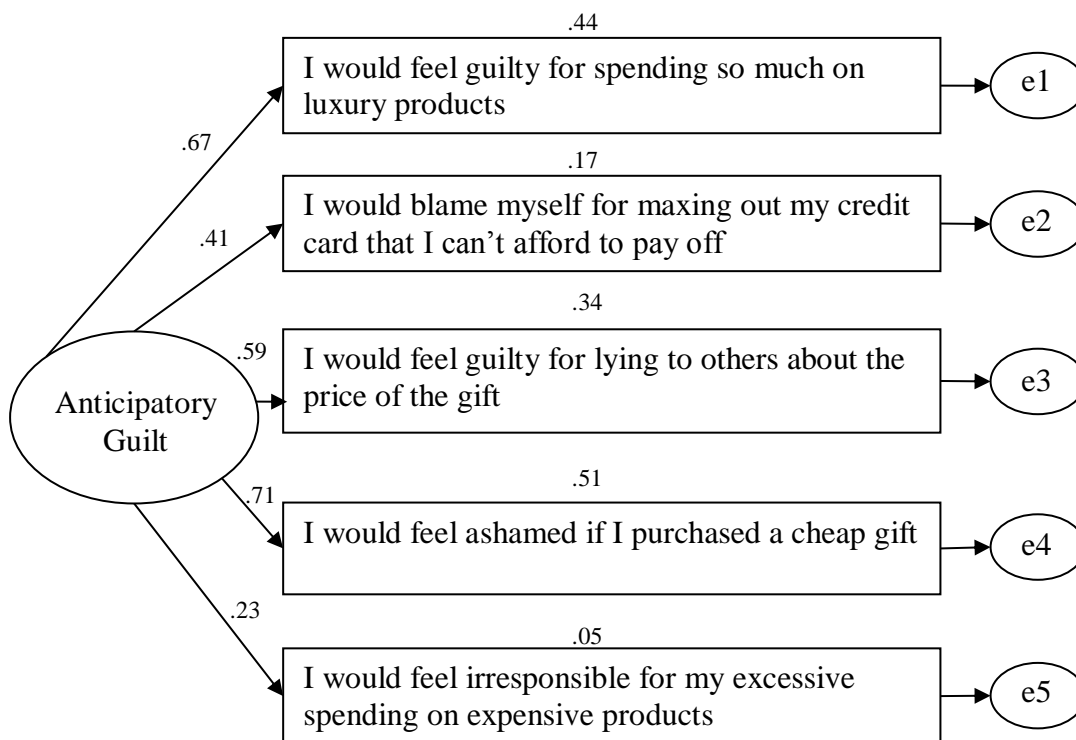
Sample

The study was administered to a convenience sample of consisting of 238 undergraduate business students from a Western Australian University. Descriptive analysis was undertaken to identify missing values and some of the responses were removed. A total of 219 valid responses were collected to conduct the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The demographics and characteristics of the respondents were representative of the student population. The sample consisted of 47.5% males and 52.5% females. The majority of respondents were Australian citizens (56.2%) aged between 20 to 22 (44.7%). Prior to viewing the ad, respondents were asked to fill in a scale to measure their prior attitude towards East Midland Designer Outlet. Respondents then recorded their reactions to the ad based on a number of scales on a self-administered survey.

Result

CFA further refined the scales resulting in five items for anticipatory guilt with acceptable measures (Hu and Bentler 1999) (Chi-square = 10.740, Degrees of freedom = 5, Probability level = .057, RMSEA = .073, AGFI = .942, CFI = .961, $\alpha = .714$). The number of items fit the recommendation from Mowen and Voss (2008) whom suggested that there should four to eight items in a unidimensional scale. The CFA is presented in the Figure 5.4 below which reveals the five items that emerged from process. The remaining items continue to suit the definition of the construct the scale is intended to measure (content / face validity).

Figure 5.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Anticipatory Guilt Scale



Using CFA the initial 11 items from the anticipatory guilt have been refined down to the five items. However, it is worth noting that the fifth item has a very low regression weight (0.23). This is below acceptable parameters (Schaufeli et al. 2002). However, for the purposes of CFA the item was kept in order to achieve model fit. The alternative model that removed the item shows poor model fit. The model fit indices indicate a good fit and the remaining items also show acceptable unidimensionality. From this process, further tests could be conducted to determine scale reliability and validity.

STUDY VI VALIDITY ANTICIPATORY GUILT

Study VI will attempt to establish the scale's validity by testing the scale's criterion validity (predictive) and construct / trait validity (nomological, discriminant and convergent). Numerous researchers have suggested a guideline to test for scale validity and they will be consulted for the validity procedure (Campbell and Fiske 1959; Churchill 1979; Oh 2005). To test for scale validity a new survey was constructed and a new collection was required.

Sample

The study was administered to a convenience sample of consisting of 176 undergraduate business students from a Western Australian University. Descriptive analysis was undertaken to identify missing values and some of the responses were removed. A total of 156 valid responses were collected to conduct the validity test. The demographics and characteristics of the respondents were representative of the student population. The sample consisted of 47.4% males and 52.6% females. The majority of respondents were Australian citizens (42.9%) aged between 20 to 22 (51.3%).

A pre-test was conducted to ensure the survey had no errors or misunderstanding of the questions. In comparison, the survey format was very similar to the previous versions that were used in Study IV and Study V. To test for validity the anticipatory advertisement was created using a series of images as an animatic in PowerPoint. The advertisement was pre-tested to ensure that only anticipatory guilt was evoked (See Chapter 4 for further details of the advertisement development process). Respondents were shown the advertisement and then they recorded their reactions to the ad based on a number of scales on a self-administered survey.

Criterion (predictive) and Construct (nomological) validity

Criterion validity determines "the ability of the scale to predict something that should theoretically be related or ability to predict" (Oh 2005, 301). The anticipatory guilt is constructed using theoretical findings from previous studies (e.g. Godek and LaBarge 2006; Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Izard 1977; Kugler and Jones 1992; Lindsey 2005; Rawlings

1970). The guilt theory is used as a parameter to characterise the anticipatory guilt scale. For example, the theory states that anticipatory guilt is characterised by a **potential violation** of one's own standard (Rawlings 1970), hence this feature must be captured in the measure. Thus to confirm criterion validity, this concept is central in the development process of the anticipatory guilt scale. Furthermore, criterion validity test explains the extent to which a measure is related to actual behaviours or outcomes (Anastasi 1986; Eastman, Goldsmith, and Flynn 1999, 44; Nunnally 1978). Using theoretical underpinnings, ad credibility will be used to test criterion validity as previous studies show that there is a significant relationship between ad credibility and guilt arousal (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).

Study VI will examine the relationship between ad credibility scale, attitudes towards the ad, IMI, purchase intention and the anticipatory guilt scale. This could be used to establish 'construct nomological validity' by comparing the results from previous studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). The nomological network as proposed by Cronbach and Meehl (1955) and Churchill (1995) suggested that the developed instrument should behave as expected with respect to another construct to which it is theoretically related. That is, the correlation between the two measures, the guilt scale and other related constructs should behave as it is proposed in theory (Cadogan, Diamantopoulos, and de Mortanges 1999).

As discussed, theory and previous studies reveal that, as the level of guilt increases, so should the positive attitudes of the corresponding respondent. Thus, if the scale being developed is measuring what it is intended to measure, there should be a significant increase in attitude for those indicated by our scale as experiencing higher levels of guilt. In terms of nomological validity, this indicates that the constructs the developing scales are measuring are shown as being related empirically to different constructs.

Under the conditions outlined, ad credibility and anticipatory guilt arousal measures received positive Cronbach's alpha scores (respectively ad credibility $\alpha = .818$, and anticipatory guilt arousal $\alpha = .670$). The criterion (predicative) validity of the scale was supported, those experiencing high anticipatory guilt (measured by the scale in development) had a significantly higher correlation score of ad credibility (High anticipatory guilt arousal

=.412**, $p < .01$) than those with lower guilt reaction (Low anticipatory guilt arousal =-.121**, $p < .01$).

As discussed previously, using the correlation of behavioural or attitudinal reactions with scale items have been used in past studies (Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein 1991; Shimp and Sharma 1987). As discussed in Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein (1991, 325), “In examining the nomological validity of a measure, it is important to concentrate on a pattern of results between criterion and predictors and not just significance of results (Cronbach and Meehl 1955).” This being the case, although nomological validity is indicated, further research would be need before robustly justifying the scales as having strong nomological validity as patterns need to be shown. However, at this stage and with the support of the previous results, the scales are continuing their line of positive results towards validation.

The Pearson correlation matrix was intended to show nomological validity. The Pearson correlation matrix results incorporating the anticipatory guilt scale are shown at Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Pearson Correlation Matrix Results

	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Anticipatory Guilt (I)	1			
Ad Credibility (II)	-.162*	1		
Attitude towards Ad (III)	-.193*	.712**	1	
Purchase Intent (IV)	-.182*	.267**	.251**	1

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

At this stage, the evidence of nomological validity is demonstrated by significant correlations of the scale with measures of other constructs to which it is expected to be related (Churchill 1979). Results found the anticipatory guilt scale to be related to each of these constructs, namely the ad credibility (Pearson Correlation = -.162*), attitude towards the ad (Pearson Correlation = -.193*), inferences of manipulative intent (Pearson Correlation = -.122) and purchase intention (Pearson Correlation = -.182*). These results indicate that the anticipatory guilt scale is performing as it might ‘be expected’ with related constructs. For example, there is no existing literature to show that anticipatory guilt is positive related to these variables in

the luxury branding context. As Mosher (1968) suggests guilt is domain specific, that is, the anticipatory guilt appeals can be effective in charitable donation behaviour (Lindsey 2005) however, it might have the opposite effect in the luxury brand context. Consumers may perceive these advertisements to be manipulative and inappropriate. Hence, the relationships are all consistently negative. The findings from the model may provide more clues on the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt appeals in the luxury brand context (see Chapter 6).

Trait Validity (Discriminant and Convergent)

Trait validity is used to examine the amount of variance in a measure's scores. It determines whether the variance results in low correlation between the guilt constructs (discriminant) and other non-related constructs, and high correlation between the guilt measures of the construct and other related measures of the guilt construct (convergent)(Peter 1981). To test for trait validity, discriminant and convergent validity test-retest will be used (Campbell and Fiske 1959).

First, discriminant validity will test to validate that the guilt scale is fundamentally different to other constructs or traits (Campbell and Fiske 1959; Churchill 1979), thus ad credibility was chosen for the validity test. That is, ad credibility scale is fundamentally different to the guilt scale; ad credibility is a measure of **cognition**, whereas the guilt scale is a measure of **emotion**. Therefore, the correlation between these two constructs is predicted to be limited. The ad credibility scale was developed by MacKenzie and Lutz (1989), and it is measured by three items on a 7-point Likert scales. The item for the scale consisted of the following statements; 'this ad is believable', 'this ad is truthful' and 'this ad is realistic'. Past studies have shown that the scale is a reliable measure (Cronbach's alpha above 0.80) thus it is suitable for the purposes of this study (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).

Second, convergent validity assesses the degree of agreement in measures of the same construct (Campbell and Fiske 1959; Churchill 1979; Oh 2005). The test examines the correlation between the two measures that assesses the guilt construct. It is predicted that

there will be high correlation between the two measures since they are measuring the same construct (Campbell and Fiske 1959). Thus, the correlation between the established related measures may be used to determine the guilt scale validity. One of the most commonly used measures of guilt is the Mosher's Guilt Inventory (1968). This instrument was designed to assess guilt in the sex, hostility and conscience domain, thus it is inappropriate for the study for the purposes of the study. A more appropriate guilt measure that could be used for comparison is the composite scale developed by Kugler and Jones (1992). The composite guilt measure applied a series of adjectives (ashamed, guilty, irresponsible, and accountable) to assess guilt. This measure is widely used by advertising scholars (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007) and it presents a more appropriate comparison as it taps into the guilt domain that is associated with consumer's behaviour in a purchase process of luxury products. The review of the scale shows that the scale is a reliable measure (Cronbach's alpha above 0.85) thus it is suitable for the purposes of this study (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert, Hogg, and Quinn 2005).

The results for the anticipatory guilt scale validation are shown in the Table 5.6. Further, the scale continues to show an acceptable level of reliability (Cronbach's Alpha = .670). The results indicate a low correlation between the two unrelated measures for the ad credibility construct and anticipatory guilt construct (Pearson Correlation = .203*). Thus it validates a fundamental difference between the two measures and indicates that the ad credibility measures cognition and anticipatory guilt measures emotions.

Further analysis of the table shows a high correlation between the two related measures of the guilt construct. That is the composite guilt scale developed by Kugler and Jones (1992) highly correlates with the anticipatory guilt scale that was developed for the study (Pearson Correlation = .203*). The correlation between the two guilt scales is much higher than the correlation between anticipatory guilt and other measures. Thus it validates and shows that the two related measures of the guilt construct are related. Therefore, discriminant and convergent validity can be established for the anticipatory guilt scale.

Table 5.6 Pearson Correlation Matrix Results

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
Anticipatory Guilt (I)	1				
Composite Guilt (II)	.203*	1			
Ad Credibility (III)	-.162*	.040	1		
Attitude towards Ad (IV)	-.193*	.033	.712**	1	
Purchase Intent (V)	-.182*	.015	.267**	.251**	1

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

PART 4 – REACTIVE GUILT SCALE

STUDY VII EFA REACTIVE GUILT

The reactive guilt scale was tested using a real broadcast ad from Patek Philippe lasting 10 minutes. The choice of the advertisement was tested using a focus group of 20 advertising undergraduate students which rated the ad as highly evoking reactive guilt. The advertisement shows the relationship between the father and the son, and how the father passed down his legacy by giving his watch to the son. The advertisement highlighted how the son did not value the watch in his childhood and sold it off at a market. However, when the son became a man and he himself became a father, he then realises the value of his father's watch. The advertisement showed the son having a strong emotional attachment with his father's watch and felt reactive guilt for selling it. He searched and searched for his father's watch and finally found it at an auction. Respondents were asked to position themselves as the son from the ad and how they will respond after seeing the ad. The respondents then recorded their reactions to the ad based on a number of scales on a self-administered survey. The ad scenario is a typical reactive guilt advertisement that uses textbook techniques to evoke reactive guilt. For example, it uses **statement of fact** (sold the father's legacy), **question** (the ad asks the viewer what they would do get their father's legacy back), and the scenario employs **a past event** ("the watch that was sold"). Thus, the ad was appropriate for the purposes of the study as it fits all the characteristics of reactive guilt.

Sample

The study was administered to a convenience sample of consisting of 223 undergraduate business students from a Western Australian University. Descriptive analysis was undertaken to identify missing values and some of the responses were removed. A total of 187 valid responses were collected to conduct the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). The demographics and characteristics of the respondents were representative of the student population. The sample consisted of 46.7% males and 53.3% females. The majority of respondents were Australian citizens (42.1%) aged between 20 to 22 (57.0%). Prior to viewing the ad, respondents were asked to fill in a scale to measure their prior attitude towards Patek Philippe. Respondents then recorded their reactions to the ad based on a number of scales on a self-administered survey.

Results

The initial factor analysis of the 34 items for reactive guilt extracted seven factors with some items cross loading in two or three factors. The aim of this process was to create a unidimensional scale thus items with the lowest co-efficients and items that were cross loaded between two or more factors were first removed from the list.

Further, a series of factor analyses were conducted to purify the scale. The scale was finally reduced down to 9 items (Cronbach's alpha = .873) with two factors namely, Spending Guilt (Cronbach's alpha = .877), and Financial Guilt (Cronbach's alpha = .828). Other statistics are all deemed acceptable (KMO and Bartlett's test = .874, Approx Chi-Square = 997.425, Df = 36, Sig. = .000). Table 5.7 presents the results.

Table 5.7 Rotated Component Matrix for Scale Development Test

Reactive Guilt Scale Items	Component	
	1	2
I felt guilty after buying luxury brands that I could not afford	.825	
I felt guilty for buying a very expensive product	.807	
I felt guilty for spending excessively on a luxury as it was violating my acceptable standard	.803	
I felt guilty for violating my acceptable level of standards as I spent excessively on luxury brands that I couldn't afford.	.785	
I felt guilty when others found out what I bought was very expensive	.743	
I felt ashamed when I spent excessively on luxury brands		.848
I was disappointed with myself for spending excessively on luxury product		.822
I felt guilty when I lied about my past excessive spending on luxury brands		.815
I felt guilty when I told my partner about the luxury product I bought is inexpensive when it is very expensive.		.652
Cronbach's Alpha	.877	.828
Eigenvalues (% of Variance)	50.9	16.6
KMO	.874	
Bartlett	Approx. Chi ² =997.425	
	Df = 36, Sig.= .000	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 2 iterations. Factor loadings < .03 suppressed.

STUDY VIII CFA REACTIVE GUILT

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed to examine the unidimensionality and further purify the scales if it is necessary for the scale that was developed in Study VII. CFA is considered as a more robust technique over EFA in examining scale unidimensionality (O’Leary-Kelly and Vokurka 1998; Pedhazur and Schmelkin 1991). Further, CFA has been indicated as a means of scale reduction by identifying the items that could be removed from the scale before confirming the scale’s final configuration (Floyd and Widaman 1995; Netemeyer, Bearden, and Sharma 2003). The remaining items will be examined to ensure they reflect the definition of the reactive guilt construct.

A new survey was developed for the purposes of CFA. CFA was examined using the AMOS 18 programme. The new survey consisted of 9 reactive guilt items from the previous stage, attitude towards the brand, inferences of manipulative intent and behavioural intention measures, and demographics. A pre-test was conducted to ensure the survey had no errors or misunderstanding of the questions. In comparison, the survey was almost identical to the previous version that was used in Study VII. To test the scale unidimensionality the same broadcast ad from Patke Philippe lasting 10 minutes from Study VII was used.

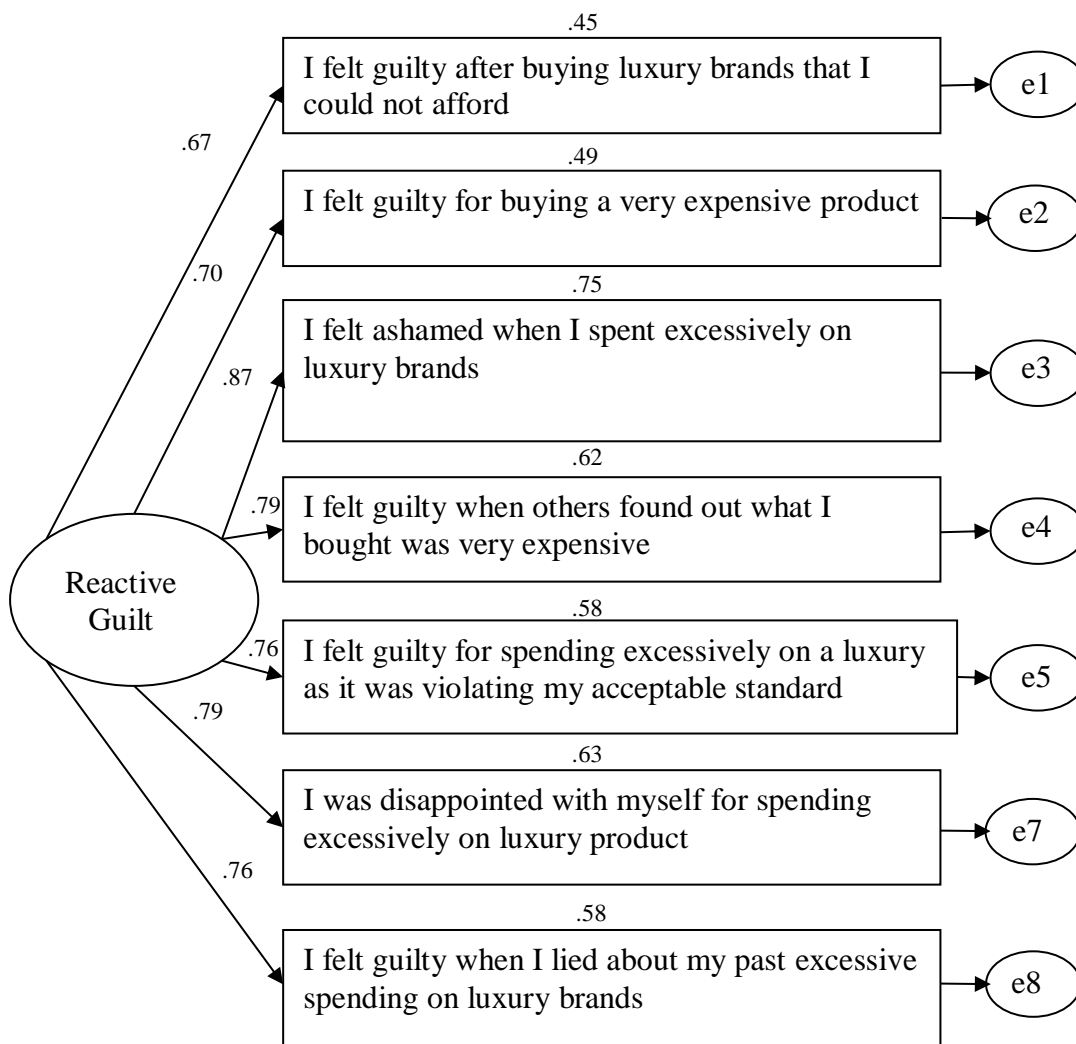
Sample

The study was administered to a convenience sample of consisting of 198 undergraduate business students from a Western Australian University. Descriptive analysis was undertaken to identify missing values and some of the responses were removed. A total of 177 valid responses were collected to conduct the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The demographics and characteristics of the respondents were representative of the student population. The sample consisted of 41.2% males and 58.8% females. The majority of respondents were Australian citizens (52.3%) aged between 20 to 22 (38.4%). Prior to viewing the ad, respondents were asked to fill in a scale to measure their prior attitude towards Patek Philippe. Respondents then recorded their reactions to the ad based on a number of scales on a self-administered survey.

Result

CFA further refined the scales resulting in seven items for reactive guilt with acceptable measures (Hu and Bentler 1999) (Chi-square = 20.085, Degrees of freedom = 14, Probability level = .127, RMSEA = .050, AGFI = .940, CFI = .991, $\alpha = .906$). The number of items fit the recommendation from Mowen and Voss (2008) whom suggested that there should four to eight items in a unidimensional scale. The CFA is presented in the Figure 5.5 which reveals the seven items that emerged from process. The remaining items continue to suit the definition of the construct the scale is intended to measure (content / face validity).

Figure 5.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Reactive Guilt Scale



Using CFA the initial 9 items from the reactive guilt scale have been refined down to the 7 items. The model fit indices indicate a good fit and the remaining items also show acceptable unidimensionality. From this process, further tests could be conducted to determine scale reliability and validity.

STUDY IX VALIDITY REACTIVE GUILT

Study IX will attempt to establish the scale's validity by testing the scale's criterion validity (predictive) and construct / trait validity (nomological, discriminant and convergent). Numerous researchers have suggested a guideline to test for scale validity and they will be consulted for the validity procedure (Campbell and Fiske 1959; Churchill 1979; Oh 2005). To test for scale validity a new survey was constructed and a new collection was required. This is to be explored in the next section.

Sample

The study was administered to a convenience sample of consisting of 254 undergraduate business students from a Western Australian University. Descriptive analysis was undertaken to identify missing values and some of the responses were removed. A total of 171 valid responses were collected to conduct the validity test. The demographics and characteristics of the respondents were representative of the student population. The sample consisted of 46.0% males and 54.0% females. The majority of respondents were Australian citizens (36.2%) aged between 20 to 22 (56.3%).

A pre-test was conducted to ensure the survey had no errors or misunderstanding of the questions. In comparison, the survey format was very similar to the previous versions that were used in Study VII and Study VIII. To test for validity the reactive advertisement was created using a series of images as an animatic in PowerPoint. The advertisement was pre-tested to ensure that only reactive guilt was evoked (See Chapter 4 for further details of the advertisement development process). Respondents were shown the advertisement and then they recorded their reactions to the ad based on a number of scales on a self-administered survey.

Criterion (predictive) and Construct (nomological) validity

Criterion validity determines "the ability of the scale to predict something that should theoretically be related or ability to predict" (Oh 2005, 301). The reactive guilt is constructed using theoretical findings from previous studies (e.g. Godek and LaBarge 2006; Huhmann

and Brotherton 1997; Izard 1977; Kugler and Jones 1992; Lindsey 2005; Rawlings 1970). The guilt theory is used as a parameter to characterise the reactive guilt scale. For example, the theory states that reactive guilt is characterised by a **past violation** of one's own standards (Izard 1977). Thus to confirm criterion validity, this concept is central in the development process of the reactive guilt scale, hence this feature must be captured in the measure. Furthermore, criterion validity test explains the extent to which a measure is related to actual behaviours or outcomes (Anastasi 1986; Eastman, Goldsmith, and Flynn 1999, 44; Nunnally 1978). Using theoretical underpinnings, ad credibility will be used to test criterion validity as previous studies show that there is a significant relationship between ad credibility and guilt arousal (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).

Study IX will examine the relationship between ad credibility scale, attitudes towards the ad, inferences of manipulative intent, purchase intention and the reactive guilt scale. This could be used to establish 'construct nomological validity' by comparing the results from previous studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). This could be used to establish 'construct nomological validity' by comparing the results from previous studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). The nomological network as proposed by Cronbach and Meehl (1955) and Churchill (1995) suggested that the developed instrument should behave as expected with respect to another construct to which it is theoretically related. Another word, the correlation between the two measures, the guilt scale and other related constructs should behave as it is proposed in theory (Cadogan, Diamantopoulos, and de Mortanges 1999).

As discussed, theory and previous studies reveal that, as the level of guilt increases, so should the positive attitudes of the corresponding respondent. Thus, if the scale being developed is measuring what it is intended to measure, there should be a significant increase in attitude for those indicated by our scale as experiencing higher levels of guilt. In terms of nomological validity, this indicates that the constructs the developing scales are measuring are shown as being related empirically to different constructs.

Under the conditions outlined, ad credibility and reactive guilt arousal measures received positive Cronbach's alpha scores (respectively ad credibility $\alpha = .920$, and reactive guilt

arousal $\alpha = .811$). The criterion (predictive) validity of the scale was supported, those experiencing high reactive guilt (measured by the scale in development) had a significantly lower correlation score of ad credibility (High reactive guilt arousal = .149*, $p < .01$) than those with lower guilt reaction (Low reactive guilt arousal = .371*, $p < .01$). The results are in line with previous research (Coulter and Pinto 1995) and show that when consumers feel high levels of reactive guilt they will start to question the credibility of the advertisement.

As discussed previously, using the correlation of behavioural or attitudinal reactions with scale items have been used in past studies (Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein 1991; Shimp and Sharma 1987). As discussed in Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein (1991, 325), “In examining the nomological validity of a measure, it is important to concentrate on a pattern of results between criterion and predictors and not just significance of results (Cronbach and Meehl 1955).” This being the case, although nomological validity is indicated, further research would be needed before robustly justifying the scales as having strong nomological validity as patterns need to be shown. However, at this stage and with the support of the previous results, the scales are continuing their line of positive results towards validation.

The Pearson correlation matrix was intended to show nomological validity. The Pearson correlation matrix results incorporating the reactive guilt scale are shown at Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Pearson Correlation Matrix Results

	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Reactive Guilt (I)	1			
Ad Credibility (II)	.279**	1		
Attitude towards Ad (III)	.224**	.698**	1	
Purchase Intent (IV)	.302**	.491**	.601**	1

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

At this stage, the evidence of nomological validity is demonstrated by significant correlations of the scale with measures of other constructs to which it is expected to be related (Churchill

1979). Results found the reactive guilt scale to be positively related to each of these constructs, namely the ad credibility (Pearson Correlation = .279**), attitude towards the ad (Pearson Correlation = .224**), inferences of manipulative intent (Pearson Correlation = .101) and purchase intention (Pearson Correlation = .302**). These results indicate that the reactive guilt scale is performing as it might 'be expected' with related constructs.

Trait Validity (Discriminant and Convergent)

Trait validity is used to examine the amount of variance in a measure's scores. It determines whether the variance results in low correlation between the guilt constructs (discriminant) and other non-related constructs, and high correlation between the guilt measures of the construct and other related measures of the guilt construct (convergent)(Peter 1981). To test for trait validity, discriminant and convergent validity test-retest will be used (Campbell and Fiske 1959).

First, discriminant validity will test to validate that the guilt scale is fundamentally different to other constructs or traits (Campbell and Fiske 1959; Churchill 1979), thus ad credibility was chosen for the validity test. That is, ad credibility scale is fundamentally different to the guilt scale; ad credibility is a measure of **cognition**, whereas the guilt scale is a measure of **emotion**. Therefore, the correlation between these two constructs is predicted to be limited. The ad credibility scale was developed by MacKenzie and Lutz (1989), and it is measured by three items on a 7-point Likert scales. The item for the scale consisted of the following statements; 'this ad is believable', 'this ad is truthful' and 'this ad is realistic'. Past studies have shown that the scale is a reliable measure (Cronbach's alpha above 0.80) thus it is suitable for the purposes of this study (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).

Second, convergent validity assesses the degree of agreement in measures of the same construct (Campbell and Fiske 1959; Churchill 1979; Oh 2005). The test examines the correlation between the two measures that assesses the guilt construct. It is predicted that there will be high correlation between the two measures since they are measuring the same

construct (Campbell and Fiske 1959). Thus, the correlation between the established related measures may be used to determine the guilt scale validity. One of the most commonly used measures of guilt is the Mosher's Guilt Inventory (1968). This instrument was designed to assess guilt in the sex, hostility and conscience domain, thus it is inappropriate for the purposes of the study. A more appropriate guilt measure that could be used for comparison is the composite scale developed by Kugler and Jones (1992). The composite guilt measure applied a series of adjectives (ashamed, guilty, irresponsible, and accountable) to assess guilt. This measure is widely used by advertising scholars (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008) and it presents a more appropriate comparison as it taps into the guilt domain that is associated with consumer's behaviour in a purchase process of luxury products. The review of the scale shows that the scale is a reliable measure (Cronbach's alpha above 0.85) thus it is suitable for the purposes of this study (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert, Hogg, and Quinn 2005).

The results for the reactive guilt scale validation are shown in the Table 5.9. Further, the scale continues to show high level of reliability (Cronbach's Alpha = .811). The results indicate a low correlation between the two unrelated measures for the ad credibility construct and reactive guilt construct (Pearson Correlation = .236**). Thus it validates a fundamental difference between the two measures and indicates that the ad credibility measures cognition and reactive guilt measures emotions.

Further analysis of the table shows a high correlation between the two related measures of the guilt construct. That is the composite guilt scale developed by Kugler and Jones (1992) highly correlates with the reactive guilt scale that was developed for the study (Pearson Correlation = .586**). The correlation between the two guilt scales is much higher than the correlation between reactive guilt and other measures. Thus it validates and shows that the two related measures of the guilt construct are related. Therefore, discriminant and convergent validity can be established for the reactive guilt scale.

Table 5.9 Pearson Correlation for Reactive Guilt

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
Reactive Guilt (I)	1				
Composite Guilt (II)	.586**	1			
Ad Credibility (III)	.279**	.185	1		
Attitude towards Ad (IV)	.224**	.123	.698**	1	
Purchase Intent (V)	.302**	.204*	.491**	.601**	1

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

PART 5 CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This chapter has explained the procedure undertaken in to develop three scales, one designed to measure existential guilt when respondents are exposed to existential guilt advertisements, the second to measure anticipatory guilt when respondents are exposed to anticipatory guilt advertisements and the third to measure reactive guilt when respondents are expose to reactive guilt advertisements. The body of the chapter show that the research has followed the guidelines suggested by scholars and the nine studies has generated, purified and validated the items through a number of rigours tests including, (1) EFA, (2) CFA, (3) content validity and unidimensionality, (4) discriminant, and predictive (criterion) validity, and (5) examined the generalisability and concurrent (criterion) validity. As mentioned in the introduction of the chapter, a summary of the steps undertaken for each scale appears at Table 5.10, Table 5.11 and Table 5.12. To further validate and increase generalisability of the scales, the scales were tested in the model using different product categories. The results are to be discussed in Chapter 6. Further, the next chapter will also provide the results for the hypothesis testing.

Table 5.10 Summary of Scale Development for Existential Scale

Study I	Purpose	Generate items that relate to existential guilt
	Items	42 items
	Respondents	222
	Stimuli	Broadcast advertisement World Vision
	Methods	Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), reliability analysis (Cronbach's)
	Results	EFA revealed 2 factors that were clearly related to existential guilt. Further EFA and reliability test resulted in 12 items relating to existential guilt ($\alpha = .837$)
Study II	Purpose	Test the unidimensionality of the items developed in Study I
	Items	12 items for existential guilt
	Respondents	213
	Stimuli	Broadcast advertisement World Vision
	Methods	Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with AMOS 18.0
	Results	CFA further refined the scale resulting in 6 items for existential guilt ($\alpha = .933$). Chi-square = 12.018, Degrees of freedom = 6, Probability level = .062, RMSEA = .070, AGFI = .936, CFI = .933, $\alpha = .933$
Study III	Purpose	Perform validity tests including; criterion, face, convergent, discriminant, and nomological
	Items	6 items
	Respondents	130
	Stimuli	One broadcast style advert for existential guilt
	Other scales	Composite Guilt, Ad credibility, Attitude towards the ad, Purchase intention
	Methods	reliability alpha, Pearson Correlation
	Results	The validity tests were considered successful, showing convergent and discriminant validity. The test also showed that each scale was (as theoretically expected) in linked to ad credibility and other scales. Reliability (Cronbach's alpha) shows the continued high reliability of existential guilt scale ($\alpha = .938$)

Table 5.11 Summary of Scale Development for Anticipatory Scale

Study IV	Purpose	Generate items that relate to anticipatory guilt
	Items	48 items
	Respondents	237
	Stimuli	Broadcast advertisement East Midland Designer Outlet
	Methods	Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), reliability analysis (Cronbach's)
	Results	EFA revealed 3 factors that were clearly related to anticipatory guilt. Further EFA and reliability test resulted in 11 items relating to anticipatory guilt ($\alpha = .780$)
Study V	Purpose	Test the unidimensionality of the items developed in Study I
	Items	11 items for anticipatory guilt
	Respondents	238
	Stimuli	Broadcast advertisement East Midland Designer Outlet
	Methods	Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with AMOS 18.0
	Results	CFA further refined the scale resulting in 5 items for anticipatory guilt ($\alpha = .714$). Chi-square = 10.740, Degrees of freedom = 5, Probability level = .057, RMSEA = .073, AGFI = .942, CFI = .961, $\alpha = .714$
Study VI	Purpose	Perform validity tests including; criterion, face, convergent, discriminant, and nomological
	Items	4 items
	Respondents	176
	Stimuli	One broadcast style advert for anticipatory guilt
	Other scales	Composite Guilt, Ad credibility, Attitude towards the ad, Purchase intention
	Methods	reliability alpha, Pearson Correlation
	Results	The validity tests were considered successful, showing convergent and discriminant validity. The test also showed that each scale was (as theoretically expected) in linked to ad credibility and scales. Reliability (Cronbach's alpha) shows the continued high reliability of anticipatory guilt scale ($\alpha = .670$)

Table 5.12 Summary of Scale Development for Reactive Scale

Study VII	Purpose	Generate items that relate to reactive guilt
	Items	34 items
	Respondents	223
	Stimuli	Broadcast advertisement Patek Philippe
	Methods	Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), reliability analysis (Cronbach's)
	Results	EFA revealed 2 factors that were clearly related to reactive guilt. Further EFA and reliability test resulted in 9 items relating to reactive guilt ($\alpha = .873$)
Study VIII	Purpose	Test the unidimensionality of the items developed in Study I
	Items	9 items for reactive guilt
	Respondents	198
	Stimuli	Broadcast advertisement Patek Philippe
	Methods	Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with AMOS 18.0
	Results	CFA further refined the scale resulting in 7 items for reactive guilt ($\alpha = .906$). Chi-square = 20.085, Degrees of freedom = 14, Probability level = .127, RMSEA = .050, AGFI = .940, CFI = .991, $\alpha = .906$
Study IX	Purpose	Perform validity tests including; criterion, face, convergent, discriminant, and nomological
	Items	7 items
	Respondents	254
	Stimuli	One broadcast style advert for reactive guilt
	Other scales	Composite Guilt, Ad credibility, Attitude towards the ad, Purchase intention
	Methods	reliability alpha, Pearson Correlation
	Results	The validity tests were considered successful, showing convergent and discriminant validity. The test also showed that each scale was (as theoretically expected) in linked to ad credibility and other scales. Reliability (Cronbach's alpha) shows the continued high reliability of reactive guilt scale ($\alpha = .811$)

Chapter 6

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into ‘nine studies’. Using a 3 x 3 (3 types of guilt x 3 types of product) factorial experimental design each study will examine the effectiveness of specific types to guilt in various contexts. The nine studies are divided into three sections according to each type of guilt. That is, Study 1-3 is grouped under Existential guilt, Study 4-6 is grouped under Anticipatory guilt, and Study 7-9 is grouped under Reactive guilt (See Chart 6.1).

Chart 6.1 Factorial Design of Study

CATEGORY	Existential	Anticipatory	Reactive
Non-durable Products (Ferrero Rocher)	Study 1	Study 4	Study 7
Durable Products (Tiffany & Co)	Study 2	Study 5	Study 8
Service Products (Club Med)	Study 3	Study 6	Study 9

The chapter is structured into 5 main parts. Part 1 will provide an overview of the data analysis and statistical techniques used in each of the 9 studies. Part two, three and four will describe the three studies grouped under existential, anticipatory and reactive guilt respectively. For each study, all the key data analysis will be described and implications discussed. A summary table of the findings is used to explain the path analysis results for hypothesis 1-8 and mediation regressions for H9-H12. Part 5 will provide the concluding comments of the overall findings.

PART ONE

OVERVIEW AND STRUCTURE OF ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

First, descriptive statistical analysis in SPSS was conducted to profile the respondents. The frequency table showed the percentages of each group and helped characterise a typical respondent's profile, e.g. the respondent is more likely to be aged between 20-22 female with an Australian nationality. This suggests that the sample is highly homogenous and this is imperative to help us understand the effects of guilt for the reasons discussed in the Chapter 2 (DeIVecchio 2000; Yavas 1994).

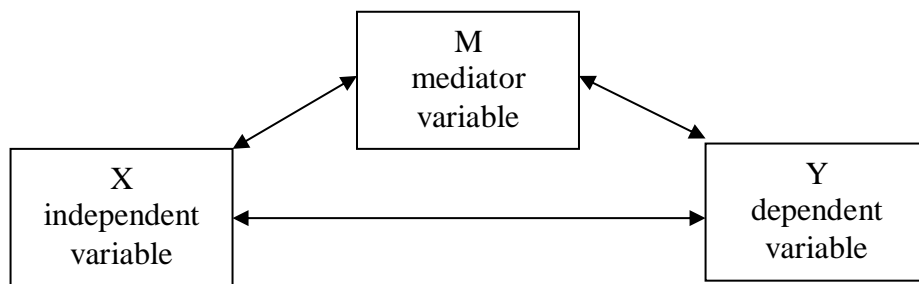
Second, SPSS 18 was used to conduct factor analysis using Principal Component extraction and Varimax rotation methods to ensure each scale was unidimensional. Further, factor loading of co-efficients less than 0.3 were suppressed. Following this, the reliability of the scales items were tested using Cronbach's alpha. Item loading of 0.60 was used as an indicator to determine internal scale consistency (Schaufeli et al. 2002).

Third, structural equation modelling using AMOS 21 was used to test hypothesis 1-8. The initial models show poor model fit. Thus model re-specification was needed. A combination of methods were used to improve the model fit, (1) disaggregation of IMI and guilt scales, and (2) to allow one direct relationship between IMI and PI. Key goodness of model fit indices such as χ^2/DF ratio, RMSEA, AGFI and CFI were used to determine a good model fit. The following parameters were used to indicate a good model fit. χ^2 shows the measure of fit of the model covariance with that of the data, a non-significance and low degree of freedom (DF) show good fit. It has been suggested that χ^2/DF ratio of 1-3 is acceptable for a reasonable sample size (Carmines and McIver 1981, 80). RMSEA or root mean square error of approximation is an estimate of how well the model with the parameter values derived from the sample could be expected to fit the population covariance matrix. It is suggested that values of less than 0.05 indicate a good fit, while values up to 0.08 indicate reasonable fit (Hu and Bentler 1995; Schaufeli et al. 2002). Further, AGFI or Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index takes model parsimony into consideration to measure the relative amount of variance accounted for by the model (Schaufeli et al. 2002). It is postulated that AGFI value of 0.90 is

a good reference for acceptance, however many published models have failed to reach this indicator (Baumgartner Homburg 1996). CFI or comparative fit index is a population measure of model misspecification that is recommended for model comparison (Goffin 1993; Schaufeli et al. 2002). CFI values that are greater than 0.90 indicate a good fit (Hoyle 1995).

Fourth, hypothesis 10-13 was examined using Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step test for mediation. Baron and Kenny (1986) explained that partial or full mediation relationships could be examined by using four series of linear regression analyses. This method will identify the best predictor of a dependent variable from a number of independent variables. The diagram below illustrates the mediation process.

Diagram 6a Mediation Model



(Adopted from Baron and Kenny 1986)

(Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step regression method is tested separately in the following order:

- Step 1:** Regression analysis 1 is conducted between (X) as the predictor and (Y) as the dependent variable
- Step 2:** Regression analysis 2 is conducted between (X) as the predictor and (M) as the dependent variable
- Step 3:** Regression analysis 3 is conducted between (M) as the predictor and (Y) as the dependent variable
- Step 4:** Regression analysis 4 is conducted between (X) and (M) as predictors and (Y) as the dependent variable

Baron and Kenny (1986) states mediation is possible when there is a significant relationship from the regression analysis in Step 1 to Step 3. Further, some degree of mediation is likely if the effect of (M) remains significant after controlling for (X). For example, if (X) and (M) both predicts (Y), then the finding supports partial mediation. However, if (X) is insignificant when (M) is controlled, then the finding supports full mediation. If a significant relationship is reported in Step 1-3, the Sobel Test was used to confirm whether the relationship is partially or fully mediated (Sobel 1982).

There are four mediating relationships and each of these will be tested using Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step regression method. The four mediating relationships are shown below.

Diagram 6b Mediation 1(H9) & 2(H10): Mediating Effects of Attitude Towards the Advertisement

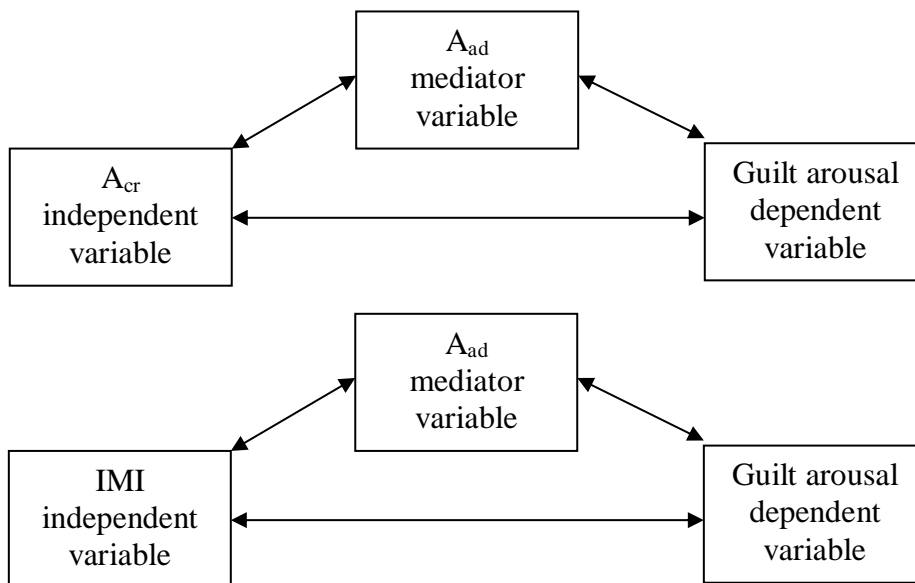
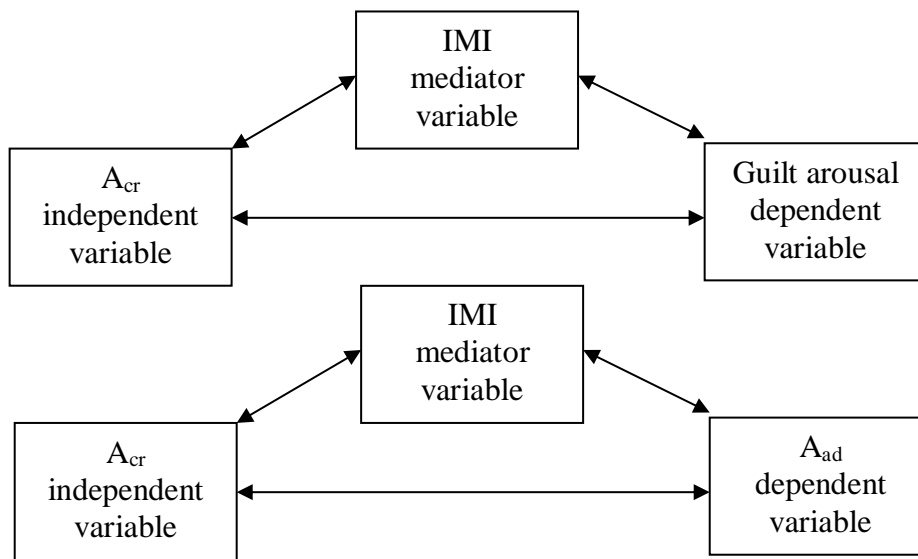


Diagram 6c Mediation 3(H11) & 4(H12): Mediating Effects of Inferences of Manipulative Intent



PART TWO

EXISTENTIAL GUILT – ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This section will discuss and compare the effects of existential guilt advertising stimulus on three different product categories (non-durable, durable and services). It begins with a discussion of the scale reliabilities of all measures used in the model. Next, Study 1-3 will be independently discussed in detail with each section showing the results of path analysis for H1-H8 and mediation analysis for H9-H12. A final summary of the findings, discussion and implications for all the three studies will conclude this section.

Scale Source and Reliabilities

Table 6E1 below shows a summary of the scale reliabilities for all three studies for non-durable, durable and service product categories. The scales used in the studies are all unidimensional. As presented, they are all of acceptable range deemed usable by the literature (Cronbach and Meehl 1955).

Table 6E1 Summary of Scale Reliabilities for Existential Guilt

(Non-Durable, Durable, Service)

Scale	No. Items	Reliability Measure (α)	Source
Ad Credibility (A_{cr})	3	0.913 - 0.935	Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989
Attitude towards the advertisement (A_{ad})	4	0.912 - 0.932	Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989
Inferences of manipulative intent (IMI)	6	0.788 - 0.881	Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005
Existential guilt arousal (EGA)	6	0.938 - 0.958	Developed for the study
Purchase intentions (PI)	3	0.848 - 0.890	Coulter and Pinto 1995; Putrevu and Lord 1994

STUDY ONE – EXISTENTIAL GUILT (NON-DURABLE – FERRERO ROCHER)

Profile of Respondents for Existential Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

A total of 138 responses were collected, of which 136 responses were useable for the analysis. Responses were deleted due to missing cases or invalid responses. The respondents were mainly 20-22 years of age (47.0%), there were more females (58.1%) than males (41.9%) and most of the respondents were Australian citizens (58.8%). Further, most of the respondents were familiar with the Ferrero Rocher brand ($M = 5.99$, $SD = 1.12$).

Hypothesis Testing for H1-8 Existential Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

The Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses. The initial model estimation showed that it did not approximate the data at an acceptable level ($\chi^2 = 425.652$, $df = 199$, $p = .000$; $RMSEA = .092$; $AGFI = .730$; $CFI = .918$). A number of areas were identified to improve the model. An examination of the modification indices indicated that to improve the model significantly it needed to (1) disaggregate the IMI and EGA scales, and (2) to allow one direct relationship between IMI and PI. Thus, re-specification of the model within theoretical justification was necessary.

First, the modification indices show issues with the IMI and EGA guilt scale items. It suggested for the error variance to be correlated with a number of other items in the model. It shows that by partially disaggregating the IMI and EGA scale items it will substantially improve the model fit.

Second, the modification indices suggest adding a direct relationship between IMI and PI. Hibbert, Hogg, and Quinn (2005) suggested that there was direct relationship between IMI and behavioural intentions, thus it was possible to add the relationship to the model to increase the model fit. This approximates a correction for effects such as common method variance (Ryan, 1982). The resulting model was substantially improved ($\chi^2 = 61.281$, $df = 45$, $p = 0.053$, $RMSEA = 0.052$; $AGFI = 0.887$; $CFI = 0.987$). This model was far better than the original model. Further, the key parameters suggest a good model fit thus the model was

accepted. Figure 6.1a presents the hypothesised model while Figure 6.1b presents the structural model with the structural coefficients.

Figure 6.1a Hypothesised Model

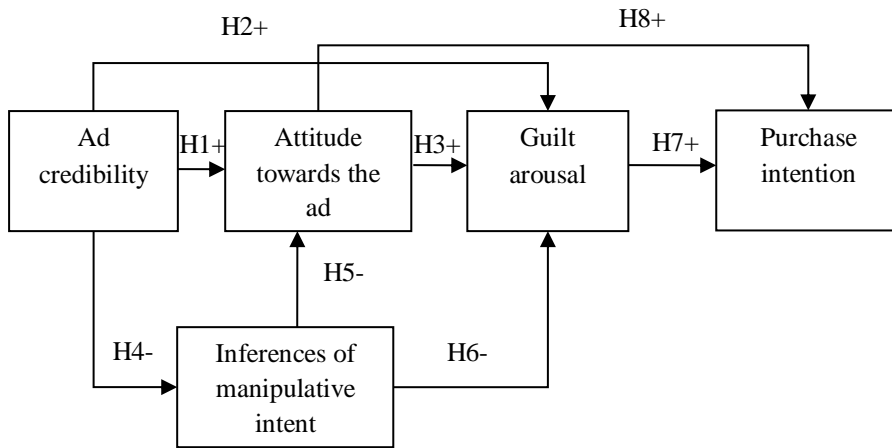
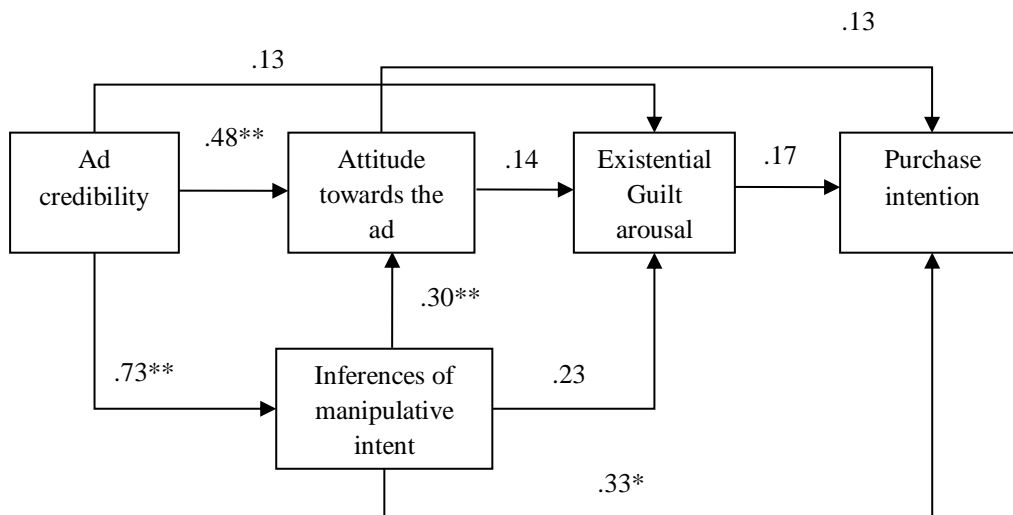


Figure 6.1b Structural Model for Existential Guilt (non-durable - Ferrero Rocher)



Key Results for H1-H8 for Study 1 - Existential Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

Table 6.1a shows the key results for the model. The results confirm some findings from previous studies, for example, H1, H2, H4 and H5 mirrored past findings. The following are some of the key findings:

- a) There is a positive and significant relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} , thus H₁ is accepted. The findings show consistency of the result between this study and earlier studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).
- b) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{cr} and EGA, hence H₂ was rejected. The results reflected the findings from Hibbert et al. (2007) who reported insignificant relationship between these two variables.
- c) An insignificant relationship was recorded between A_{ad} and EGA, hence H₃ was rejected. There is limited empirical support the existence of the relationship. Some scholars have suggested that there is a significant relationship between EGA to A_{ad} (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), however the literature does not show how favourable attitudes could influence the feeling of guilt. Thus, the findings provide a new contribution to understand the relationship between these two constructs.
- d) A significant relationship was reported between A_{cr} and IMI, hence H₄ was accepted. Results confirm that when consumers perceive the advertisement to be highly credible, they will view the advertisement as less manipulative. The results reinforce previous findings (Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- e) A significant relationship was reported between IMI and A_{ad} , hence H₅ was accepted. Results show that when consumers perceive the advertisement as non-manipulative, they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. The results also support findings from past studies (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- f) An insignificant relationship was recorded between IMI and EGA, thus H₆ was rejected. The results contradict previous findings (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). These studies explored the influence of existential guilt in a charitable donation

context. The results suggest that IMI is perceived as extremely low for charitable advertisements thus it evokes the feeling of guilt. However, the relationship is not supported for non-durable products. It proposes that consumers perceive there is some level of manipulative intent from advertisers, thus consumers are unwilling to “feel” the way the advertisement is suggesting.

- g) An insignificant relationship was found between EGA and PI, thus H7 was rejected. The research contradicts results from preceding studies (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). However, these studies explored the effectiveness of existential guilt in a donation context. There is a strong suggestion that altruistic behaviour could enhance the effectiveness of existential guilt for charitable advertisement (e.g. Hibbert and Horne 1996; Ranganathana and Henley 2008). However, the results from the study indicate otherwise and explain that existential guilt is ineffective in a non-durable context.
- h) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{ad} and PI, thus H8 was rejected. The results do not support findings from existing research (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). As suggested earlier, consumers do perceive that there is some manipulative intent in the use of existential guilt appeals for non-durable product advertisements. This could help explain why consumers are unwilling to accept the advertisement favourably and thus unwilling to commit to a purchase decision.

**Table 6.1a Summary of Results for H1-8 Existential Guilt
(non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)**

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Non-durable (Ferrero Rocher)	Conclusion
H1: $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad}$	0.48**	Accept
H2: $A_{cr} \rightarrow EGA$	0.13	Reject
H3: $A_{ad} \rightarrow EGA$	0.14	Reject
H4: $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI$	0.73**	Accept
H5: $IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$	0.30**	Accept
H6: $IMI \rightarrow EGA$	0.23	Reject
H7: $EGA \rightarrow PI$	0.17	Reject
H8: $A_{ad} \rightarrow PI$	0.13	Reject
Goodness of fit indices		
Chi ²	61.28	
DF	45	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.362	
P	0.053	
RMSEA	0.052	
AGFI	0.887	
CFI	0.987	
N	136	

Note

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index.

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, EGA = existential guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Hypothesis Testing for H9-12 Existential Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

Mediation H9 $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow EGA$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA is partially mediated by A_{ad} . Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA is partially mediated by A_{ad} . Thus, H9 is accepted. Based on the dual mediation hypothesis the results confirm past findings and show that A_{ad} is a mediator of advertising response (Batra and Ray 1986; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986).

Diagram 6.1b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

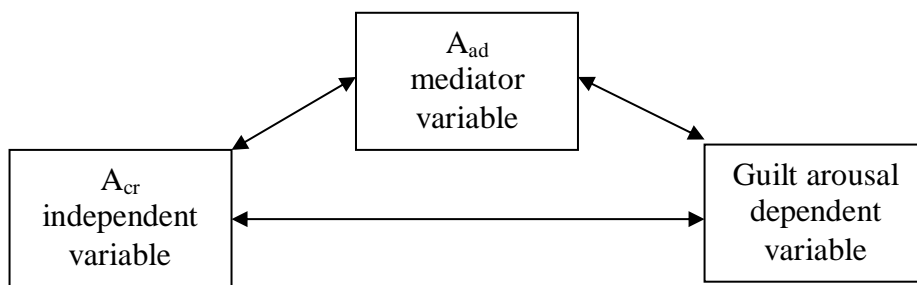


Table 6.1b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	EGA	.386	.149	4.841	.000
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.711	.505	11.691	.000
A_{ad}	EGA	.386	.149	4.848	.000
$A_{cr} + A_{ad}$	EGA	.417	.174	(2.008) + (2.023)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.065				
Test Statistics	4.489				
Sig.	.000				

Note A_{cr} = ad credibility; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; EGA = existential guilt arousal

Mediation H10 IMI→A_{ad}→EGA

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between IMI and EGA is partially mediated by A_{ad}. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between IMI and EGA is partially mediated by A_{ad}. Thus, H10 is accepted. Based on the dual mediation hypothesis the results confirm past findings and show that A_{ad} is a mediator of advertising response (Batra and Ray 1986; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986).

Diagram 6.1c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

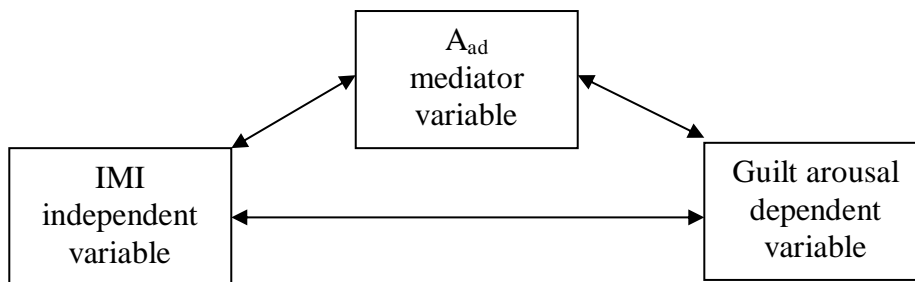


Table 6.1c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
IMI	EGA	.362	.131	4.501	.000
IMI	A _{ad}	.644	.415	9.749	.000
A _{ad}	EGA	.386	.149	4.848	.000
IMI + A _{ad}	EGA	.414	.171	(1.880) + (2.532)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.065				
Test Statistics	4.354				
Sig.	.000				

Note

IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; EGA = existential guilt arousal

Mediation H11 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow EGA$

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA is partially mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, H11 is accepted. Based on the persuasion knowledge model the results confirm past findings and show that IMI is a mediator of advertising persuasiveness (Campbell 1995; Friestad and Wright 1994).

Diagram 6.1d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

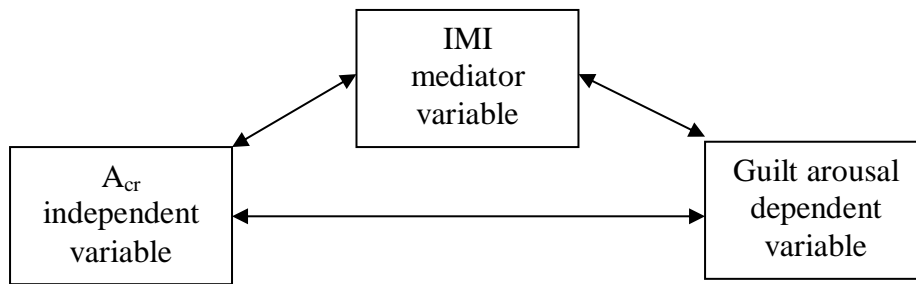


Table 6.1d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	EGA	.386	.149	4.841	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.586	.343	8.364	.000
IMI	EGA	.362	.131	4.501	.000
$A_{cr} + IMI$	EGA	.421	.177	(2.723) + (2.140)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.057				
Test Statistics	3.961				
Sig.	.000				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; EGA = existential guilt arousal

Mediation H12 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation was present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, H12 is accepted. Based on the persuasion knowledge model the results confirm past findings and show that IMI is a mediator of advertising persuasiveness (Campbell 1995; Friestad and Wright 1994).

Diagram 6.1e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

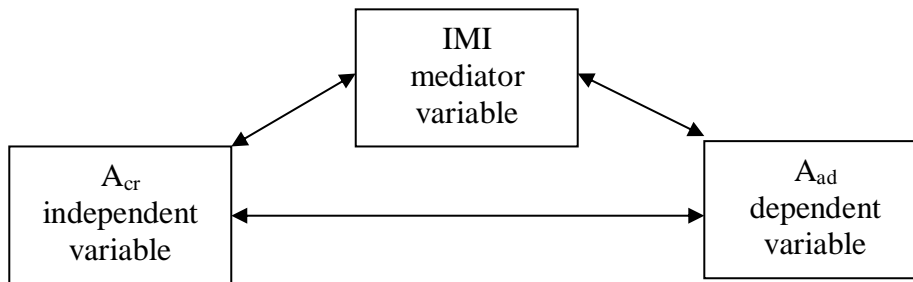


Table 6.1e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.711	.505	11.691	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.586	.343	8.364	.000
IMI	A_{ad}	.644	.415	9.749	.000
$A_{cr} + IMI$	A_{ad}	.764	.584	(7.354) + (5.031)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.061				
Test Statistics	6.372				
Sig.	.000				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad

Discussion of Results for Existential Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

The results suggest existential guilt appeals have limited effectiveness in non-durable product advertisements. However, high levels of cognitive processing were undertaken by consumers to process the existential guilt message. The cognitive process measured the influence of ad credibility and manipulative intent of the advertiser for advertising effectiveness. The results were reflective of past findings for cognitive processing (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986).

However, the findings indicate that attitude towards the advertisement could indirectly influence existential guilt. Therefore, creating likable advertisements for existential guilt appeal in a non-durable context is a possibility for advertisers. Additionally, the findings also suggest that consumers perceived the use of existential guilt appeals in non-durable product advertisements as slightly manipulative. This was indicated by an insignificant relationship IMI and EGA, and a strong mediating influence of IMI. Thus IMI is an important variable as it mediated both relationships in H11 and H12, and it suggests that advertisers should focus on creating likable and non-manipulative (e.g. low intensive guilt) advertisements in the non-durable context. These findings are supported by the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright 1994) that proposed that consumers are constantly learning about the advertiser's techniques and building their knowledge about the persuasion attempts by actively processing advertisements. In support of this argument, researchers have proven this to be more of a concern for negative advertising appeals (Meline 1996; Scott 1994). In this scenario, consumers viewed that the advertiser is using an inappropriate method to endorse the sale of a luxury brand of chocolates. Further analysis of the product category shows that the product is low involvement and low risk as such consumers would prefer to process the information through peripheral route of processing due to the nature of the product (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). However, the advertiser is "forcing" consumers to process the information more analytically and as the result the consumers are unwilling to feel the intended emotion (e.g. guilt) that the advertiser is attempting to evoke. Therefore, it can be concluded that consumers have limited motivations to process existential guilt appeals in advertisements of non-durable product category and the advertisements should be kept simple. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

STUDY TWO – EXISTENTIAL GUILT (DURABLE – TIFFANY & CO)

Profile of Respondents for Existential Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

A total of 127 responses were collected, of which 126 responses were useable for the analysis. Responses were deleted due to missing cases or invalid responses. The respondents were mainly 20-22 years of age (46.8%), there were more females (57.1%) than males (42.9%) and most of the respondents were Australian citizens (36.5%). Further, most of the respondents were familiar with the Tiffany & Co brand ($M = 4.69$, $SD = 1.80$).

Hypothesis Testing for H1-8 Existential Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

The Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses. The initial model estimation showed that it did not approximate the data at an acceptable level ($\chi^2 = 89.547$, $df = 82$, $p = .266$; $RMSEA = .027$; $AGFI = .879$; $CFI = .994$). A number of areas were identified to improve the model. An examination of the modification indices indicated that to improve the model significantly it needed to disaggregate the IMI and EGA scales. Thus, re-specification of the model within theoretical justification was necessary. The modification indices show issues with the IMI and EGA guilt scale items. It suggested for the error variance to be correlated with a number of other items in the model. It shows that by partially disaggregating the IMI and EGA scale items it will substantially improve the model fit. The resulting model was substantially improved ($\chi^2 = 89.547$, $df = 82$, $p = 0.266$; $RMSEA = 0.027$; $AGFI = 0.879$; $CFI = 0.994$). This model was far better than the original model. Further, the key parameters suggest a good model fit thus the model was accepted. Figure 6.2a presents the hypothesised model while Figure 6.2b presents the structural model with the structural coefficients.

Figure 6.2a Hypothesised Model

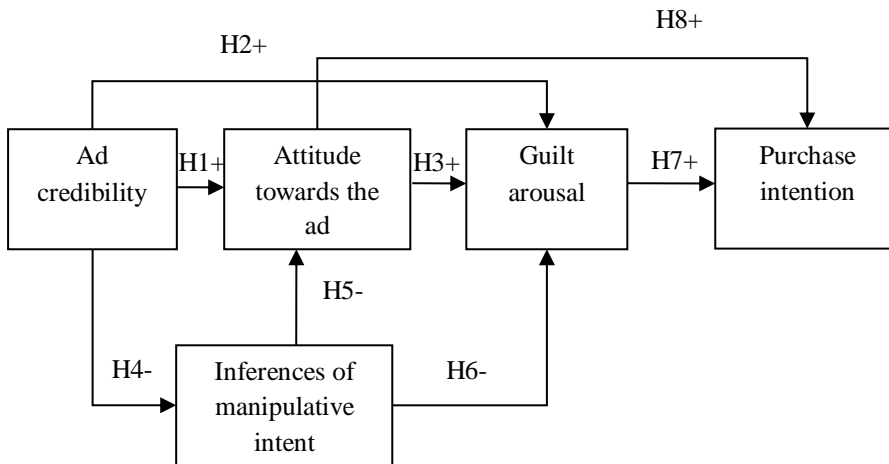
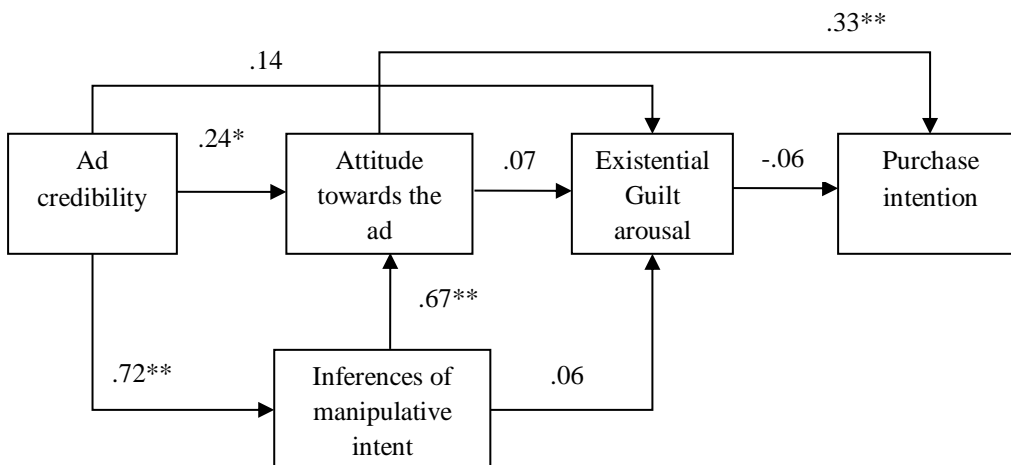


Figure 6.2b Structural Model for Existential Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)



Key Results for H1-H8 for Study 2 - Existential Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

Table 6.2a shows the key results for the model. The results confirm some findings from previous studies, for example, H1, H2, H4, H5 and H8 mirrored past findings. The following are some of the key findings:

- a) There is a positive and significant relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} , thus H₁ is accepted. The findings show consistency of the result between this study and earlier studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).
- b) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{cr} and EGA, hence H₂ was rejected. The results reflected the findings from Hibbert et al. (2007) who reported insignificant relationship between these two variables.
- c) An insignificant relationship was recorded between A_{ad} and EGA, hence H₃ was rejected. There is limited empirical support the existence of the relationship. Some scholars have suggested that there is a significant relationship between EGA to A_{ad} (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), however the literature does not show how favourable attitudes could influence the feeling of guilt. Thus, the findings provide a new contribution to understand the relationship between these two constructs.
- d) A significant relationship was reported between A_{cr} and IMI, hence H₄ was accepted. Results confirm that when consumers perceive the advertisement to be highly credible, they will view the advertisement as less manipulative. The results reinforce previous findings (Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- e) A significant relationship was reported between IMI and A_{ad} , hence H₅ was accepted. Results show that when consumers perceive the advertisement as non-manipulative, they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. The results also support findings from past studies (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- f) An insignificant relationship was recorded between IMI and EGA, thus H₆ was rejected. The results contradict previous findings (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). These studies explored the influence of existential guilt in a charitable donation

context. The results suggest that IMI is perceived as extremely low for charitable advertisements thus it evokes the feeling of guilt. However, the relationship is not supported for non-durable products. It proposes that consumers perceive there is some level of manipulative intent from advertisers, thus consumers are unwilling to “feel” the way the advertisement is suggesting.

- g) An insignificant relationship was found between EGA and PI, thus H7 was rejected. The research contradicts results from preceding studies (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). However, these studies explored the effectiveness of existential guilt in a donation context. There is a strong suggestion that altruistic behaviour could enhance the effectiveness of existential guilt for charitable advertisement (e.g. Hibbert and Horne 1996; Ranganathana and Henley 2008). However, the results from the study indicate otherwise and explain that existential guilt is ineffective in a non-durable context.
- h) A significant relationship was found between A_{ad} and PI, thus H8 was accepted. The results support findings from existing research (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). The results provide further empirical support for the relationship and extend the understanding of existential guilt appeals.

Table 6.2a Summary of Results for Existential Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Durable (Tiffany & Co)	Conclusion
H1: A _{cr} → A _{ad}	0.24*	Accept
H2: A _{cr} → EGA	0.14	Reject
H3: A _{ad} → EGA	0.07	Reject
H4: A _{cr} → IMI	0.72**	Accept
H5: IMI → A _{ad}	0.67**	Accept
H6: IMI → EGA	0.06	Reject
H7: EGA → PI	-0.06	Reject
H8: A _{ad} → PI	0.33**	Accept
Goodness of fit indices		
Chi ²	89.547	
DF	82	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.092	
P	0.266	
RMSEA	0.027	
AGFI	0.879	
CFI	0.994	
N	126	

Note

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index.

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, EGA = existential guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Hypothesis Testing for H9-12 Existential Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

Mediation H9 $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow EGA$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA is partially mediated by A_{ad} . Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA is partially mediated by A_{ad} . Thus, H9 is accepted.

Diagram 6.2b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

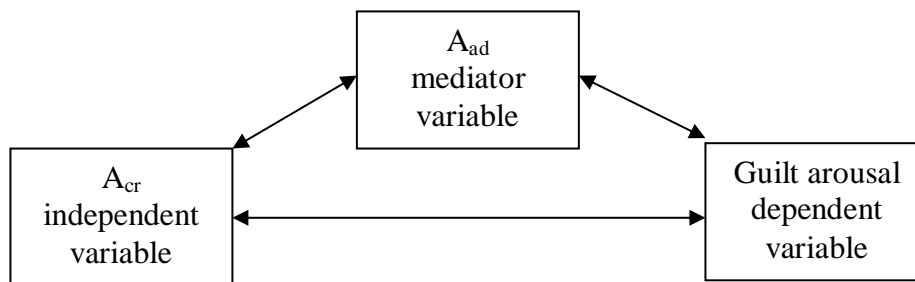


Table 6.2b Mediation H9 (Step 1-4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	EGA	.290	.084	3.375	.001
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.698	.487	10.861	.000
A_{ad}	EGA	.232	.054	2.655	.009
$A_{cr} + A_{ad}$	EGA	.293	.086	(2.075) + (.477)	.004
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.058				
Test Statistics	2.566				
Sig.	.010				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; EGA = existential guilt arousal

Mediation H10 IMI→A_{ad}→EGA

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 shows an insignificant relationship. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Steps 2 and 3. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest A_{ad} as a mediator between IMI and EGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, H10 is rejected.

Diagram 6.2c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

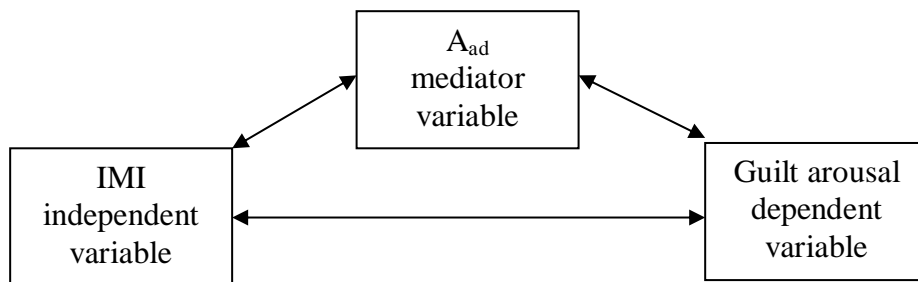


Table 6.2c Mediation H10 Step (1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
IMI	EGA	.172	.030	1.949	.054
IMI	A _{ad}	.694	.482	10.734	.000
A _{ad}	EGA	.232	.054	2.655	.009
IMI + A _{ad}	EGA	.232	.054	(.181) + (1.779)	.033

Note

IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; EGA = existential guilt arousal

Mediation H11 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow EGA$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 3 shows an insignificant relationship. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Steps 1 and 2. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest IMI as a mediator between A_{cr} and AGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, H11 is rejected.

Diagram 6.2d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

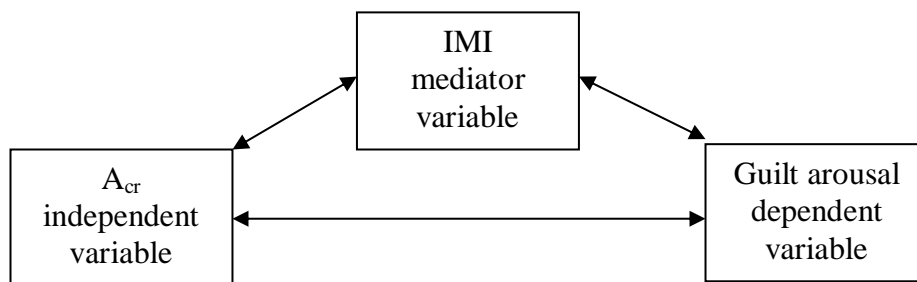


Table 6.2d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	EGA	.290	.084	3.375	.001
A_{cr}	IMI	.523	.273	6.830	.000
IMI	EGA	.172	.030	1.949	.054
$A_{cr} + IMI$	EGA	.291	.085	(2.718) + (.282)	.004

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; EGA = existential guilt arousal

Mediation H12 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation was present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, H12 is accepted.

Diagram 6.2e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

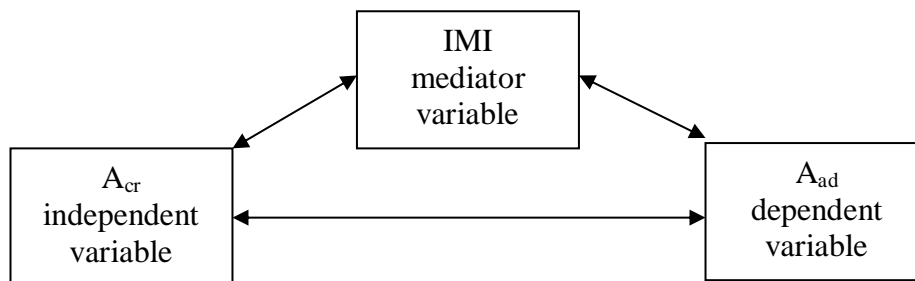


Table 6.2e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.698	.487	10.861	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.523	.273	6.830	.000
IMI	A_{ad}	.694	.482	10.734	.000
$A_{cr} + IMI$	A_{ad}	.798	.636	(7.236) + (7.098)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.063				
Test Statistics	5.760				
Sig.	.000				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad

Discussion of Results for Existential Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

The results suggest existential guilt appeals have limited effectiveness in durable product advertisements. However, high levels of cognitive processing were undertaken by consumers to process the existential guilt message. The cognitive process measured the influence of ad credibility and manipulative intent of the advertiser for advertising effectiveness. The results were reflective of past findings for cognitive processing (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986).

Additionally, the findings indicate that attitude towards the advertisement could indirectly effect existential guilt. Therefore, creating likable advertisements for existential guilt appeal in a durable context is a possibility for advertisers. In fact, the results show a positive and a significant relationship between attitude towards the advertisement and purchase intention. Thus it shows that advertisers should focus more creating luxury durable advertisements that are likable, as this could have a direct and indirect effect on behaviour.

Further, the results show that IMI is not as important for durable products in comparison to non-durable products. IMI only mediated the relationship between ad credibility and attitude towards the advertisement. This further suggests that advertisers should focus more on creating likable advertisements for a luxury brand of jewellers. These findings are supported by the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright 1994) that proposed that consumers are constantly learning about the advertiser's techniques and building their knowledge about the persuasion attempts by actively processing advertisements. In support of this argument researchers have proven this to be more of a concern for negative advertising appeals (Meline 1996; Scott 1994). In this scenario, consumers viewed that the advertiser is using an inappropriate method to endorse durable luxury brands. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

STUDY THREE – EXISTENTIAL GUILT (SERVICE – CLUB MED)

Profile of Respondents for Existential Guilt (service – Club Med)

A total of 130 responses were collected, of which 128 responses were useable for the analysis. Responses were deleted due to missing cases or invalid responses. The respondents were mainly 20-22 years of age (55.0%), there were more males (52.7%) than females (47.3%) and most of the respondents were Australian citizens (23.5%). Further, most of the respondents were familiar with the Club Med brand ($M = 4.20$, $SD = 1.78$).

Hypothesis Testing for Existential Guilt (service – Club Med)

The Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses. The initial model estimation showed that it did not approximate the data at an acceptable level ($\chi^2 = 423.131$, $df = 201$, $p = .000$; $RMSEA = .093$; $AGFI = .722$; $CFI = .905$). A number of areas were identified to improve the model. An examination of the modification indices indicated that to improve the model significantly it needed to disaggregate the IMI and EGA scales. Thus, re-specification of the model within theoretical justification was necessary. The modification indices show issues with the IMI and EGA guilt scale items. It suggested for the error variance to be correlated with a number of other items in the model. It shows that by partially disaggregating the IMI and EGA scale items it will substantially improve the model fit. The resulting model was substantially improved ($\chi^2 = 84.925$, $df = 68$, $p = 0.080$; $RMSEA = 0.044$; $AGFI = 0.875$; $CFI = 0.989$). This model was far better than the original model. Further, the key parameters suggest a good model fit thus the model was accepted. Figure 6.3a presents the hypothesised model while Figure 6.3b presents the structural model with the structural coefficients.

Figure 6.3a Hypothesised Model

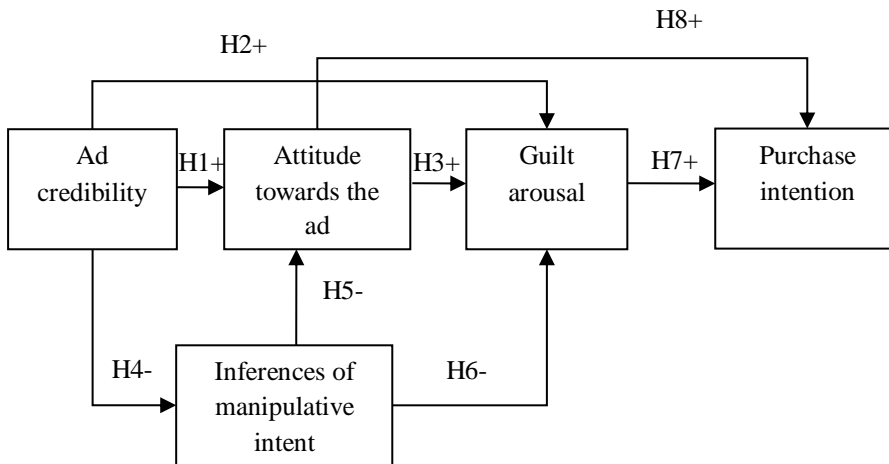
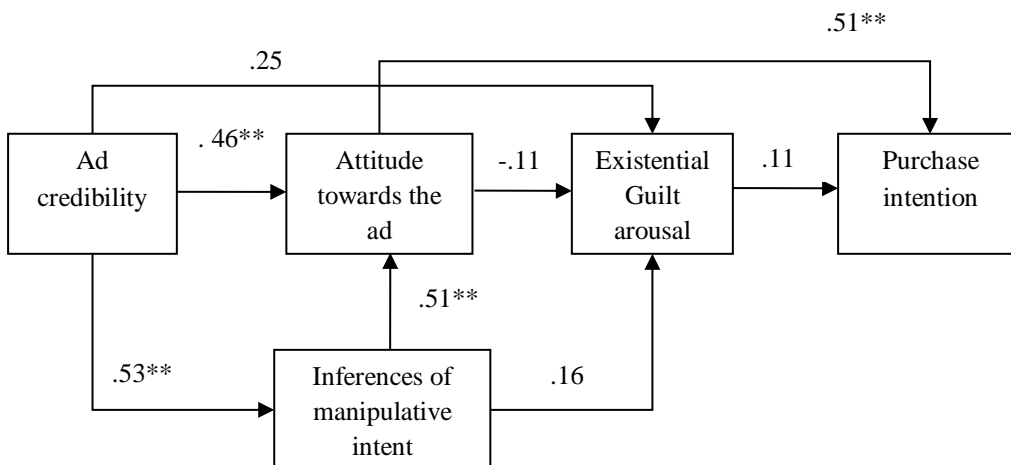


Figure 6.3b Structural Model for Existential Guilt (service – Club Med)



Key Results for H1-H8 for Study 3 - Existential Guilt (Service – Club Med)

Table 6.3a shows the key results for the model. The results confirm some findings from previous studies, for example, H1, H2, H4, H5 and H8 mirrored past findings. The following are some of the key findings:

- a) There is a positive and significant relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} , thus H_1 is accepted. The findings show consistency of the result between this study and earlier studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).
- b) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{cr} and EGA, hence H_2 was rejected. The results reflected the findings from Hibbert et al. (2007) who reported insignificant relationship between these two variables.
- c) An insignificant relationship was recorded between A_{ad} and EGA, hence H_3 was rejected. There is limited empirical support the existence of the relationship. Some scholars have suggested that there is a significant relationship between EGA to A_{ad} (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), however the literature does not show how favourable attitudes could influence the feeling of guilt. Thus, the findings provide a new contribution to understand the relationship between these two constructs.
- d) A significant relationship was reported between A_{cr} and IMI, hence H_4 was accepted. Results confirm that when consumers perceive the advertisement to be highly credible, they will view the advertisement as less manipulative. The results reinforce previous findings (Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- e) A significant relationship was reported between IMI and A_{ad} , hence H_5 was accepted. Results show that when consumers perceive the advertisement as non-manipulative, they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. The results also support findings from past studies (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- f) An insignificant relationship was recorded between IMI and EGA, thus H_6 was rejected. The results contradict previous findings (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). These studies explored the influence of existential guilt in a charitable donation

context. The results suggest that IMI is perceived as extremely low for charitable advertisements thus it evokes the feeling of guilt. However, the relationship is not supported for service products. It proposes that consumers perceive there is some level of manipulative intent from advertisers, thus consumers are unwilling to “feel” the way the advertisement is suggesting.

- g) An insignificant relationship was found between EGA and PI, thus H7 was rejected. The research contradicts results from preceding studies (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). However, these studies explored the effectiveness of existential guilt in a donation context. There is a strong suggestion that altruistic behaviour could enhance the effectiveness of existential guilt for charitable advertisement (e.g. Hibbert and Horne 1996; Ranganathana and Henley 2008). However, the results from the study indicate otherwise and explain that existential guilt is ineffective in a service context.
- h) A significant relationship was found between A_{ad} and PI, thus H8 was accepted. The results support findings from existing research (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). The results provide further empirical support for the relationship and extend the understanding of existential guilt appeals.

Table 6.3a Summary of Results for Existential Guilt (service – Club Med)

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Service (Club Med)	Conclusion
H1: A _{cr} → A _{ad}	0.46**	Accept
H2: A _{cr} → EGA	0.25	Reject
H3: A _{ad} → EGA	-0.11	Reject
H4: A _{cr} → IMI	0.53**	Accept
H5: IMI → A _{ad}	0.51**	Accept
H6: IMI → EGA	0.16	Reject
H7: EGA → PI	0.11	Reject
H8: A _{ad} → PI	0.51**	Accept
Goodness of fit indices		
Chi ²	84.925	
DF	68	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.249	
P	0.080	
RMSEA	0.044	
AGFI	0.875	
CFI	0.989	
N	128	

Note

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index.

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, EGA = existential guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Hypothesis Testing for H9-12 Existential Guilt (Service – Club Med)

Mediation H9 $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow EGA$

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA is partially mediated by A_{ad} . Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA is partially mediated by A_{ad} . Thus, H9 is accepted.

Diagram 6.3b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

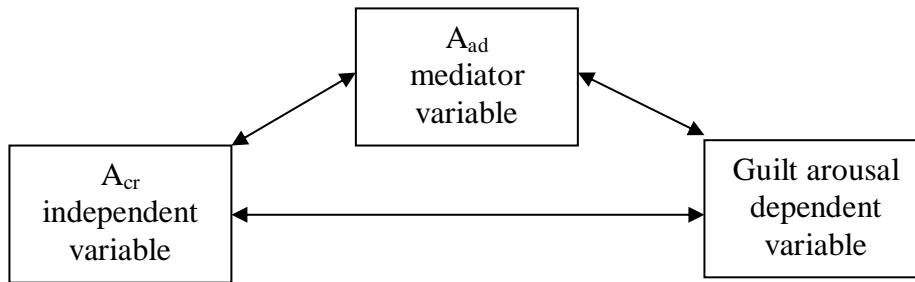


Table 6.3b Mediation H9 Step (1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	EGA	.233	.054	2.684	.008
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.707	.500	11.225	.000
A_{ad}	EGA	.182	.033	2.081	.040
$A_{cr} + A_{ad}$	EGA	.234	.055	(1.687) + (.289)	.030
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.064				
Test Statistics	2.043				
Sig.	.041				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; EGA = existential guilt arousal

Mediation H10 IMI→A_{ad}→EGA

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between IMI and EGA is partially mediated by A_{ad}. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between IMI and EGA is partially mediated by A_{ad}. Thus, H10 is accepted.

Diagram 6.3c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

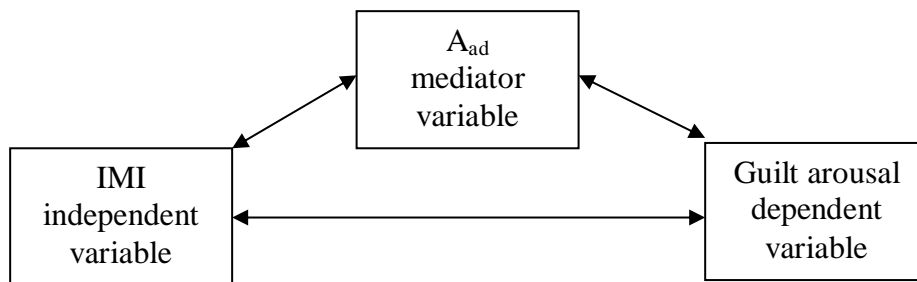


Table 6.3c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
IMI	EGA	.219	.048	2.524	.013
IMI	A _{ad}	.729	.532	11.957	.000
A _{ad}	EGA	.182	.033	2.081	.040
IMI + A _{ad}	EGA	.222	.049	(1.450) + (.048)	.043
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.080				
Test Statistics	2.048				
Sig.	.040				

Note

IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; EGA = existential guilt arousal

Mediation H11 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow EGA$

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA is partial mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA is partial mediated by IMI. Thus, H11 is accepted.

Diagram 6.3d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

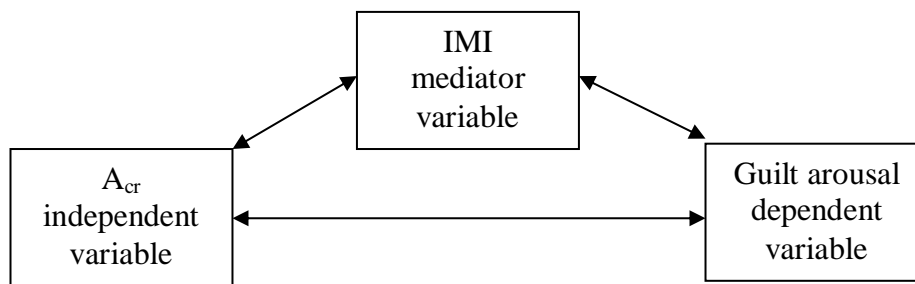


Table 6.3d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	EGA	.233	.054	2.684	.008
A_{cr}	IMI	.522	.273	6.873	.000
IMI	EGA	.219	.048	2.524	.013
$A_{cr} + IMI$	EGA	.259	.067	(1.602) + (1.330)	.013
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.049				
Test Statistics	2.372				
Sig.	.018				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; EGA = existential guilt arousal

Mediation H12 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation was present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, H12 is accepted.

Diagram 6.3e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

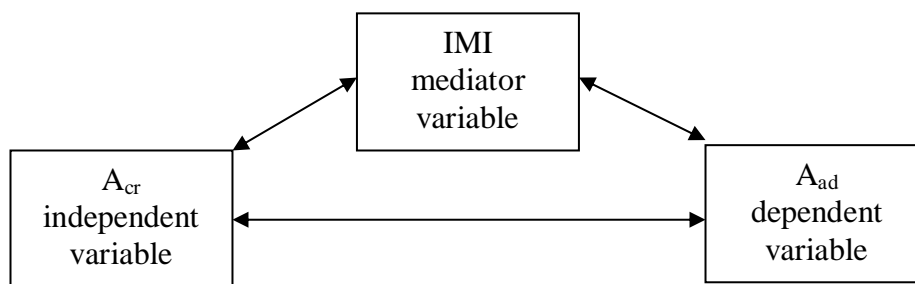


Table 6.3e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.707	.500	11.225	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.522	.273	6.873	.000
IMI	A_{ad}	.729	.532	11.957	.000
$A_{cr} + IMI$	A_{ad}	.823	.678	(7.540) + (8.313)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.064				
Test Statistics	5.949				
Sig.	.000				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad

Discussion of Results for Existential Guilt (service – Club Med)

The results suggest existential guilt appeals have limited effectiveness in service advertisements. However, high levels of cognitive processing were undertaken by consumers to process the existential guilt message. The cognitive process measured the influence of ad credibility and manipulative intent of the advertiser for advertising effectiveness. The results were reflective of past findings for cognitive processing (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986).

The results show insignificant relationship between EGA and purchase intention, however advertisers can influence purchase intention through attitude towards the advertisement. That is, there is significant relationship between existential guilt and purchase intention. Additionally, the findings indicate that attitude towards the advertisement could directly and indirectly effect purchase intention. Creating likable advertisements can influence attitude towards advertisement in three ways, (1) by direct relationship between attitude towards the advertisement and purchase intention, (2) by mediating the relationship between A_{cr} and EGA, and (3) by mediating the relationship between IMI and EGA. Therefore, creating likable advertisements for existential guilt appeal in a service context is a possibility for advertisers.

Further, the results show that IMI is just as important as attitude towards the advertisement. IMI mediated both relationships in H11 and H12, and it can influence existential guilt arousal as well as attitude towards the advertisement. This suggests that advertisers should focus on creating likable and non-manipulative (e.g. low intensive guilt) advertisements for a luxury brand of holiday resorts. These findings are supported by the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright 1994) that proposed that consumers are constantly learning about the advertiser's techniques and building their knowledge about the persuasion attempts by actively processing advertisements. In support of this argument researchers have proven this to be more of a concern for negative advertising appeals (Meline 1996; Scott 1994). In this scenario, consumers viewed that the advertiser is using an inappropriate method to endorse service luxury brands. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

Summary of Results for Existential Guilt for all Three Product Categories

The summary of the results for H1-H12 are provided in Table 6E2 and Table 6E3. The results show a similar pattern between the three categories. For example, the results for H1-7, H9 and H12 were identical amongst the three products and most of the relationships confirmed existing theory. However, there were some differences, for example, the results for H8, H10 and H12 were unlike. In H8, the relationship between attitude towards the ad and purchase intention was insignificant for non-durable products. However, the relationship was significant for durable and service products and confirmed previous findings (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). This suggests existential guilt appeals are less effective for non-durable products. This could be due to the cost of the product, a luxury chocolate brand costs around \$10 and consumers may feel the proceedings from the sale are insignificant to help the cause. Thus, purchasing non-durable products may not reduce the feeling of existential guilt. On the other hand, purchases of durable and service products may reduce the feeling of existential guilt because the costs of the products are high, thus proceedings are perceived as substantial. This is reflected by an insignificant relationship between the dependent variables (A_{ad} and EGA) and purchase intention. Thus, non-durable product advertisers should avoid using this appeal.

The second difference between the three categories is the results for H10 and H12. It indicates an insignificant relationship for durable products. However, a significant relationship was reported for non-durable and service products. This suggests IMI is not as important as attitude towards the advertisement for durable products. Conversely, the result suggests IMI is just as important as attitude towards the advertisement for non-durable and service products. Thus, these products must focus on creating advertisements that are likable and non-manipulative (e.g. low intensive guilt).

Overall the results confirm that existential guilt appeals have limited effectiveness in the luxury brand context as it does not predict behaviour directly. However, the results do show that existential guilt appeals can evoke purchase intention indirectly through attitude towards the advertisement. Thus, advertisers should focus on creating 'likable' advertisements for existential guilt appeals to be more effective. However, this does not mean that advertisers should abandon all information that requires cognitive processing. It means advertisers need to use credible information sparingly to change consumer's behaviour. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

**Table 6E2 Summary of Hypothesis 1-8 Testing for Existential Guilt
(Non-Durable, Durable, Service)**

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Non-durable (Ferrero Rocher)	Standardised Beta Durable (Tiffany & Co)	Standardised Beta Service (ClubMed)	Conclusion
H1: A _{cr} → A _{ad}	0.48**	0.24*	0.46**	Accept
H2: A _{cr} → EGA	0.13	0.14	0.25	Reject
H3: A _{ad} → EGA	0.14	0.07	-0.11	Reject
H4: A _{cr} → IMI	0.73**	0.72**	0.53**	Accept
H5: IMI → A _{ad}	0.30**	0.67**	0.51**	Accept
H6: IMI → EGA	0.23	0.06	0.16	Reject
H7: EGA → PI	0.17	-0.06	0.11	Reject
H8: A _{ad} → PI	0.13	0.33**	0.51**	Accept only for durable and service products
Goodness of fit indices				
Chi ²	61.281	89.547	84.925	
DF	45	82	68	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.362	1.092	1.249	
P	0.053	0.266	0.080	
RMSEA	0.052	0.027	0.044	
AGFI	0.887	0.879	0.875	
CFI	0.987	0.994	0.989	
N	136	126	128	

Note:

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index.

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, EGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

*p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.01

**Table 6E3 Summary of Hypothesis 9-12 Testing for Existential Guilt
(Non-Durable, Durable, Service)**

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Non-durable (Ferrero Rocher)	Standardised Beta Durable (Tiffany & Co)	Standardised Beta Service (ClubMed)	Conclusion
H9: A _{ad} Mediator A _{cr} → A _{ad} → EGA	.417**	.293**	.234*	A _{ad} mediate the relationship between A _{cr} and EGA
H10: A _{ad} Mediator IMI → A _{ad} → EGA	.414**	.232	.222*	A _{ad} mediate the relationship between IMI and EGA only for non-durable and service products
H11: IMI Mediator A _{cr} → IMI → EGA	.421**	.291	.259*	IMI mediate the relationship between A _{cr} and EGA only for non-durable and service products
H12: IMI Mediator A _{cr} → IMI → A _{ad}	.764**	.798**	.823**	IMI mediate the relationship between A _{cr} and A _{ad}

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, EGA = existential guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

PART THREE

ANTICIPATORY GUILT - ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This section will discuss the comparison effects of anticipatory guilt advertising stimulus on three different product categories (non-durable, durable and services). It begins with a discussion of the scale reliabilities of all measures used in the model. Next, Study 4-6 will be independently discussed in detail with each section showing the results of path analysis for H1-H8 and mediation analysis for H9-H12. A final summary of the findings, discussion and implications for all the three studies will conclude this section.

Scale Source and Reliabilities

Table 6A1 below shows a summary of the scale reliabilities for all three studies for non-durable, durable and service product categories. The scales used in the studies are all unidimensional. As presented, they are all of acceptable range deemed usable by the literature (Cronbach and Meehl 1955).

**Table 6A1 Summary of Scale Reliability for Anticipatory Guilt
(Non-Durable, Durable, Service)**

Scale	No. Items	Reliability Measure (α)	Source
Ad Credibility (A_{cr})	3	.818 - .894	Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989
Attitude towards the advertisement (A_{ad})	4	.879 - .926	Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989
Inferences of manipulative intent (IMI)	6	.802 - .862	Campbell, 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005
Anticipatory guilt arousal (AGA)	4	.654 - .670	Developed for the study
Purchase intentions (PI)	3	.837 - .866	Coulter and Pinto, 1995; Putrevu and Lord 1994

STUDY FOUR – ANTICIPATORY GUILT (NON-DURABLE – FERRERO ROCHER)

Profile of Respondents for Anticipatory Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

A total of 157 responses were collected, of which 107 responses were useable for the analysis. Responses were deleted due to missing cases or invalid responses. The respondents were mainly 20-22 years of age (49.5%), there were more females (50.5%) than males (49.5%) and most of the respondents were Australian citizens (31.8%). Further, most of the respondents were familiar with the Ferrero Rocher brand ($M = 5.78$, $SD = 1.53$).

Hypothesis Testing for Anticipatory Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

The Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses. The initial model estimation showed that it did not approximate the data at an acceptable level ($\chi^2 = 417.785$, $df = 223$, $p = .000$; $RMSEA = .091$; $AGFI = .697$; $CFI = .842$). A number of areas were identified to improve the model. An examination of the modification indices indicated that to improve the model significantly it needed to disaggregate the IMI and AGA scales. Thus, re-specification of the model within theoretical justification was necessary. The modification indices show issues with the IMI and AGA guilt scale items. It suggested for the error variance to be correlated with a number of other items in the model. It shows that by partially disaggregating the IMI and AGA scale items it will substantially improve the model fit. The resulting model was substantially improved ($\chi^2 = 72.211$, $df = 57$, $p = 0.084$; $RMSEA = 0.059$; $AGFI = 0.829$; $CFI = 0.970$). This model was far better than the original model. Further, the key parameters suggest a good model fit thus the model was accepted. The Figure below details the structural coefficients for the model. Figure 6.4a presents the hypothesised model while Figure 6.4b presents the structural model with the structural coefficients.

Figure 6.4a Hypothesised Model

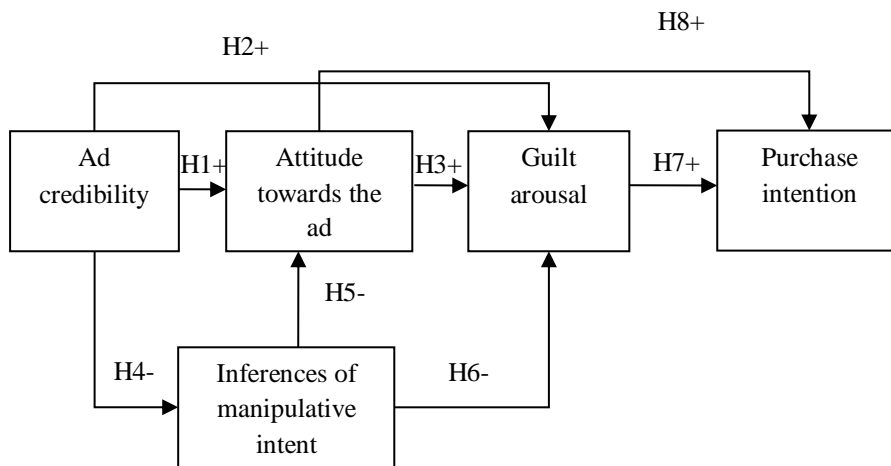
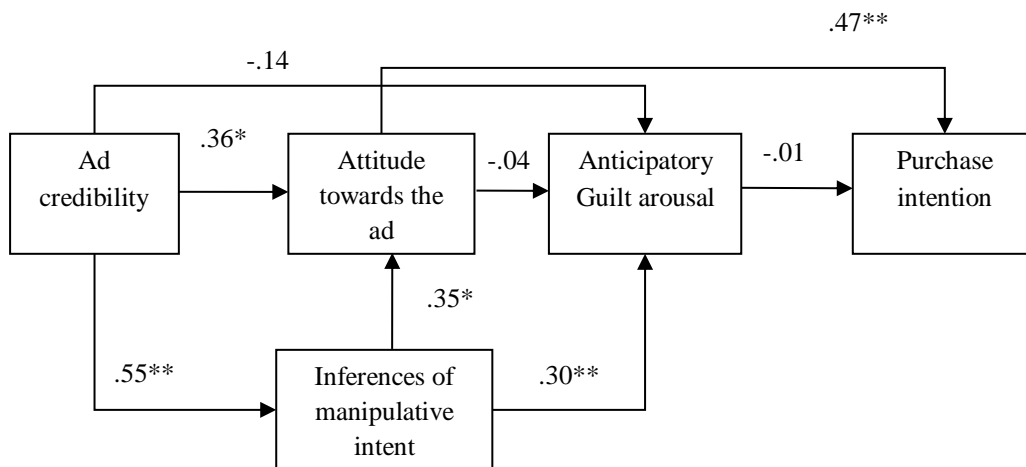


Figure 6.4b Structural Model for Anticipatory Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)



Key Results for H1-H8 for Study 4 - Anticipatory Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

Table 6.4a shows the key results for the model. The results confirm some findings from previous studies, for example, H1, H2, H4, H5, H6 and H8 mirrored past findings. The following are some of the key findings:

- a) There is a positive and significant relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} , thus H_1 is accepted. The findings show consistency of the result between this study and earlier studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).
- b) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{cr} and AGA, hence H_2 was rejected. The results reflected the findings from Hibbert et al. (2007) who reported insignificant relationship between these two variables.
- c) An insignificant relationship was recorded between A_{ad} and AGA, hence H_3 was rejected. There is limited empirical support the existence of the relationship. Some scholars have suggested that there is a significant relationship between AGA to A_{ad} (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), however the literature does not show how favourable attitudes could influence the feeling of guilt. Thus, the findings provide a new contribution to understand the relationship between these two constructs.
- d) A significant relationship was reported between A_{cr} and IMI, hence H_4 was accepted. Results confirm that when consumers perceive the advertisement to be highly credible, they will view the advertisement as less manipulative. The results reinforce previous findings (Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- e) A significant relationship was reported between IMI and A_{ad} , hence H_5 was accepted. Results show that when consumers perceive the advertisement as non-manipulative, they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. The results also support findings from past studies (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- f) A significant relationship was recorded between IMI and AGA, thus H_6 was accepted. The results confirmed previous findings (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007) and suggest that low inferences of manipulative will evoke more anticipatory guilt.

However, that also means, high inferences of manipulative intent will evoke low anticipatory guilt. Therefore the advertisers have to be very careful of this relationship.

- g) An insignificant relationship was found between AGA and PI, thus H7 was rejected. The research contradicts results from preceding studies (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). However, these studies explored the effectiveness of guilt appeals in a donation context. There is a strong suggestion that altruistic behaviour could enhance the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt for charitable advertisement (e.g. Hibbert and Horne 1996; Lindsey 2005; Ranganathana and Henley 2008). However, the results from the study indicate otherwise and explain that anticipatory guilt is ineffective in a non-durable context.
- h) A significant relationship was found between A_{ad} and PI, thus H8 was accepted. The results support findings from existing research (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). The results provide further empirical support for the relationship and extend the understanding of anticipatory guilt appeals.

Table 6.4a Summary of Results for Anticipatory Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Non-durable (Ferrero Rocher)	Conclusion
H1: $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad}$	0.36*	Accept
H2: $A_{cr} \rightarrow AGA$	-0.14	Reject
H3: $A_{ad} \rightarrow AGA$	-0.04	Reject
H4: $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI$	0.55**	Accept
H5: $IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$	0.35*	Accept
H6: $IMI \rightarrow AGA$	0.30**	Accept
H7: $AGA \rightarrow PI$	-0.01	Reject
H8: $A_{ad} \rightarrow PI$	0.47**	Accept
Goodness of fit indices		
Chi ²	72.211	
DF	57	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.267	
P	0.084	
RMSEA	0.059	
AGFI	0.829	
CFI	0.970	
N	107	

Note

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index. Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, EGA = anticipatory guilt arousal
* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Hypothesis Testing for H9-12 Anticipatory Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

Mediation H9 $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow AGA$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 and Step 3 shows insignificant relationships. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Step 2. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest A_{ad} as a mediator between A_{cr} and AGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, H9 is rejected.

Diagram 6.4b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

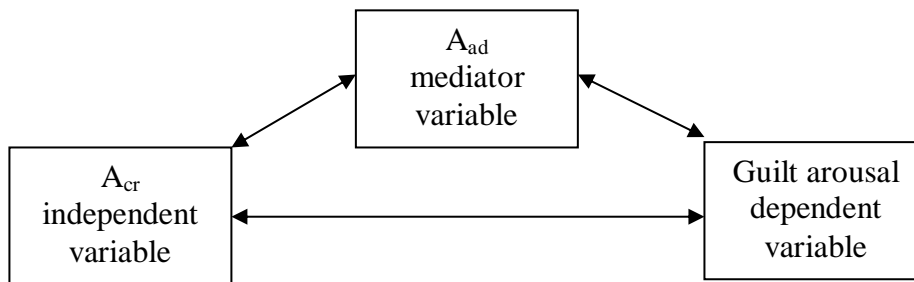


Table 6.4b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A _{cr}	AGA	.073	.005	.748	.456
A _{cr}	A _{ad}	.566	.321	7.038	.000
A _{ad}	AGA	-.010	.000	-.104	.917
A _{cr} + A _{ad}	AGA	.096	.009	(.976) + (-.638)	.619

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

Mediation H10 IMI→A_{ad}→AGA

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 3 shows insignificant relationship. However, significant relationships were recorded for Steps 1 and 2. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest A_{ad} as a mediator between IMI and AGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, H10 is rejected.

Diagram 6.4c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

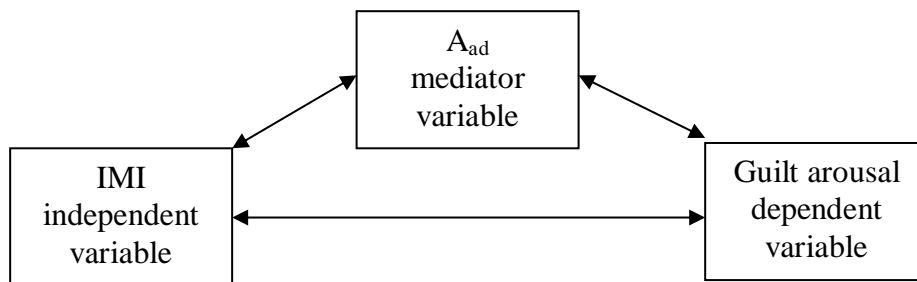


Table 6.4c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
IMI	AGA	.194	.038	2.030	.045
IMI	A _{ad}	.622	.387	8.137	.000
A _{ad}	AGA	-.010	.000	-.104	.917
IMI + A _{ad}	AGA	.256	.066	(2.704) + (-1.765)	.029

Note

IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

Mediation H11 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow AGA$

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 shows an insignificant relationship. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Steps 2 and 3. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest IMI as a mediator between A_{cr} and AGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, H11 is rejected.

Diagram 6.4d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

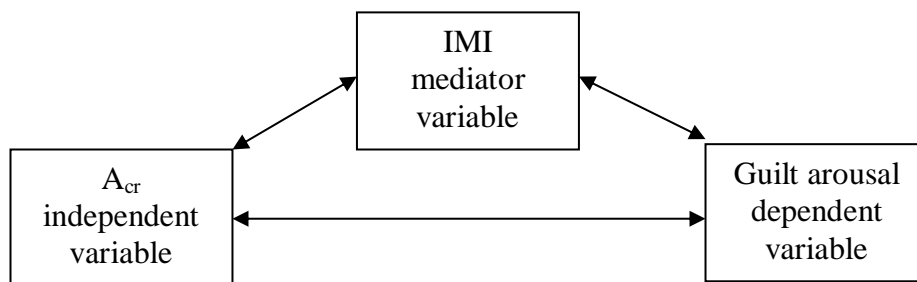


Table 6.4d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	AGA	.073	.005	.748	.456
A_{cr}	IMI	.473	.223	5.496	.000
IMI	AGA	.194	.038	2.030	.045
$A_{cr} + IMI$	AGA	.196	.038	1.888	.132

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

Mediation H12 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation was present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partial mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 2 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, H12 is accepted.

Diagram 6.4e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

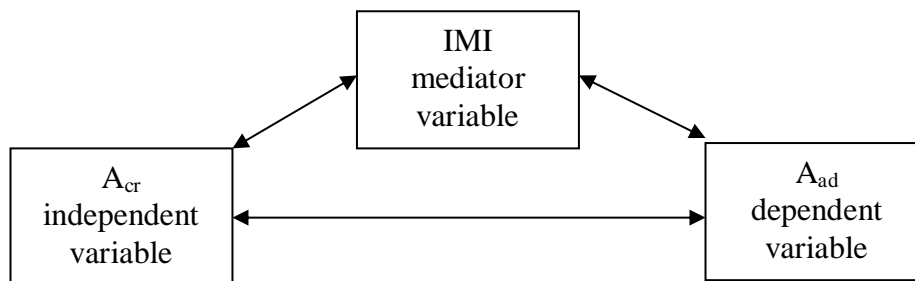


Table 6.4e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.566	.321	7.038	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.473	.223	5.496	.000
IMI	A_{ad}	.622	.387	8.137	.000
$A_{cr} + IMI$	A_{ad}	.694	.482	(4.377) + (5.697)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.064				
Test Statistics	4.533				
Sig.	.000				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad

Discussion of Results for Anticipatory Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

The results suggest anticipatory guilt appeals have limited effectiveness in non-durable product advertisements. However, high levels of cognitive processing were undertaken by consumers to process the guilt message. The cognitive process measured the influence of ad credibility and manipulative intent of the advertiser for advertising effectiveness. The results were reflective of past findings for cognitive processing (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986).

However, the findings indicate that attitude towards the advertisement could directly and indirectly evoke anticipatory guilt. Therefore, creating likable advertisements for anticipatory guilt appeal in a non-durable context is a possibility for advertisers. Additionally, the findings also suggest that consumers perceived the use of anticipatory guilt appeals in non-durable product advertisements as manipulative. Results indicate that when consumers view the advertisement as non-manipulative it will evoke more guilt. This was indicated by a significant relationship IMI and AGA. Further, IMI acted as a mediator of advertising response. Therefore, advertisements must be likeable, simple, and non-manipulative advertisements (e.g. low intensive guilt advertisements) in the non-durable context. These findings are supported by the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright 1994) that proposed that consumers are constantly learning about the advertiser's techniques and building their knowledge about the persuasion attempts by actively processing advertisements. In support of this argument researchers have proven this to be more of a concern for negative advertising appeals (Meline 1996; Scott 1994). In this scenario, consumers viewed that the advertiser is using an inappropriate method to endorse the sale of a luxury brand of chocolates. Further analysis of the product category shows that the product is low involvement and low risk as such consumers would prefer to process the information through peripheral route of processing due to the nature of the product (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). However, the advertiser is "forcing" consumers to process the information more analytically and as the result the consumers are unwilling to feel the intended emotion (e.g. guilt) that the advertiser is attempting to evoke. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

STUDY FIVE– ANTICIPATORY GUILT (DURABLE – TIFFANY & CO)

Profile of Respondents for Anticipatory Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

A total of 176 responses were collected, of which 163 responses were useable for the analysis. Responses were deleted due to missing cases or invalid responses. The respondents were mainly 20-22 years of age (52.1%), there were more females (52.8%) than males (47.2%) and most of the respondents were Australian citizens (43.6%). Further, most of the respondents were familiar with the Tiffany & Co brand ($M = 4.77, SD = 1.74$).

Hypothesis Testing for Anticipatory Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

The Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses. The initial model estimation showed that it did not approximate the data at an acceptable level ($\chi^2 = 474.002, df = 223, p = .000; RMSEA = .083; AGFI = .746; CFI = .875$). A number of areas were identified to improve the model. An examination of the modification indices indicated that to improve the model significantly it needed to disaggregate the IMI and AGA scales. Thus, re-specification of the model within theoretical justification was necessary. The modification indices show issues with the IMI and AGA guilt scale items. It suggested for the error variance to be correlated with a number of other items in the model. It shows that by partially disaggregating the IMI and AGA scale items it will substantially improve the model fit. The resulting model was substantially improved ($\chi^2 = 103.328, df = 82, p = 0.056; RMSEA = 0.040; AGFI = 0.891; CFI = 0.985$). This model was far better than the original model. Further, the key parameters suggest a good model fit thus the model was accepted. Figure 6.5a presents the hypothesised model while Figure 6.5b presents the structural model with the structural coefficients.

Figure 6.5a Hypothesised Model

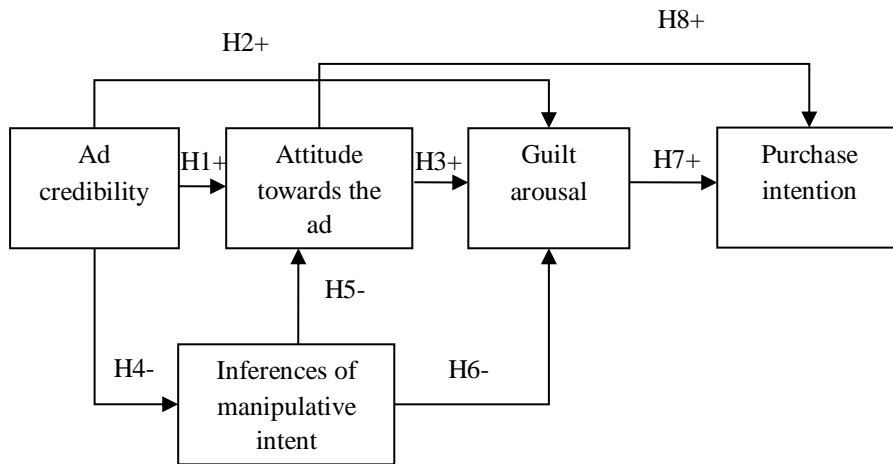
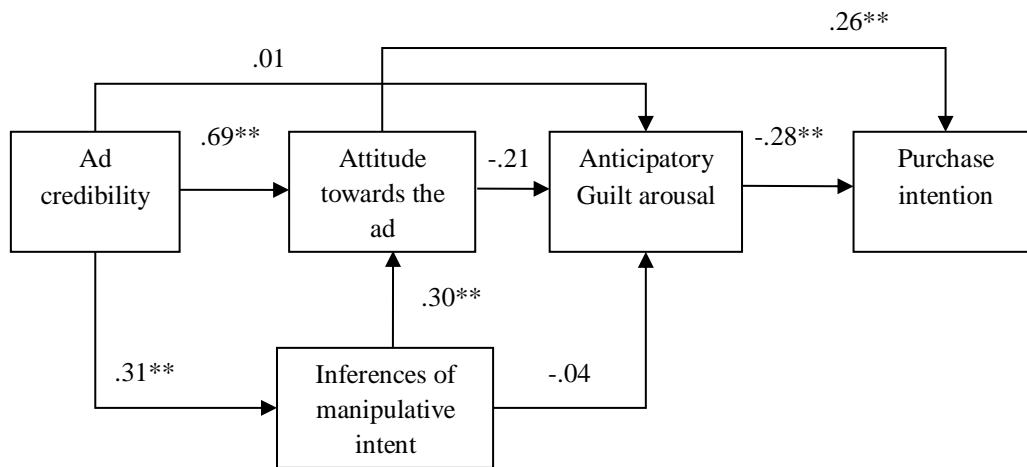


Figure 6.5b Structural Model for Anticipatory Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)



Key Results for H1-H8 for Study 5 - Anticipatory Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

Table 6.5a shows the key results for the model. The results confirm some findings from previous studies, for example, H1, H2, H4, H5 and H8 mirrored past findings. The following are some of the key findings:

- a) There is a positive and significant relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} , thus H_1 is accepted. The findings show consistency of the result between this study and earlier studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).
- b) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{cr} and AGA, hence H_2 was rejected. The results reflected the findings from Hibbert et al. (2007) who reported insignificant relationship between these two variables.
- c) An insignificant relationship was recorded between A_{ad} and AGA, hence H_3 was rejected. There is limited empirical support the existence of the relationship. Some scholars have suggested that there is a significant relationship between AGA to A_{ad} (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), however the literature does not show how favourable attitudes could influence the feeling of guilt. Thus, the findings provide a new contribution to understand the relationship between these two constructs.
- d) A significant relationship was reported between A_{cr} and IMI, hence H_4 was accepted. Results confirm that when consumers perceive the advertisement to be highly credible, they will view the advertisement as less manipulative. The results reinforce previous findings (Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- e) A significant relationship was reported between IMI and A_{ad} , hence H_5 was accepted. Results show that when consumers perceive the advertisement as non-manipulative, they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. The results also support findings from past studies (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005)
- f) An insignificant relationship was recorded between IMI and AGA, thus H_6 was rejected. The results contradict previous findings (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). There is limited literature that shows the relationship between IMI and AGA. The

results contradict previous findings in guilt under charitable donation context (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). The results suggest that IMI is perceived as extremely low for charitable advertisements thus it evokes the feeling of guilt. However, the relationship is not supported for durable products. It proposes that consumers perceive there is some level of manipulative intent from advertisers, thus consumers are unwilling to “feel” the way the advertisement is suggesting.

- g) A significant but negative relationship was found between AGA and PI, thus H7 was rejected. The existence of a negative relationship shows that when consumers feel more guilt they are less likely to purchase the product. Therefore, advertisers should be avoiding the use of anticipatory guilt for luxury durable products. The research contradicts results from preceding studies (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005). However, these studies explored the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt in a donation context. There is a strong suggestion that altruistic behaviour could enhance the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt for charitable advertisement (e.g. Hibbert and Horne 1996; Ranganathana and Henley 2008). However, the results from the study indicate otherwise and explain that anticipatory guilt is ineffective in a durable context.
- h) A significant relationship was found between A_{ad} and PI, thus H8 was accepted. The results support findings from existing research (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). The results provide further empirical support for the relationship and extend the understanding of anticipatory guilt appeals.

Table 6.5a Summary of Results for Anticipatory Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Durable (Tiffany & Co)	Conclusion
H1: A _{cr} → A _{ad}	0.69**	Accept
H2: A _{cr} → AGA	0.01	Reject
H3: A _{ad} → AGA	-0.21	Reject
H4: A _{cr} → IMI	0.31**	Accept
H5: IMI → A _{ad}	0.30**	Accept
H6: IMI → AGA	-0.04	Reject
H7: AGA → PI	-0.28**	Accept
H8: A _{ad} → PI	0.26**	Accept
Goodness of fit indices		
Chi ²	103.328	
DF	82	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.260	
P	0.056	
RMSEA	0.040	
AGFI	0.891	
CFI	0.985	
N	163	

Note

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index.

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, EGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Hypothesis Testing for H9-12 Anticipatory Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

Mediation H9 $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow AGA$

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and AGA is partially mediated by A_{ad} . Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results showed that the relationship between A_{cr} and AGA is partially mediated by A_{ad} , however the mediation indicates a negative relationship. Thus, H9 is rejected.

Diagram 6.5a Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

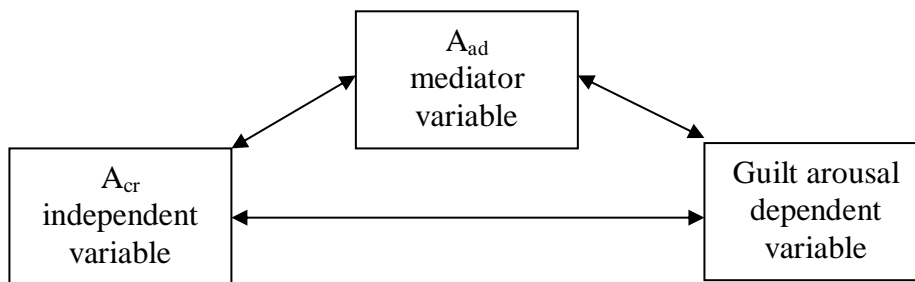


Table 6.5a Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	AGA	-.160	.026	-2.057	.041
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.713	.509	12.919	.000
A_{ad}	AGA	-.213	.045	-2.769	.006
$A_{cr} + A_{ad}$	AGA	-.213	.046	(-.148) + (-1.828)	.024
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.051				
Test Statistics	-2.705				
Sig.	.006				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

Mediation H10 IMI→A_{ad}→AGA

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 shows insignificant relationship. However, significant relationships were recorded for Steps 2 and 3. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest A_{ad} as a mediator between IMI and AGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, H10 is rejected.

Diagram 6.5c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

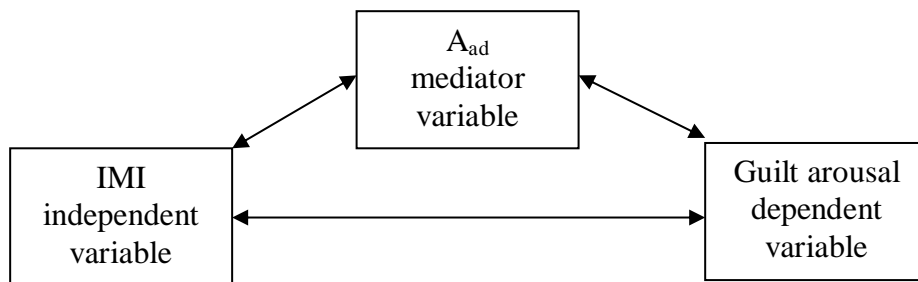


Table 6.5c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
IMI	AGA	-.140	.020	-1.796	.074
IMI	A _{ad}	.610	.372	9.771	.000
A _{ad}	AGA	-.213	.045	-2.768	.006
IMI + A _{ad}	AGA	-.213	.046	(-.165) + (-2.086)	.024

Note

IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

Mediation H11 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow AGA$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 3 shows an insignificant relationship. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Steps 2 and 3. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest IMI as a mediator between A_{cr} and AGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, hypothesis 11 is rejected.

Diagram 6.5d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

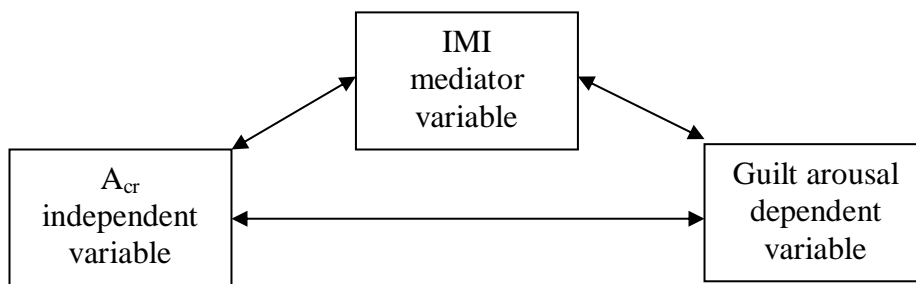


Table 6.5d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	AGA	-.160	.026	-2.057	.041
A_{cr}	IMI	.465	.216	6.661	.000
IMI	AGA	-.140	.020	-1.796	.074
$A_{cr} + IMI$	AGA	-.176	.031	(-1.378) + (-.954)	.080

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

Mediation H12 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation was present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partial mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 3 and Step 4 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Thus H12, is accepted.

Diagram 6.5e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

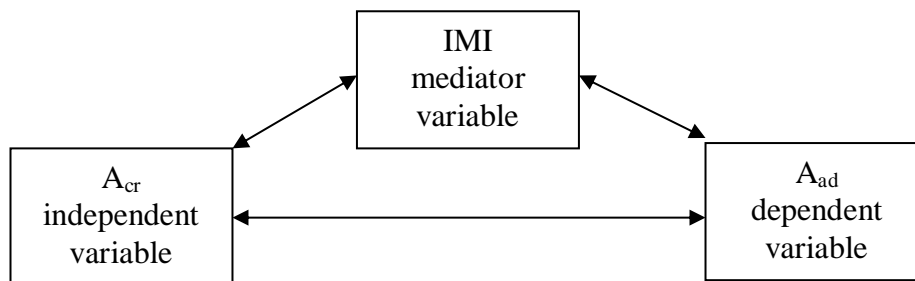


Table 6.5e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.713	.509	12.919	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.465	.216	6.661	.000
IMI	A_{ad}	.610	.372	9.771	.000
$A_{cr} + IMI$	A_{ad}	.780	.608	(9.808) + (6.355)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.049				
Test Statistics	5.478				
Sig.	.000				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad

Discussion of Results for Anticipatory Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

The results suggest anticipatory guilt appeals have **negative** effects in durable product advertisements. That is, there is a negative relationship between AGA and purchase intention. That is, when consumers see anticipatory guilt advertisement, higher levels of anticipatory guilt would reduce purchase intention of a luxury brand of jewellery. Thus, advertisers should be avoiding the anticipatory guilt appeals in this context. This could be explained due to consumers having the ability to avoid the feeling of guilt and they feel that advertisers are manipulating them to purchase the product.

However, high levels of cognitive processing were undertaken by consumers to process the anticipatory guilt message. The cognitive process measured the influence of ad credibility and manipulative intent of the advertiser for advertising effectiveness. The results were reflective of past findings for cognitive processing (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986).

Further, the findings indicate that attitude towards the advertisement could directly evoke purchase intention. In addition, findings indicate that attitude towards the advertisement could indirectly reduce the feeling of anticipatory guilt. That is favourable attitude towards the advertisement will indirectly reduce the feeling of anticipatory guilt. Thereby, it will reduce the negative effects of evoking anticipatory guilt as suggested earlier. Therefore, creating likable advertisements for anticipatory guilt appeal in a durable context is a better strategy for advertisers. Additionally, the findings also suggest that IMI has a direct and indirect relationship with attitude towards the advertisement. Therefore, it is also important for the advertisers to be perceived as credible and non-manipulative. The solution for advertisers is to construct advertisements that are likeable and non-manipulative (e.g. low intensive guilt advertisements). These findings are supported by the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright 1994) that proposed that consumers are constantly learning about the advertiser's techniques and building their knowledge about the persuasion attempts by actively processing advertisements. In support of this argument researchers have proven this to be more of a concern for negative advertising appeals (Meline 1996; Scott 1994). In this scenario, consumers viewed that the advertiser is using an inappropriate method to endorse the sale of a luxury brand of jewellery. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

STUDY SIX – ANTICIPATORY GUILT (SERVICE – CLUB MED)

Profile of Respondents for Anticipatory Guilt (service – Club Med)

A total of 128 responses were collected, of which 119 responses were useable for the analysis. Responses were deleted due to missing cases or invalid responses. The respondents were mainly 20-22 years of age (39.3%), there were more females (57.3%) than males (42.7%) and most of the respondents were Australian citizens (53.0%). Further, most of the respondents were familiar with the Club Med brand ($M = 4.39$, $SD = 1.22$).

Hypothesis Testing for Anticipatory Guilt (service – Club Med)

The Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses. The initial model estimation showed that it did not approximate the data at an acceptable level ($\chi^2 = 488.722$, $df = 223$, $p = .000$; $RMSEA = .100$; $AGFI = .677$; $CFI = .813$). A number of areas were identified to improve the model. An examination of the modification indices indicated that to improve the model significantly it needed to disaggregate the IMI and AGA scales. Thus, re-specification of the model within theoretical justification was necessary. The modification indices show issues with the IMI and AGA guilt scale items. It suggested for the error variance to be correlated with a number of other items in the model. It shows that by partially disaggregating the IMI and AGA scale items it will substantially improve the model fit. The resulting model was substantially improved ($\chi^2 = 61.632$, $df = 56$, $p = 0.282$; $RMSEA = 0.029$; $AGFI = 0.882$; $CFI = 0.992$). This model was far better than the original model. Further, the key parameters suggest a good model fit thus the model was accepted. Figure 6.6a presents the hypothesised model while Figure 6.6b presents the structural model with the structural coefficients.

Figure 6.6a Hypothesised Model

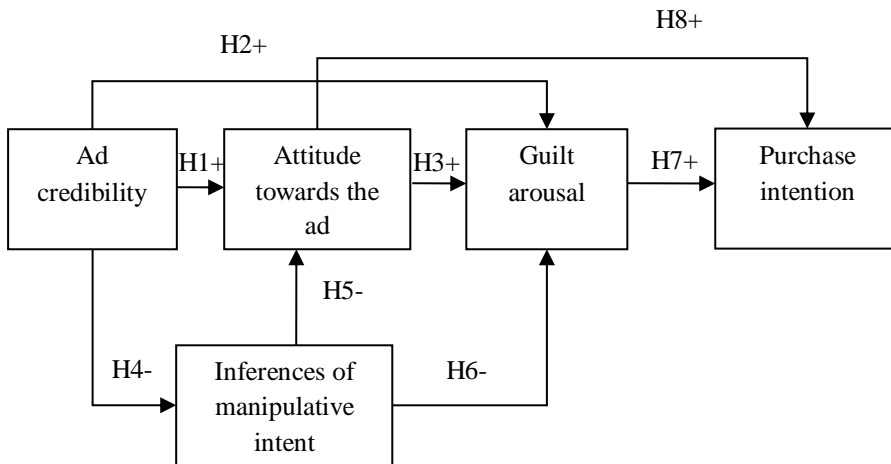
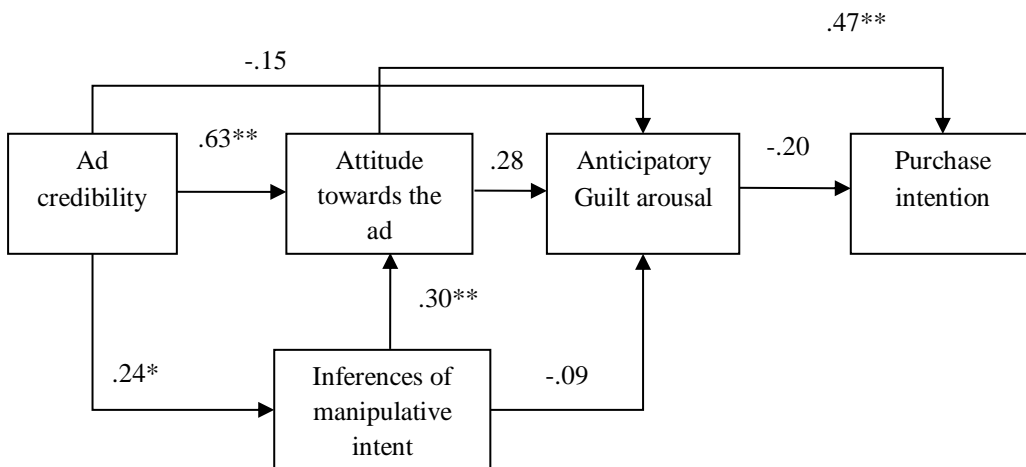


Figure 6.6b Structural Model for Anticipatory Guilt (service – Club Med)



Key Results for H1-H8 for Study 6 - Anticipatory Guilt (service – Club Med)

Table 6.6a shows the key results for the model. The results confirm some findings from previous studies, for example, H1, H2, H4, H5 and H8 mirrored past findings. The following are some of the key findings:

- a) There is a positive and significant relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} , thus H₁ is accepted. The findings show consistency of the result between this study and earlier studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).
- b) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{cr} and AGA, hence H2 was rejected. The results reflected the findings from Hibbert et al. (2007) who reported insignificant relationship between these two variables.
- c) An insignificant relationship was recorded between A_{ad} and AGA, hence H3 was rejected. There is limited empirical support the existence of the relationship. Some scholars have suggested that there is a significant relationship between AGA to A_{ad} (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), however the literature does not show how favourable attitudes could influence the feeling of guilt. Thus, the findings provide a new contribution to understand the relationship between these two constructs.
- d) A significant relationship was reported between A_{cr} and IMI, hence H4 was accepted. Results confirm that when consumers perceive the advertisement to be highly credible, they will view the advertisement as less manipulative. The results reinforce previous findings (Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- e) A significant relationship was reported between IMI and A_{ad} , hence H5 was accepted. Results show that when consumers perceive the advertisement as non-manipulative, they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. The results also support findings from past studies (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- f) An insignificant relationship was recorded between IMI and AGA, thus H6 was rejected. The results contradict previous findings (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). These studies explored the influence of guilt appeals in a charitable donation

context. The results suggest that IMI is perceived as extremely low for charitable advertisements thus it evokes the feeling of guilt. However, the relationship is not supported for service products. It proposes that consumers perceive there is some level of manipulative intent from advertisers, thus consumers are unwilling to “feel” the way the advertisement is suggesting.

- g) An insignificant relationship was found between AGA and PI, thus H7 was rejected. The research contradicts results from preceding studies (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). However, these studies explored the effectiveness of guilt appeals in a donation context. There is a strong suggestion that altruistic behaviour could enhance the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt for charitable advertisement (e.g. Hibbert and Horne 1996; Lindsey 2005; Ranganathana and Henley 2008). However, the results from the study indicate otherwise and explain that anticipatory guilt is ineffective in a non-durable context.
- h) A significant relationship was found between A_{ad} and PI, thus H8 was accepted. The results support findings from existing research (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). The results provide further empirical support for the relationship and extend the understanding of anticipatory guilt appeals.

Table 6.6a Summary of Results for Anticipatory Guilt (service – Club Med)

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Service (Club Med)	Conclusion
H1: A _{cr} → A _{ad}	0.63**	Accept
H2: A _{cr} → AGA	-0.15	Reject
H3: A _{ad} → AGA	0.28	Reject
H4: A _{cr} → IMI	0.24*	Accept
H5: IMI → A _{ad}	0.30**	Accept
H6: IMI → AGA	-0.09	Reject
H7: AGA → PI	-0.20	Reject
H8: A _{ad} → PI	0.47**	Accept
Goodness of fit indices		
Chi ²	61.632	
DF	56	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.101	
P	.282	
RMSEA	0.029	
AGFI	0.882	
CFI	0.992	
N	119	

Note

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index.

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Hypothesis Testing for H9-12 Anticipatory Guilt (service – Club Med)

Mediation H9 $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow AGA$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 and Step 3 shows insignificant relationships. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Step 2. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest A_{ad} as a mediator between A_{cr} and AGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, H9 is rejected.

Diagram 6.6b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

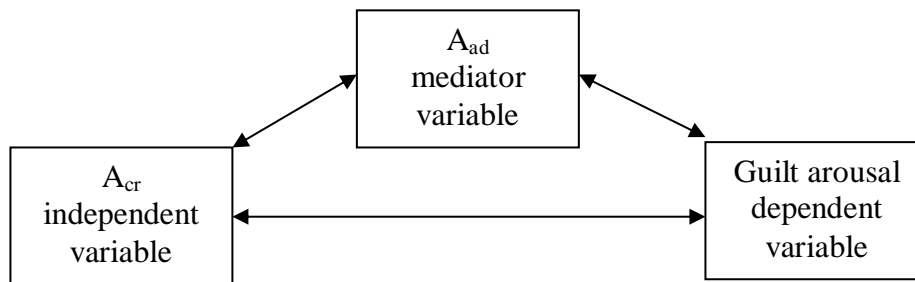


Table 6.6b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	AGA	-.118	.014	-.935	.353
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.567	.321	5.417	.000
A_{ad}	AGA	.113	.013	1.235	.219
$A_{cr} + A_{ad}$	AGA	.339	.115	(-2.305) + (2.643)	.024

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

Mediation H10 IMI→A_{ad}→AGA

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 and Step 3 shows insignificant relationships. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Step 2. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest A_{ad} as a mediator between IMI and AGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, H10 is rejected.

Diagram 6.6c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

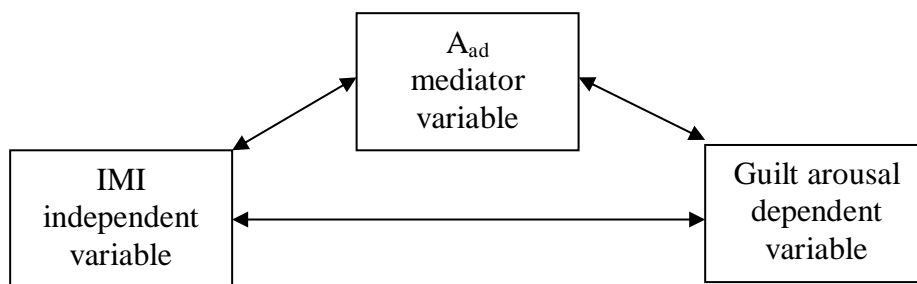


Table 6.6c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
IMI	AGA	.167	.028	1.828	.070
IMI	A _{ad}	.617	.380	8.471	.000
A _{ad}	AGA	.113	.013	1.235	.219
IMI + A _{ad}	AGA	.167	.028	(.149) + (1.342)	.193

Note

IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

Mediation H11 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow AGA$

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 and Step 3 shows insignificant relationships. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Step 2. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest IMI as a mediator between A_{cr} and AGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, H11 is rejected.

Diagram 6.6d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

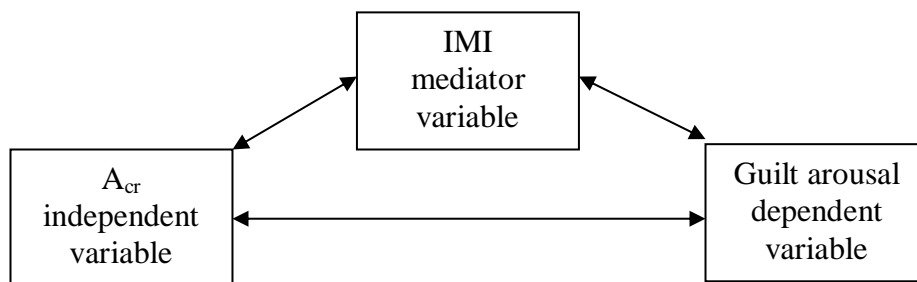


Table 6.6d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	AGA	-.118	.014	-.935	.353
A_{cr}	IMI	.300	.090	2.473	.016
IMI	AGA	.167	.028	1.828	.070
$A_{cr} + IMI$	AGA	.198	.039	(-1.278) + (1.271)	.294

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

Mediation H12 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation was present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partial mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, H12 is accepted.

Diagram 6.6e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

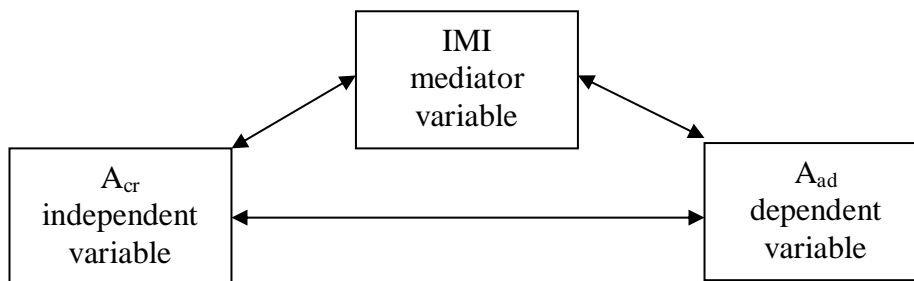


Table 6.6e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.567	.321	5.417	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.300	.090	2.473	.016
IMI	A_{ad}	.617	.380	8.471	.000
$A_{cr} + IMI$	A_{ad}	.719	.518	(4.587) + (4.984)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.095				
Test Statistics	2.366				
Sig.	.018				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad

Discussion of Results for Anticipatory Guilt (service – Club Med)

The results suggest anticipatory guilt appeals have limited effectiveness in service advertisements. However, high levels of cognitive processing were undertaken by consumers to process the anticipatory guilt message. The cognitive process measured the influence of ad credibility and manipulative intent of the advertiser for advertising effectiveness. The results were reflective of past findings for cognitive processing (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986).

The results show insignificant relationship between AGA and purchase intention, however advertisers can influence purchase intention through attitude towards the advertisement. That is, there is significant relationship between anticipatory guilt and purchase intention. Additionally, the findings indicate that attitude towards the advertisement could directly and indirectly effect purchase intention. Creating likable advertisements can influence attitude towards advertisement in three ways, (1) by direct relationship between attitude towards the advertisement and purchase intention, (2) by mediating the relationship between A_{cr} and AGA, and (3) by mediating the relationship between IMI and AGA. Therefore, creating likable advertisements for anticipatory guilt appeal in a service context is a possibility for advertisers.

Further, the results show that IMI is not as important as attitude towards the advertisement. IMI only mediated the relationships in H12, it can influence attitude towards the advertisement. This suggests that advertisers should focus more on creating likable advertisements for a luxury brand of holiday resorts. These findings are supported by the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright 1994) that proposed that consumers are constantly learning about the advertiser's techniques and building their knowledge about the persuasion attempts by actively processing advertisements. In support of this argument researchers have proven this to be more of a concern for negative advertising appeals (Meline 1996; Scott 1994). In this scenario, consumers viewed that the advertiser is using an inappropriate method to endorse service luxury brands. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

Summary of Results for Anticipatory Guilt for all Three Product Categories

The summary of the results for H1-H12 are provided in Table 6A2 and Table 6A3. The results show a similar pattern between the three categories. For example, the results for H1-5, H8, and H10-H12 were identical amongst the three products and most of the relationships confirmed existing theory. However, there were some differences, for example, the results for H6, H7 and H9 were unlike. In H6, IMI and AGA was significant for non-durable products and confirmed previous findings (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). However, the relationship was insignificant for durable and service products. This suggests that IMI is especially more important for non-durable products as it can reduce the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt appeals.

The second difference between the three categories is the results for H7, it indicates a **negative** and a significant relationship between anticipatory guilt arousal and purchase intention for durable products. This contradicted previous findings in donation context (e.g. Lindsey 2005), thus it clearly shows that advertisers should **avoid** this type of guilt for luxury durable products such as Tiffany & Co jewellery.

Thirdly, a difference was recorded for the results in H9. It shows that attitude towards the advertisement acts as a mediator between ad credibility and anticipatory guilt arousal for durable products. However, the mediating relationship was negative, therefore it further highlights the importance of attitude towards the advertisement. It shows that attitude towards the advertisement can reduce the feeling of anticipatory guilt arousal and in this scenario it has a positive effect on the effectiveness of the advertisement.

Overall the results confirm that anticipatory guilt appeals have limited effectiveness in the luxury brand context as it does not predict behaviour directly. However, the results do show that anticipatory guilt appeals can evoke purchase intention indirectly through attitude towards the advertisement with some limitations (e.g. durable products). Thus, advertisers should focus on creating 'likable' advertisements for anticipatory guilt appeals to be more effective. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

Table 6A2 Summary of Hypothesis 1-8 Testing for Anticipatory Guilt (Non-Durable, Durable, Service)

<i>Anticipatory Guilt Arousal</i>				
Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Non-durable (Ferrero Rocher)	Standardised Beta Durable (Tiffany & Co)	Standardised Beta Service (ClubMed)	Conclusion
H1: A _{cr} → A _{ad}	0.36*	0.69**	0.63**	Accept
H2: A _{cr} → AGA	-0.14	0.01	-0.15	Reject
H3: A _{ad} → AGA	-0.04	-0.21	0.28	Reject
H4: A _{cr} → IMI	0.55**	0.31**	0.24*	Accept
H5: IMI → A _{ad}	0.35*	0.30**	0.30**	Accept
H6: IMI → AGA	0.30**	-0.04	-0.09	Accept only for non-durable products
H7: AGA → PI	-0.01	-0.28**	-0.20	Reject
H8: A _{ad} → PI	0.47**	0.26**	0.47**	Accept
Goodness of fit indices				
Chi ²	72.211	103.328	61.632	
DF	57	82	56	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.267	1.260	1.101	
P	0.084	0.056	0.282	
RMSEA	0.059	0.040	0.029	
AGFI	0.829	0.891	0.882	
CFI	0.970	0.985	0.992	
N	107	163	119	

Note:

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index.

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Table 6A3 Summary of Hypothesis 9-12 Testing for Anticipatory Guilt (Non-Durable, Durable, Service)

<i>Anticipatory Guilt Arousal</i>				
Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Non-durable (Ferrero Rocher)	Standardised Beta Durable (Tiffany & Co)	Standardised Beta Service (ClubMed)	Conclusion
H9: A _{ad} Mediator A _{cr} → A _{ad} → AGA	.096	-.213*	.339	
H10: A _{ad} Mediator IMI → A _{ad} → AGA	.256	-.213	.167	
H11: IMI Mediator A _{cr} → IMI → AGA	.196	-.176	.198	
H12: IMI Mediator A _{cr} → IMI → A _{ad}	.694**	.780**	.719**	

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, AGA = anticipatory guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

PART FOUR

REACTIVE GUILT - ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This section will discuss the comparison of the effects of reactive guilt advertising stimulus on three different product categories (non-durable, durable and services). It begins with a discussion of the scale reliabilities of all measures used in the model. Next, Study 6-9 will be independently discussed in detail with each section showing the results of path analysis for H1-H8 and mediation analysis for H9-H12. A final summary of the findings, discussion and implications for all the three studies will conclude this section.

Scale Source and Reliabilities

Table 6R1 shows a summary of the scale reliabilities for all three studies (non-durable, durable and service product). The scales used in the studies are all unidimensional. All the scales have an acceptable range deemed usable by the literature (Cronbach and Meehl 1955).

**Table 6R1 Summary of Scale Reliability for Reactive Guilt
(Non-Durable, Durable, Service)**

Scale	No. Items	Reliability Measure (α)	Source
Ad Credibility (A_{cr})	3	.911 - .925	MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989; Cotte et al. 2005
Attitude towards the advertisement (A_{ad})	4	.911 - .949	MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989; Cotte et al. 2005
Inferences of manipulative intent (IMI)	6	.830 - .866	Campbell, 1995; Cotte et al. 2005
Reactive guilt arousal (RGA)	7	.807 - .885	Developed for the study
Purchase intentions (PI)	3	.818 - .897	Putrevu and Lord 1994; Coulter and Pinto, 1995

STUDY SEVEN – REACTIVE GUILT (NON-DURABLE – FERRERO ROCHER)

Profile of Respondents for Reactive Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

A total of 169 responses were collected, of which 157 responses were useable for the analysis. Responses were deleted due to missing cases or invalid responses. The respondents were mainly 20-22 years of age (52.9%), there were more females (54.8%) than males (45.2%) and most of the respondents were Australian citizens (40.1%). Further, most of the respondents were familiar with the Ferrero Rocher brand ($M = 5.85$, $SD = 1.32$).

Hypothesis Testing for Reactive Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

The Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses. The initial model estimation showed that it did not approximate the data at an acceptable level ($\chi^2 = 526.499$, $df = 223$, $p = .000$; $RMSEA = .093$; $AGFI = .717$; $CFI = .881$). A number of areas were identified to improve the model. An examination of the modification indices indicated that to improve the model significantly it needed to disaggregate the IMI and RGA scales. Thus, re-specification of the model within theoretical justification was necessary. The modification indices show issues with the IMI and RGA guilt scale items. It suggested for the error variance to be correlated with a number of other items in the model. It shows that by partially disaggregating the IMI and RGA scale items it will substantially improve the model fit. The resulting model was substantially improved ($\chi^2 = 111.808$, $df = 96$, $p = 0.129$; $RMSEA = 0.032$; $AGFI = 0.884$; $CFI = 0.992$). This model was far better than the original model. Further, the key parameters suggest a good model fit thus the model was accepted. Figure 6.7a presents the hypothesised model while Figure 6.7b presents the structural model with the structural coefficients.

Figure 6.7a Hypothesised Model

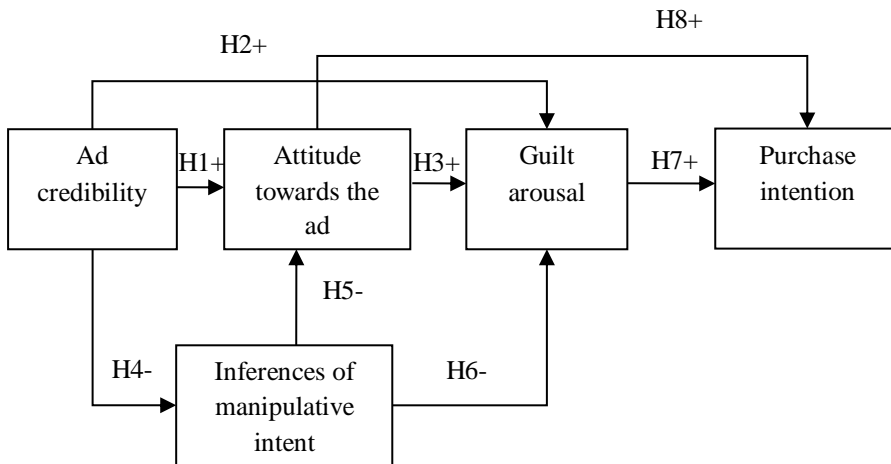
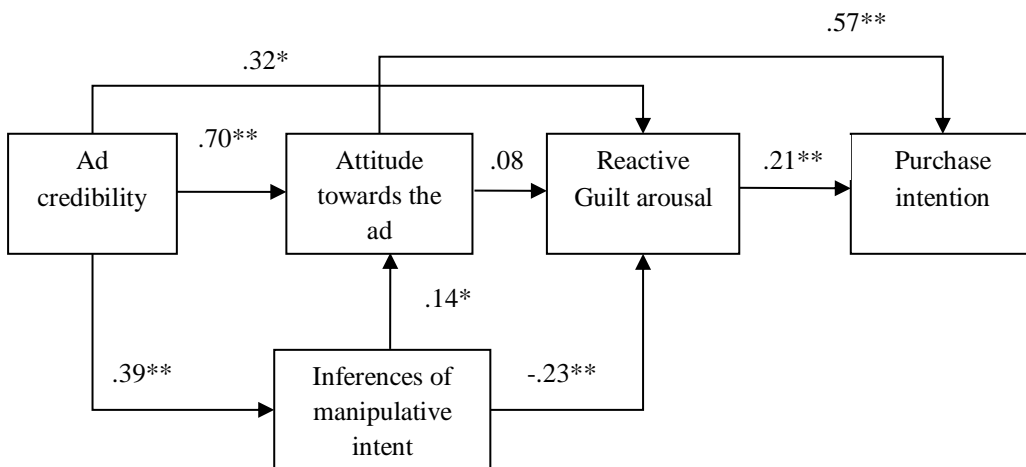


Figure 6.7b Structural Model for Reactive Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)



Key Results for H1-H8 for Study 7 - Reactive Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

Table 6.7a shows the key results for the model. The results confirm some findings from previous studies, for example, H1, H4, H5, H6, H7 and H8 mirrored past findings. The following are some of the key findings:

- a) There is a positive and significant relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} , thus H₁ is accepted. The findings show consistency of the result between this study and earlier studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).
- b) A significant relationship was found between A_{cr} and RGA, hence H2 was accepted. The results confirm the findings from donation research which reported significant relationship between these two variables (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). This suggests A_{cr} is a key variable for reactive guilt advertisement.
- c) An insignificant relationship was recorded between A_{ad} and RGA, hence H3 was rejected. There is limited empirical support the existence of the relationship. Some scholars have suggested that there is a significant relationship between RGA to A_{ad} (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), however the literature does not show how favourable attitudes could influence the feeling of guilt. Thus, the findings provide a new contribution to understand the relationship between these two constructs.
- d) A significant relationship was reported between A_{cr} and IMI, hence H4 was accepted. Results confirm that when consumers perceive the advertisement to be highly credible, they will view the advertisement as less manipulative. The results reinforce previous findings (Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- e) A significant relationship was reported between IMI and A_{ad} , hence H5 was accepted. Results show that when consumers perceive the advertisement as non-manipulative, they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. The results also support findings from past studies (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- f) A negative and a significant relationship was recorded between IMI and RGA, thus H6 was rejected. The results confirmed previous findings (Godek and Labarge 2006) and

suggest that low inferences of manipulative will evoke less reactive guilt. That is consumers will feel negative mood over the short term, and this will result in consumers inferring advertisers as being manipulative (Godek and Labarge 2006).

- g) A significant relationship was found between RGA and PI, thus H7 was accepted. The research supported results from preceding studies in other types of guilt appeals (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). However, the research did not support the findings from Godek and Labarge (2006) that suggested that reactive guilt appeals evoked a negative response. Therefore, it provides a contribution to the literature by identifying the effectiveness of reactive guilt in a new context.
- h) A significant relationship was found between A_{ad} and PI, thus H8 was accepted. The results support findings from existing research (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). The results provide further empirical support for the relationship and extend the understanding of reactive guilt appeals.

Table 6.7a Summary of Results for Reactive Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Non-durable (Ferrero Rocher)	Conclusion
H1: A _{cr} → A _{ad}	0.70**	Accept
H2: A _{cr} → RGA	0.32*	Accept
H3: A _{ad} → RGA	0.08	Reject
H4: A _{cr} → IMI	0.39**	Accept
H5: IMI → A _{ad}	0.14*	Accept
H6: IMI → RGA	-0.23*	Accept
H7: RGA → PI	0.21**	Accept
H8: A _{ad} → PI	0.57**	Accept
Goodness of fit indices		
Chi ²	111.808	
DF	96	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.165	
P	0.129	
RMSEA	0.032	
AGFI	0.884	
CFI	0.992	
N	157	

Note

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index.

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, RGA = reactive guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Hypothesis Testing for H9-12 Reactive Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

Mediation H9 $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow RGA$

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and RGA is partial mediated by A_{ad} . Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and RGA is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, hypothesis 9 is accepted.

Diagram 6.7b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

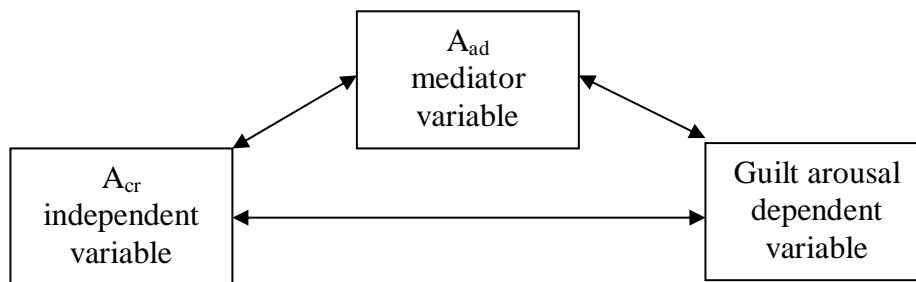


Table 6.7b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	RGA	.235	.078	3.009	.003
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.720	.487	10.081	.000
A_{ad}	RGA	.183	.050	2.383	.019
$A_{cr} + A_{ad}$	RGA	.282	.080	(1.838) + (.443)	.012
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.057				
Test Statistics	2.314				
Sig.	.021				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; RGA = reactive guilt arousal

Mediation H10 IMI→Aad→ RGA

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 shows an insignificant relationship. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Steps 2 and 3. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest A_{ad} as a mediator between IMI and RGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, hypothesis 10 is rejected.

Diagram 6.7c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

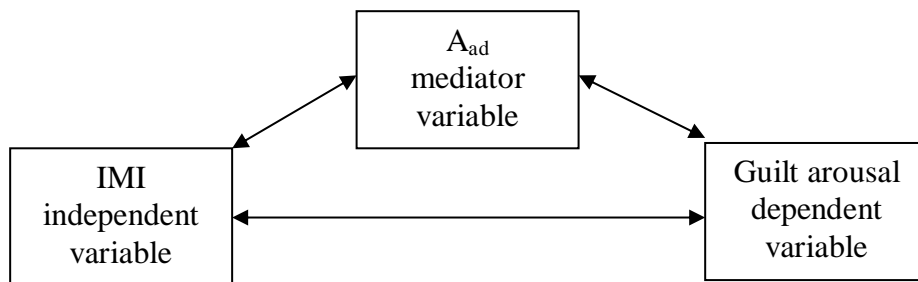


Table 6.7c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
IMI	RGA	.101	.010	1.048	.297
IMI	A _{ad}	.526	.277	6.402	.000
A _{ad}	RGA	.224	.050	2.383	.019
IMI + A _{ad}	RGA	.225	.051	(-.216) + (2.131)	.063

Note

IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; RGA = reactive guilt arousal

Mediation H11 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow RGA$

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 3 shows an insignificant relationship. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Steps 1 and 2. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest IMI as a mediator between A_{cr} and RGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, hypothesis 11 is rejected.

Diagram 6.7d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

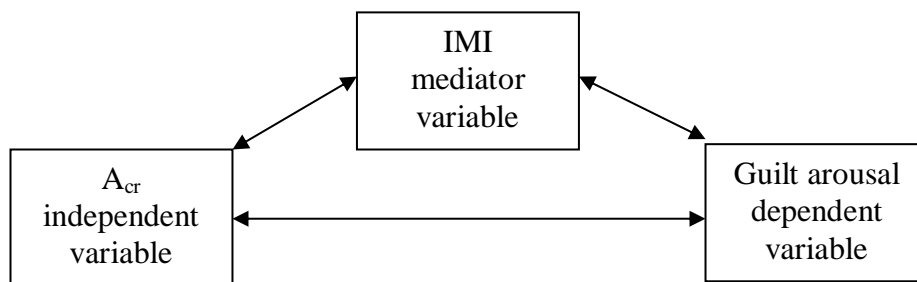


Table 6.7d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	RGA	.279	.078	3.009	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.475	.226	5.589	.000
IMI	RGA	.101	.010	1.048	.297
$A_{cr} + IMI$	RGA	.282	.079	(2.822) + (-.391)	.013

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; RGA = reactive guilt arousal

Mediation H12 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation was present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partial mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, hypothesis 12 is accepted.

Diagram 6.7e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

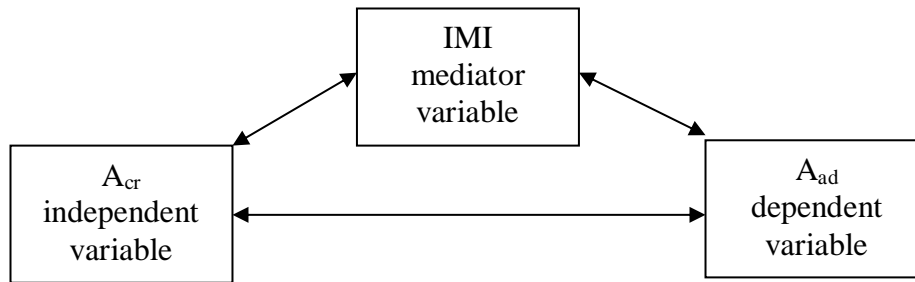


Table 6.7e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.698	.487	10.081	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.475	.226	5.589	.000
IMI	A_{ad}	.526	.277	6.402	.000
$A_{cr} + IMI$	A_{ad}	.732	.536	(7.692) + (3.341)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.061				
Test Statistics	4.209				
Sig.	.000				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad

Discussion of Results for Reactive Guilt (non-durable – Ferrero Rocher)

The results suggest reactive guilt appeals are **effectiveness** in non-durable product advertisements. That is, there is a significant relationship between RGA and purchase intention. Therefore, high levels of reactive guilt would produce higher purchase intention of a luxury brand of chocolates. Thus, advertisers should employ reactive guilt appeals in this context. Further, high levels of cognitive processing were undertaken by consumers to process a guilt message. The cognitive process measured the influence of ad credibility and manipulative intent of the advertiser for advertising effectiveness. The results were reflective of past findings for cognitive processing (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986).

Additionally, low levels of inferences of manipulative intent reduced the feeling of reactive guilt, this suggests that perception of manipulative intent is unavoidable for advertisers using reactive guilt. That is, the theory suggests in the short term, reactive guilt will put consumers in a negative mood (Godek and LaBarge 2006), therefore it will lead to consumers viewing advertisers as being manipulative. This is the risk that advertisers must take in executing reactive guilt appeals.

Further, the findings indicate that attitude towards the advertisement could directly and indirectly evoke reactive guilt. Therefore, creating likable advertisements is recommended for reactive guilt appeals in a non-durable context. Additionally, the findings also suggest that IMI can help enhance consumer's attitude towards the advertisement indirectly. This has been highlighted in the previous section. Therefore, non-durable advertisements must be likeable, simple, and non-manipulative advertisements (e.g. low intensive guilt advertisements) in the non-durable context. These findings are supported by the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright 1994) that proposed that consumers are constantly learning about the advertiser's techniques and building their knowledge about the persuasion attempts by actively processing advertisements. In support of this argument researchers have proven this to be more of a concern for negative advertising appeals (Meline 1996; Scott 1994). The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

STUDY EIGHT – REACTIVE GUILT (DURABLE – TIFFANY & CO)

Profile of Respondents for Reactive Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

A total of 186 responses were collected, of which 166 responses were useable for the analysis. Responses were deleted due to missing cases or invalid responses. The respondents were mainly 20-22 years of age (44.1%), there were more males (53.1%) than females (46.9%) and most of the respondents were Australian citizens (27.8%). Further, most of the respondents were familiar with the Tiffany & Co brand ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 1.86$).

Hypothesis Testing for Reactive Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

The Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses. The initial model estimation showed that it did not approximate the data at an acceptable level ($\chi^2 = 474.284$, $df = 223$, $p = .000$; $RMSEA = .083$; $AGFI = .752$; $CFI = .890$). A number of areas were identified to improve the model. An examination of the modification indices indicated that to improve the model significantly it needed to (1) disaggregate the IMI and RGA scales, and (2) to allow one direct relationship between IMI and PI. Thus, re-specification of the model within theoretical justification was necessary.

First, the modification indices show issues with the IMI and RGA guilt scale items. It suggested for the error variance to be correlated with a number of other items in the model. It shows that by partially disaggregating the IMI and RGA scale items it will substantially improve the model fit.

Second, the modification indices suggest adding a direct relationship between IMI and PI. Hibbert, Hogg, and Quinn (2005) suggested that there was direct relationship between IMI and behavioural intentions, thus it was possible to add the relationship to the model to increase the model fit. This approximates a correction for effects such as common method variance (Ryan, 1982). The resulting model was substantially improved ($\chi^2 = 87.067$, $df = 68$, $p = 0.059$, $RMSEA = 0.041$; $AGFI = 0.898$; $CFI = 0.986$). This model was far better than the original model. Further, the key parameters suggest a good model fit thus the model was accepted. Figure 6.8a presents the hypothesised model while Figure 6.8b presents the structural model with the structural coefficients.

Figure 6.8a Hypothesised Model

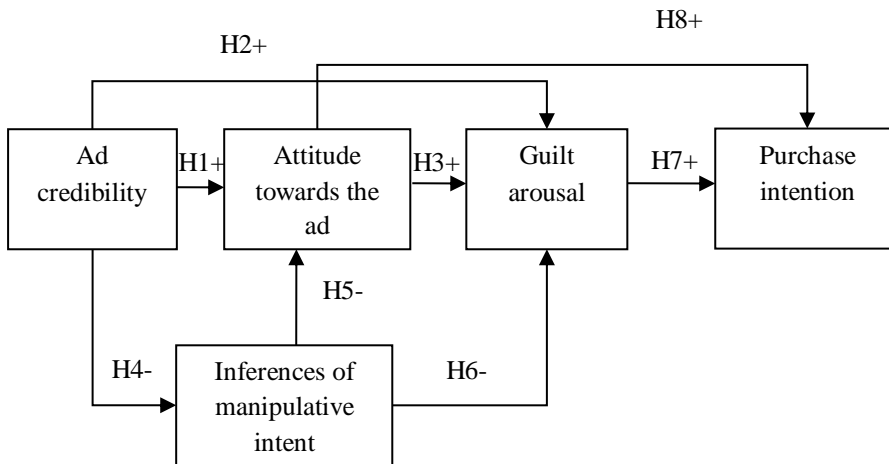
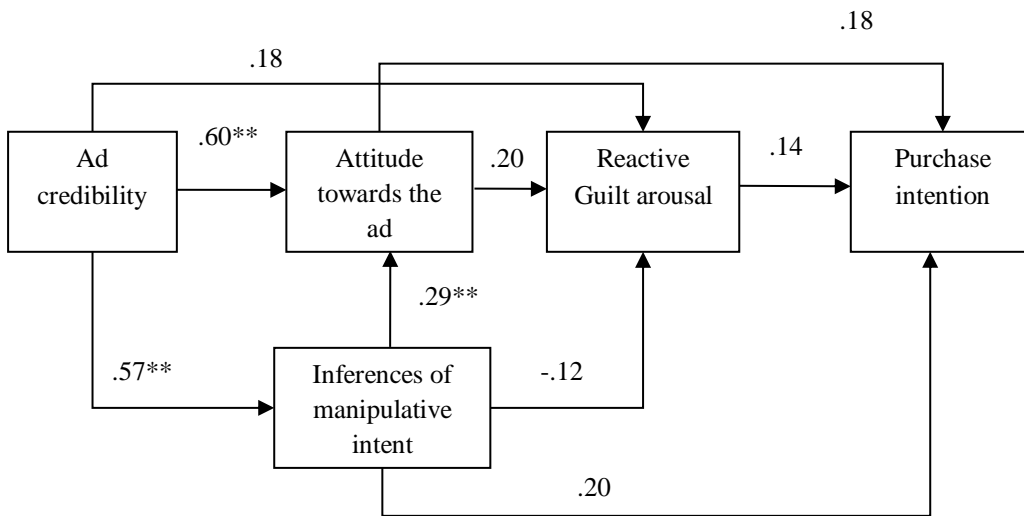


Figure 6.8b Structural Model for Reactive Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)



Key Results for H1-H8 for Study 8 - Reactive Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

Table 6.8a shows the key results for the model. The results confirm some findings from previous studies, for example, H1, H2, H4 and H5 mirrored past findings. The following are some of the key findings:

- a) There is a positive and significant relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} , thus H₁ is accepted. The findings show consistency of the result between this study and earlier studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).
- b) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{cr} and RGA, hence H₂ was rejected. The results reflected the findings from Hibbert et al. (2007) who reported insignificant relationship between these two variables.
- c) An insignificant relationship was recorded between A_{ad} and RGA, hence H₃ was rejected. There is limited empirical support the existence of the relationship. Some scholars have suggested that there is a significant relationship between RGA to A_{ad} (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), however the literature does not show how favourable attitudes could influence the feeling of guilt. Thus, the findings provide a new contribution to understand the relationship between these two constructs.
- d) A significant relationship was reported between A_{cr} and IMI, hence H₄ was accepted. Results confirm that when consumers perceive the advertisement to be highly credible, they will view the advertisement as less manipulative. The results reinforce previous findings (Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- e) A significant relationship was reported between IMI and A_{ad} , hence H₅ was accepted. Results show that when consumers perceive the advertisement as non-manipulative, they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. The results also support findings from past studies (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- f) An insignificant relationship was recorded between IMI and RGA, thus H₆ was rejected. The results contradict previous findings (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). These studies explored the influence of guilt appeals in a charitable donation

context. The results suggest that IMI is perceived as extremely low for charitable advertisements thus it evokes the feeling of guilt. However, the relationship is not supported for durable products. It proposes that consumers perceive there is some level of manipulative intent from advertisers, thus consumers are unwilling to “feel” the way the advertisement is suggesting.

- g) An insignificant relationship was found between RGA and PI, thus H7 was rejected. The research contradicts results from preceding studies (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). However, these studies explored the effectiveness of guilt in a donation context. Further, the research did not support the findings from Godek and Labarge (2006) that suggested that reactive guilt appeals evoked a negative response. The results from the study indicate that reactive guilt is ineffective in a durable context.
- h) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{ad} and PI, thus H8 was rejected. The results do not support findings from existing research (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). As suggested earlier, consumers generally respond negatively to reactive guilt appeals, thus this may have influenced the results. Further, consumers may perceive that there is some manipulative intent in the use of reactive guilt appeals for durable product advertisements. This could help explain why consumers are unwilling to accept the advertisement favourably and thus unwilling to commit to a purchase decision.

Table 6.8a Summary of Results for Reactive Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta durable (Tiffany & Co)	Conclusion
H1: A _{cr} → A _{ad}	0.60**	Accept
H2: A _{cr} → RGA	0.18	Reject
H3: A _{ad} → RGA	0.20	Reject
H4: A _{cr} → IMI	0.57**	Accept
H5: IMI → A _{ad}	0.29**	Accept
H6: IMI → RGA	-0.12	Reject
H7: RGA → PI	0.14	Reject
H8: A _{ad} → PI	0.18	Reject
Goodness of fit indices		
Chi ²	87.067	
DF	68	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.280	
P	0.059	
RMSEA	0.041	
AGFI	0.898	
CFI	0.986	
N	166	

Note

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index.

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, RGA = reactive guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Hypothesis Testing for H9-12 Reactive Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

Mediation H9 $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow RGA$

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and RGA is partial mediated by A_{ad} . Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and RGA is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, hypothesis 9 is accepted.

Diagram 6.8b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

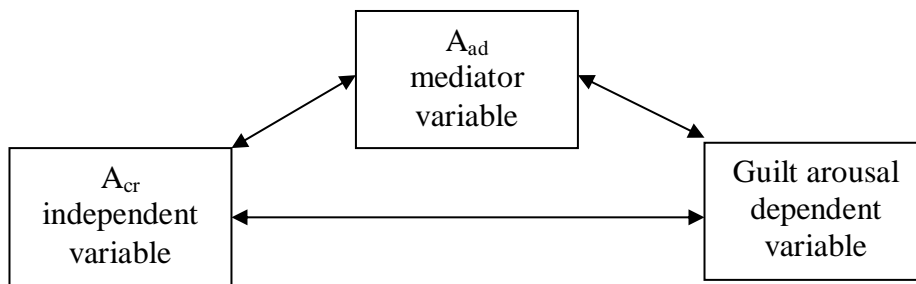


Table 6.8b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	RGA	.202	.041	2.641	.009
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.699	.488	12.503	.000
A_{ad}	RGA	.187	.035	2.438	.016
$A_{cr} + A_{ad}$	RGA	.212	.045	(1.303) + (.838)	.024
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.046				
Test Statistics	2.382				
Sig.	.017				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; RGA = reactive guilt arousal

Mediation H10 IMI → A_{ad} → RGA

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 shows an insignificant relationship. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Steps 2 and 3. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest A_{ad} as a mediator between IMI and RGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, hypothesis 10 is rejected.

Diagram 6.8c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

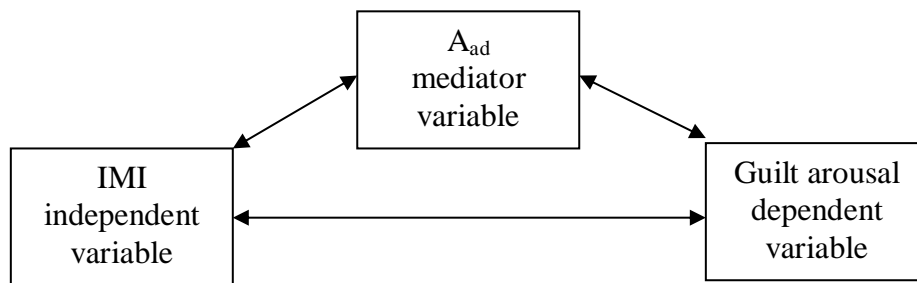


Table 6.8c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
IMI	RGA	.083	.007	1.061	.290
IMI	A _{ad}	.693	.480	12.304	.000
A _{ad}	RGA	.187	.035	2.438	.016
IMI + A _{ad}	RGA	.198	.039	(-.849) + (2.344)	.038

Note

IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; RGA = reactive guilt arousal

Mediation H11 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow RGA$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 3 shows an insignificant relationship. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Steps 1 and 2. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest IMI as a mediator between A_{cr} and RGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, hypothesis 11 is rejected.

Diagram 6.8d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

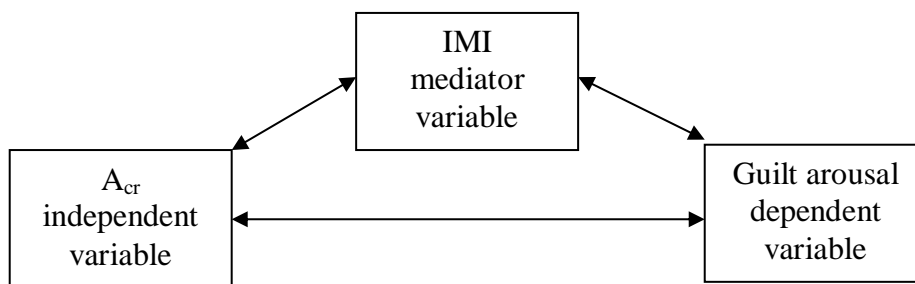


Table 6.8d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	RGA	.202	.041	2.641	.009
A_{cr}	IMI	.508	.258	7.561	.000
IMI	RGA	.083	.007	1.061	.290
$A_{cr} + IMI$	RGA	.203	.041	(2.423) + (-.305)	.032

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; RGA = reactive guilt arousal

Mediation H12 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation was present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partial mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, hypothesis 12 is accepted.

Diagram 6.8e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

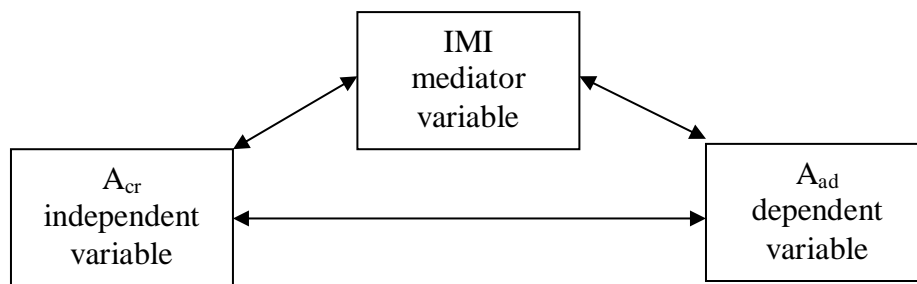


Table 6.8e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.699	.488	12.503	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.508	.258	7.561	.000
IMI	A_{ad}	.693	.480	12.304	.000
$A_{cr} + IMI$	A_{ad}	.801	.642	(8.579) + (8.364)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.052				
Test Statistics	6.417				
Sig.	.000				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad

Discussion of Results for Reactive Guilt (durable – Tiffany & Co)

The results suggest reactive guilt appeals have limited effectiveness in durable product advertisements. However, high levels of cognitive processing were undertaken by consumers to process the reactive guilt message. The cognitive process measured the influence of ad credibility and manipulative intent of the advertiser for advertising effectiveness. The results were reflective of past findings for cognitive processing (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986). However, the relationship between ad credibility and reactive guilt arousal is insignificant. This shows that ad credibility is not as important for durable products compared to non-durable products.

Additionally, the findings indicate that attitude towards the advertisement could indirectly effect reactive guilt. Therefore, creating likable advertisements for reactive guilt appeal in a durable context is a possibility for advertisers. However, lack of a significant relationship between attitude towards the advertisement and purchase intention suggests advertisers should avoid the use of reactive guilt appeals in durable products.

Further, the results show IMI mediated the relationship between ad credibility and attitude towards the advertisement. Therefore, attitude towards the advertisement could be enhanced by controlling for the IMI construct. This further suggests that advertisers should focus more on creating likable advertisements for a luxury brand of jewellers. These findings are supported by the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright 1994) that proposed that consumers are constantly learning about the advertiser's techniques and building their knowledge about the persuasion attempts by actively processing advertisements. In support of this argument researchers have proven this to be more of a concern for negative advertising appeals (Meline 1996; Scott 1994). In this scenario, consumers viewed that the advertiser is using an inappropriate method to endorse durable luxury brands. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

STUDY NINE – REACTIVE GUILT (SERVICE – CLUB MED)

Profile of Respondents for Reactive Guilt (service – Club Med)

A total of 254 responses were collected, of which 171 responses were useable for the analysis. Responses were deleted due to missing cases or invalid responses. The respondents were mainly 20-22 years of age (56.0%), there were more females (55.4%) than males (44.6%) and most of the respondents were Australian citizens (36.3%). Further, most of the respondents were familiar with the Club Med brand ($M = 4.37$, $SD = 1.28$).

Hypothesis Testing for Reactive Guilt (service – Club Med)

The Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses. The initial model estimation showed that it did not approximate the data at an acceptable level ($\chi^2 = 440.867$, $df = 222$, $p = .000$; $RMSEA = .076$; $AGFI = .754$; $CFI = .912$). A number of areas were identified to improve the model. An examination of the modification indices indicated that to improve the model significantly it needed to (1) disaggregate the IMI and RGA scales, and (2) to allow one direct relationship between IMI and PI. Thus, re-specification of the model within theoretical justification was necessary.

First, the modification indices show issues with the IMI and RGA guilt scale items. It suggested for the error variance to be correlated with a number of other items in the model. It shows that by partially disaggregating the IMI and RGA scale items it will substantially improve the model fit.

Second, the modification indices suggest adding a direct relationship between IMI and PI. Hibbert, Hogg, and Quinn (2005) suggested that there was direct relationship between IMI and behavioural intentions, thus it was possible to add the relationship to the model to increase the model fit. This approximates a correction for effects such as common method variance (Ryan, 1982). The resulting model was substantially improved ($\chi^2 = 101.707$, $df = 80$, $p = 0.051$, $RMSEA = 0.040$; $AGFI = 0.895$; $CFI = 0.981$). This model was far better than the original model. Further, the key parameters suggest a good model fit thus the model was

accepted. Figure 6.9a presents the hypothesised model while Figure 6.9b presents the structural model with the structural coefficients.

Figure 6.9a Hypothesised Model

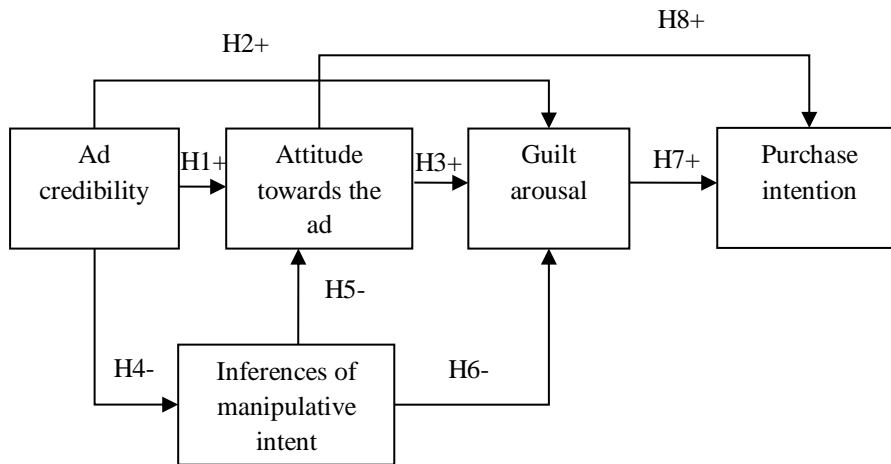
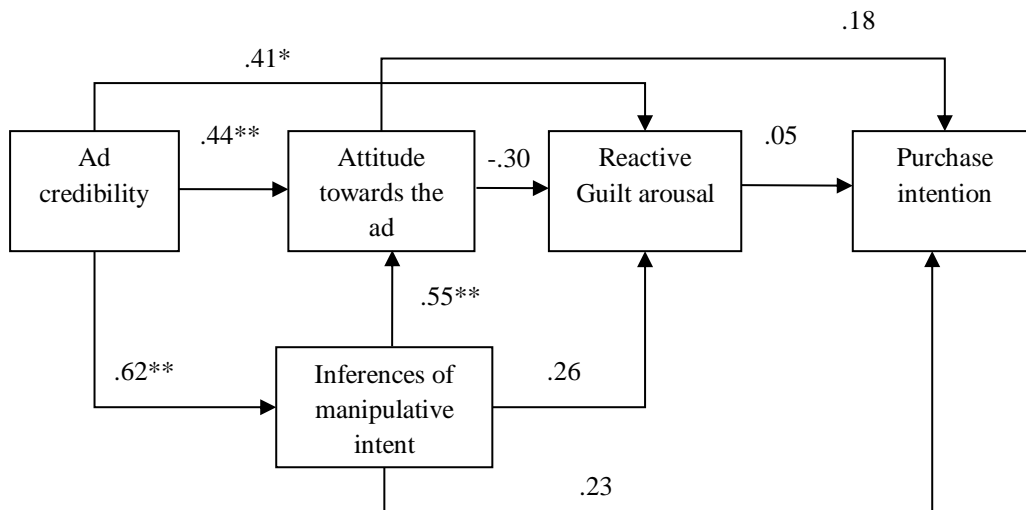


Figure 6.9b Structural Model for Reactive Guilt (service – Club Med)



Key Results for H1-H8 for Study 9 - Reactive Guilt (service – Club Med)

Table 6.9a shows the key results for the model. The results confirm some findings from previous studies, for example, H1, H2, H4 and H5 mirrored past findings. The following are some of the key findings:

- a) There is a positive and significant relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} , thus H₁ is accepted. The findings show consistency of the result between this study and earlier studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989).
- b) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{cr} and RGA, hence H₂ was rejected. The results reflected the findings from Hibbert et al. (2007) who reported insignificant relationship between these two variables.
- c) An insignificant relationship was recorded between A_{ad} and RGA, hence H₃ was rejected. There is limited empirical support the existence of the relationship. Some scholars have suggested that there is a significant relationship between RGA to A_{ad} (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005), however the literature does not show how favourable attitudes could influence the feeling of guilt. Thus, the findings provide a new contribution to understand the relationship between these two constructs.
- d) A significant relationship was reported between A_{cr} and IMI, hence H₄ was accepted. Results confirm that when consumers perceive the advertisement to be highly credible, they will view the advertisement as less manipulative. The results reinforce previous findings (Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- e) A significant relationship was reported between IMI and A_{ad} , hence H₅ was accepted. Results show that when consumers perceive the advertisement as non-manipulative, they will have a positive attitude towards the advertisement. The results also support findings from past studies (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005).
- f) An insignificant relationship was recorded between IMI and RGA, thus H₆ was rejected. The results contradict previous findings (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). These studies explored the influence of guilt appeals in a charitable donation

context. The results suggest that IMI is perceived as extremely low for charitable advertisements thus it evokes the feeling of guilt. However, the relationship is not supported for service products. It proposes that consumers perceive there is some level of manipulative intent from advertisers, thus consumers are unwilling to “feel” the way the advertisement is suggesting.

- g) An insignificant relationship was found between RGA and PI, thus H7 was rejected. The research contradicts results from preceding studies (e.g. Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Chang 2011; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). However, these studies explored the effectiveness of guilt in a donation context. Further, the research did not support the findings from Godek and Labarge (2006) that suggested that reactive guilt appeals evoked a negative response. The results from the study indicate that reactive guilt is ineffective in a service product context.
- h) An insignificant relationship was found between A_{ad} and PI, thus H8 was rejected. The results do not support findings from existing research (e.g. Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). As suggested earlier, consumers generally respond negatively to reactive guilt appeals, thus this may have influenced the results. Further, consumers may perceive that there is some manipulative intent in the use of reactive guilt appeals for service product advertisements. This could help explain why consumers are unwilling to accept the advertisement favourably and thus unwilling to commit to a purchase decision.

Table 6.9a Summary of Results for Reactive Guilt (service – Club Med)

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Service (Club Med)	Conclusion
H1: A _{cr} → A _{ad}	0.44**	Accept
H2: A _{cr} → RGA	0.41*	Accept
H3: A _{ad} → RGA	-0.30	Reject
H4: A _{cr} → IMI	0.62**	Accept
H5: IMI → A _{ad}	0.55**	Accept
H6: IMI → RGA	0.26	Reject
H7: RGA → PI	0.05	Reject
H8: A _{ad} → PI	0.18	Reject
Goodness of fit indices		
Chi ²	101.707	
DF	80	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.271	
P	0.051	
RMSEA	0.040	
AGFI	0.895	
CFI	0.981	
N	171	

Note

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index.

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, RGA = reactive guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Hypothesis Testing for H9-12 Reactive Guilt (service – Club Med)

Mediation H9 $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow RGA$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation is present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and RGA is partial mediated by A_{ad} . Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and RGA is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, H9 is accepted.

Diagram 6.9b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

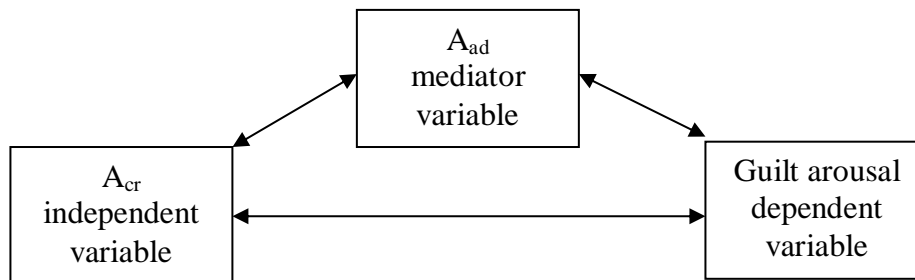


Table 6.9b Mediation H9 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	RGA	.257	.066	3.450	.001
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.770	.593	15.677	.000
A_{ad}	RGA	.188	.035	2.493	.014
$A_{cr} + A_{ad}$	RGA	.257	.066	(2.344) + (-.192)	.003
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.048				
Test Statistics	2.446				
Sig.	.014				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; RGA = reactive guilt arousal

Mediation H10 IMI→A_{ad}→ RGA

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 shows an insignificant relationship. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Steps 2 and 3. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest A_{ad} as a mediator between IMI and RGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, H10 is rejected.

Diagram 6.9c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

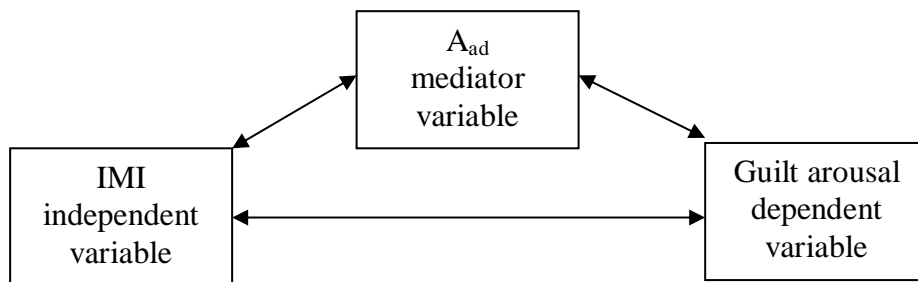


Table 6.9c Mediation H10 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
IMI	RGA	.120	.014	1.553	.122
IMI	A _{ad}	.773	.424	11.157	.000
A _{ad}	RGA	.188	.035	2.493	.014
IMI + A _{ad}	RGA	.188	.035	(-.071) + (1.932)	.048

Note

IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad; RGA = reactive guilt arousal

Mediation H11 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow RGA$

Baron and Kenny’s (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 3 shows an insignificant relationship. However, a significant relationship was recorded for Steps 1 and 2. The results show insufficient evidence to suggest IMI as a mediator between A_{cr} and RGA. Therefore, the results from Step 4 are immaterial and further analysis is not required. Thus, hypothesis 11 is rejected.

Diagram 6.9d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

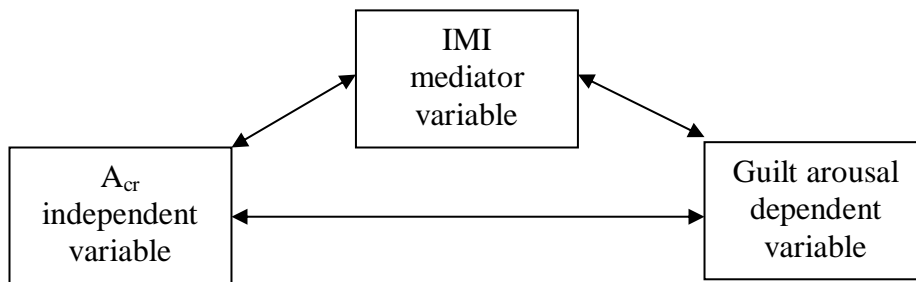


Table 6.9d Mediation H11 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	RGA	.257	.066	3.450	.001
A_{cr}	IMI	.518	.268	7.866	.000
IMI	RGA	.119	.014	1.553	.122
$A_{cr} + IMI$	RGA	.257	.066	(3.059) + (-.223)	.003

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; RGA = reactive guilt arousal

Mediation H12 $A_{cr} \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow A_{ad}$

Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step method for mediation analysis was performed. The regression analysis from Step 1 to Step 3 shows a significant relationship, this suggests mediation was present. Regression analysis for Step 4 suggests the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partial mediated by IMI. Therefore, further analysis was necessary, and the Sobel test was used to confirm the mediating relationship. To conduct the Sobel test the regression coefficients and standard errors from Step 2 and Step 3 were used. The results confirmed that the relationship between A_{cr} and A_{ad} is partially mediated by IMI. Thus, hypothesis is accepted.

Diagram 6.9e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

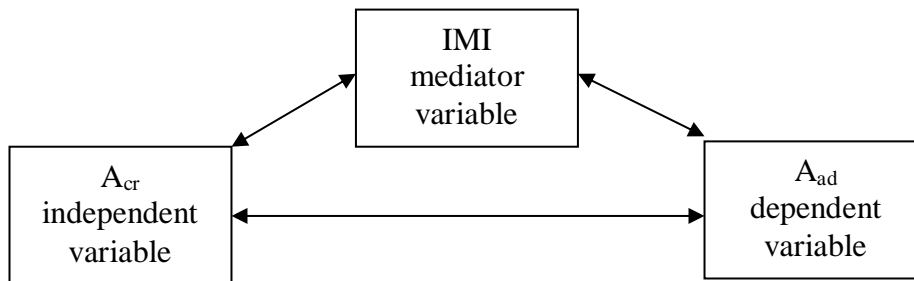


Table 6.9e Mediation H12 (Step 1- 4)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R²	t-Value	Sig.
A_{cr}	A_{ad}	.770	.593	15.677	.000
A_{cr}	IMI	.518	.268	7.866	.000
IMI	A_{ad}	.651	.424	11.157	.000
$A_{cr} + IMI$	A_{ad}	.825	.676	(11.583) + (6.767)	.000
Sobel Test					
Std. Error	.050				
Test Statistics	6.428				
Sig.	.000				

Note

A_{cr} = ad credibility; IMI = inferences of manipulative intent; A_{ad} = attitude towards the ad

Discussion of Results for Reactive Guilt (service – Club Med)

The results suggest reactive guilt appeals have limited effectiveness in service product advertisements. However, high levels of cognitive processing were undertaken by consumers to process the reactive guilt message. The cognitive process measured the influence of ad credibility and manipulative intent of the advertiser for advertising effectiveness. The results were reflective of past findings for cognitive processing (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986).

Additionally, the findings indicate that attitude towards the advertisement could indirectly influence reactive guilt. Therefore, creating likable advertisements for reactive guilt appeal in a service context is a possibility for advertisers. However, lack of a significant relationship between attitude towards the advertisement and purchase intention suggests advertisers should avoid the use of reactive guilt appeals in service products.

Further, the results show IMI mediated the relationship between ad credibility and attitude towards the advertisement. Therefore, attitude towards the advertisement could be enhanced by controlling for the IMI construct. This further suggests that advertisers should focus more on creating likable advertisements for a luxury brand of jewellers. These findings are supported by the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright 1994) that proposed that consumers are constantly learning about the advertiser's techniques and building their knowledge about the persuasion attempts by actively processing advertisements. In support of this argument researchers have proven this to be more of a concern for negative advertising appeals (Meline 1996; Scott 1994). In this scenario, consumers viewed that the advertiser is using an inappropriate method to endorse service luxury brands. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

Summary of Results for Reactive Guilt for all Three Product Categories

The summary of the results for H1-H12 are provided in Table 6R2 and Table 6R3. The results show a similar pattern between the three categories. For example, the results for H1, H3-5, and H9-H12 were identical amongst the three products and most of the relationships confirmed existing theory. However, there were some differences, for example, the results for H2 and H6-8 were unlike. In H2, an insignificant relationship between ad credibility and reactive guilt arousal was reported for durable products. In comparison to other products, this suggests that A_{cr} is not as important in evoking reactive guilt for durable products.

The second difference between the three categories is shown in the results for H6, it indicates a **negative** and a significant relationship between reactive guilt arousal and purchase intention only for non-durable products. This is a major cost of using reactive guilt appeals for non-durable products. It suggests that perception of manipulative intent is unavoidable for advertisers using reactive guilt. This concept confirms findings from (Godek and LaBarge 2006) and shows that when consumers are put in a negative mood they will respond negatively.

Thirdly, a difference was recorded for the results in H7. It shows that reactive guilt arousal can predict purchase intention. That suggests that consumers may feel short term negative mood, however they are willing to remove that feeling through a purchase. This is a significant finding as it contradicts previous beliefs that reactive guilt only evoked negative reactions (Godek and LaBarge 2006). It shows that negative feelings can create a favourable behaviour. One of the reasons why this could be the case is because a luxury brand of chocolates are relatively cheap (\$10), therefore it is easy and low risk to reduce the negative feelings. Hence, the relationship was positive only in non-durable product advertisements. This relationship was further supported by the findings in H8, which showed a positive relationship between A_{ad} and PI only for the non-durable category.

Overall the results confirm that reactive guilt appeals have limited effectiveness in the luxury brand context as it does not predict behaviour directly. However, the results do show that reactive guilt appeals can evoke purchase intention indirectly through attitude towards the advertisement with some limitations (e.g. durable products). Thus, advertisers should focus on creating 'likable' advertisements for reactive guilt appeals to be more effective. The implications of these findings are further discussed in Chapter 7.

**Table 6R2 Summary of Hypothesis 1-8 Testing for Reactive Guilt
(Non-Durable, Durable, Service)**

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Non-durable (Ferrero Rocher)	Standardised Beta Durable (Tiffany & Co)	Standardised Beta Service (Club Med)	Conclusion
H1: A _{cr} → A _{ad}	0.70**	0.60**	0.44**	Accept
H2: A _{cr} → RGA	0.32*	0.18	0.41*	Accept only for non-durable and service products
H3: A _{ad} → RGA	0.08	0.20	-0.30	Reject
H4: A _{cr} → IMI	0.39**	0.57**	0.62**	Accept
H5: IMI → A _{ad}	0.14*	0.29**	0.55**	Accept
H6: IMI → RGA	-0.23*	-0.12	0.26	Reject
H7: RGA → PI	0.21**	0.14	0.05	Accept only for non-durable products
H8: A _{ad} → PI	0.57**	0.18	0.18	Accept only for non-durable products
Goodness of fit indices				
Chi ²	111.808	87.067	101.707	
DF	96	68	80	
Ratio Chi ² /DF	1.165	1.280	1.271	
P	0.129	0.059	0.051	
RMSEA	0.032	0.041	0.040	
AGFI	0.884	0.898	0.895	
CFI	0.992	0.986	0.981	
N	157	166	171	

Note:

Chi² = Chi square; DF = degree of freedom; P = significance; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = comparative fit index. Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, RGA = reactive guilt arousal
p* ≤ 0.05, *p* ≤ 0.01

**Table 6R3 Summary of Hypothesis 9-12 Testing for Reactive Guilt
(Non-Durable, Durable, Service)**

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta Non-durable (Ferrero Rocher)	Standardised Beta Durable (Tiffany & Co)	Standardised Beta Service (ClubMed)	Conclusion
H9: A _{ad} Mediator A _{cr} → A _{ad} → RGA	.282*	.212*	.257**	Accept
H10: A _{ad} Mediator IMI → A _{ad} → RGA	.225	.198	.188	Reject
H11: IMI Mediator A _{cr} → IMI → RGA	.282	.203	.257	Reject
H12: IMI Mediator A _{cr} → IMI → A _{ad}	.732**	.801**	.825**	Accept

Acr = ad credibility, Aad = attitude towards the ad, IMI = inferences of manipulative intent, RGA = reactive guilt arousal

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

PART FIVE

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The analysis of results in this chapter clearly shows a considerable amount of empirical evidence to treat each type of guilt appeals independently (existential, anticipatory, and reactive). The analysis of the results was rigorous and it indicates that by using specific types of guilt appeals advertisers can maximise advertising effectiveness. For example, it is best to use existential guilt appeals in services. Existential guilt appeals may not predict purchase intention directly, however attitude towards the advertisement can influence purchase intention directly and indirectly (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). Thus, advertisers should be creating likable existential guilt appeals.

Further, the evidence shows that anticipatory guilt is the least effective type of guilt appeal. This was contradictory to previous beliefs (Godek and LaBarge 2006; Lindsey 2005) and it clearly demonstrates that advertisers should consider the use of guilt appeals in each context. Further, it shows that advertisers should be avoiding the use of anticipatory guilt appeals for durable products as feeling guilty reduces purchase intention. The results further show that consumers feel that they have the opportunity to avoid the feeling of guilt therefore they find this advertisement to be manipulative. Thus, they are more willing to opt for alternative products to reduce the feelings of guilt.

Surprisingly, reactive guilt was one of the most effective types of guilt appeals. It performed exceptionally for non-durable products and it is well supported by theory. For example, Negative State Model explains that consumers will attempt to remove negative emotions and reactive guilt is the most powerful effective type of guilt in this regard (Cialdini and Kenrick 1976). These advertisements can easily evoke past transgressions and put consumers in a negative mood. Thus they are more willing to remove that feeling. Further, non-durable products are cheap and risk-free therefore consumers are more willing to accept the message than more expensive product advertisements (e.g. durable and service advertisements). However, the biggest issue with reactive guilt appeals is that inferences of manipulative to the advertisers are unavoidable. Hence, advertisers should be aware of this issue before using reactive guilt appeals.

This chapter has discussed the specific hypotheses to help answer the research questions stated in Chapter 3. Chapter 7 will examine how these hypotheses have satisfied each research question in more in-depth detail by providing the implication of the results in three categories, conceptually, methodologically, and managerially. Further Chapter 7 will also provide the limitations to the results and a starting point for many future research directions.

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will first review the research questions and objectives of the study and provide a detailed summary of responses of what have been achieved from the study. Next it will highlight all the contributions provided by this research in terms of conceptual, methodological and managerial implications and significance. This is followed by a discussion on the limitations of the study which highlights a direction for future researchers to consider in guilt appeals.

RESPONSE TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES

This study has two research questions with their accompanying objectives. The following is a detailed summary of the achievements thus far:

Research Question One: What is the relative effectiveness and measure of each type of guilt appeals for purchase intentions of different product categories and industries?

This research has achieved outcomes in the terms of the three objectives namely:

- (a) The existential, anticipatory and reactive guilt scales were successfully developed and validated as presented in the ‘Scale development’ chapter (Chapter 5). The outcome has resulted in a unidimensional 6-item scale for existential guilt, a 4-item scale for anticipatory guilt and a 7-item scale for reactive guilt. These scales were further validated in the final main study of this thesis.
- (b) The effectiveness of each type of guilt appeal was investigated specifically in the luxury branding industry. The results from the structural equation model testing are shown in ‘Analysis and Discussion’ (Chapter 6).
- (c) The comparison between the effectiveness of the three types of guilt appeal for non-durable, durable and service luxury products was also achieved. Clearly, it has resulted in strategic implications for marketers, advertisers and policy makers when

they design their campaigns for their products utilising guilt appeals. These implications are presented later in this chapter.

Research Question Two: What variable(s) have direct and indirect influence on the effectiveness of guilt appeal?

The two objectives set up by this research question are also thoroughly investigated in this study. The major outcome is that it has extended the guilt model by illustrating the direct/indirect effects of attitude towards the ad (A_{ad}) and inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) on guilt appeals. This is further discussed in the contributions section of this chapter.

CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The results from the study provide a number of conceptual, methodological and managerial contributions to enhance the understanding of guilt appeal phenomenon. These include support, and in some cases contradiction to previous works, as well as discovering previously unknown relationships. Specifics of each contribution are delineated in the following sections. Specific details of the results are presented in Chapter 6.

Conceptual Contributions

The focus of the study is to test the effectiveness of guilt appeals in the luxury branding industry. More specifically, the study aims to identify differences between the three types of guilt and their relative effectiveness in each product category. The purpose of the study was to demonstrate the differences from the perspectives of the marketers and advertisers and illustrate why future researchers should approach each type of guilt appeal independently. The results indicate that consumers behave differently as a result of feeling existential, anticipatory and reactive guilt. As such, guilt should be acknowledged by its specific type, rather than guilt as a unified view (as it has been investigated in a majority of prior research). This is verified by the following:

(a) First, the **development of specific scales in each type of guilt** (existential, anticipatory and reactive scales) provided a much needed measure of specific types of guilt (Research gap 1, Objective 1). The successful development and validation (nomological, predictive, discriminant, and convergent) of the three scales was undertaken and is discussed in Chapter 5. Further, nine studies were used to develop the three scales and they successfully measured the participants' guilt to advertisements that employed specific cues to evoke each type of guilt. This provided the first successful indicator of guilt being dimensionalised into three distinct types and allowed empirical testing for the effectiveness of each type of guilt. Conceptually, this is a significant contribution to literature. It shows support for the hypotheses in the study and confirms previous claims that the three types of guilt are significantly distinct from one another (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007).

(b) The study **investigated the effectiveness of guilt appeals in a luxury brand industry** and it provided much needed expansion of our knowledge of guilt appeals in advertising (Research gap 2, Objective 2). The changes in societal values have driven the popularity of luxury brands (e.g. Doherty 2012; Fahmy 2009, 2013; Maguire 2012; Murphy 1994) and other researchers have shown that guilt appeals are frequently used by advertisers to repair relationships and overcome one's violation of their own standards (e.g. Hibbert et al. 2007). Previous researchers have provided a strong indication that guilt appeals are effective in evoking favourable charitable donations (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). However, the effectiveness of guilt appeals in a non-charitable donation context is relatively unknown. Thus, this study provides a new conceptual understanding as it is the **first empirical research** to show that **guilt appeals** can be **effective in the luxury brand industry** (H1-H8). Moreover, the research took one step further by systematically examining which type of guilt appeal is more effective in the luxury brand industry. The results revealed that reactive guilt appeal is the most effective method in the luxury branding industry. That is consumers are more willing to take action and purchase luxury brands to repair the relationship. Reactive guilt appeal is the most effective strategy in this context because it highlights past violations of the individual's self-standards. Additionally, the expectations of social norms encourage the consumer to purchase luxury brands to show sincerity for their past behaviour. The theory suggests that reactive guilt is

less effective because it focuses on past transgression and thus it creates a short term negative mood (Godek and LaBarge 2006). The findings show that creating a short term negative mood is actually very persuasive in repairing relationships and luxury brands provides a vehicle to apologise for their past behaviour. This belief contradicts previous findings (e.g. Godek and LaBarge 2006; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007) and demonstrates that the effectiveness of each type of guilt differs in each context. Reactive guilt is an exemplifier of this concept. Reactive guilt appeal in a luxury branding industry is a good method to repair relationships. However, it may not be the best method to encourage helping or pro-social behaviour (e.g. safe sex, family welfare, financial management). Instead, existential guilt is very effective in evoking donation behaviour (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007) and anticipatory guilt is effective in influencing pro-social behaviour (e.g. Alden and Crowley 1995; Burnett and Lunsford 1994; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Merunka et al. 2007). Thus, the study provides a blue print for researchers to show which type of guilt appeals is more effective in the luxury brand industry. In summary, this is a huge step forward in extending the body of knowledge in the theory of guilt research.

(c) More specifically, the research is also the **first to examine and compare** the effectiveness of each type of **guilt methodologically in three product categories** (Research gap 3, Objective 3). This is a major leap in increasing the understanding of guilt appeals as Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) has shown where and how often each type of guilt is being used, and now this research has extended their research by empirically showing how effective each type of guilt is in each of the three product categories. The research has provided a significant contribution to the literature as a majority of studies in guilt only investigates the effectiveness of one product category and generalise the results to the other product categories (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007) or a comparison between two types of guilt (Godek and LaBarge 2006). It is clear from this study that guilt is contextual and domain specific as suggested other scholars (Burnett and Lunsford 1994; Mosher 1968; Kugler and Jones 1992). In summary, this study provides a blue print to show which type of guilt appeal is more effective in each context (non-durable, durable and service). Specifically, the results imply that reactive guilt is more effective for non-durable luxury products to repair relationships. This phenomenon challenges the existing theory which suggests that guilt appeals are not appropriate in non-durable products (Coulter and Pinto 1995; Godek and LaBarge 2006). However, further analysis shed some light into

the issue. Coulter and Pinto (1995) investigated the effectiveness of guilt appeals for hygienic products to protect the love ones (e.g. family welfare). Thus, the purpose of each non-durable product is different. The former is to purchase a luxury brand to repair the relationship, and the latter is to protect the family. As suggested in the previous discussion, this research has highlighted when each type of guilt could be effective.

(d) The study extended previous models in guilt appeals by incorporating **variables that could have direct and indirect influences on the effectiveness of guilt** (Gap 4, Objective 4 & 5). Current studies relied on models that incorporate variables that have a direct influence on the effectiveness of guilt appeals (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). The study is one of the first to investigate the direct and indirect influences of attitude towards the ad and inference of manipulative intent. Past researchers have identified the importance of these two key variables in guilt appeals (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007). The study takes the first steps to understand how they directly and indirectly influences the effectiveness of guilt appeals in the luxury branding industry as delineated in H9-H12. This is a significant conceptual contribution since the results show that A_{ad} and IMI have a greater impact on existential guilt appeal than anticipatory and reactive guilt appeal. As suggested previously existential guilt appeal is more effective in inducing helping behaviour (Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). Consequently, cognitive processing, persuasion knowledge and attitudes of consumers will determine the effectiveness of existential guilt advertisements. Previous studies by Lwin and Phau (2008, 2011) confirmed this belief and suggested that existential guilt was more effective for a credible brand (World Vision Inc.) than a less credible brand (Life Water Canada).

Methodological Contributions

A number of methodological contributions have also emerged in this research. They are as follows:

(a) The most significant methodological contribution is the development and validation of the three specific scales to measure the three types of guilt reactions (Gap 1, Objective 1). The scale development procedure is discussed in Chapter 5 and entailed three steps, nine studies, and 1890 respondents, resulting in a unidimensional 6-item scale for existential guilt, a 4-item scale for anticipatory guilt and a 7-item scale for reactive guilt. These scales fulfilled a key gap in the current measures of guilt (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Hibbert et al. 2007; Kugler and Jones 1992; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007) as they are the **first to be specifically designed and validated to test for existence of specific types of guilt**. The review of the literature highlights that previous scales are not designed for this purpose, thus it is a major step to fulfil this gap in the literature. These scales will also assist future researchers to examine the intensity and the differences between the three types of guilt appeals independently. This is particular important in extending our knowledge of guilt appeals as it has been shown that consumers reactions are different to each type of guilt appeals in a variety of contexts (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Izard 1977; Kugler and Jones 1992; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007; Merunka et al. 2007; Rawlings 1970).

(b) The development of the scales followed strict guidelines from previous researchers (Churchill 1979; DeVellis 2003; Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Kugler and Jones 1992; Wells, Leavitt, and McConville 1971). Traditionally, guilt researchers have relied on previous guilt instruments to generate the scale items (e.g. Kugler and Jones 1992; Miller and Swanson 1966; Otterbacher and Munz 1979; Tangney 1996). The development of the three scales is very different to other methods as the scales items are generated using previous guilt scales, and the cues in the ad execution to capture the essence and the characteristics of each type of guilt (Gap 1, Objective 1). That is the research sourced traditional scale development methods such as literature review, thesaurus searches and expert surveys to generate the scale items (e.g. Chen and Wells 1999; Churchill 1979; Li, Edwards, and Lee 2002; Wells, Leavitt,

and McConville 1971). However, the research breaks tradition to generate and test the validity of the guilt scales items using cues from ad execution. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) explained the various cues are being used for each type of guilt (e.g. existential and anticipatory guilt appeals mainly used statement of fact and suggestions as the cue, while reactive guilt appeals used statement of fact and question as the cue). These were used as underpinnings to itemise the scales and for the development of the stimulus for model testing.

(c) To increase scale validity, the three scales were successfully analysed in EFA and CFA using three real broadcast advertisements (Gap 2, Objective 2 & Gap 3, Objective 3) (World Vision, East Midland Designer Outlet and Patek Philippe). Previous researchers used text scenarios to differentiate and measure guilt (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). However, guilt is an enduring and action oriented emotion (Lewis 1993), thus print and text scenarios may not be effective at evoking guilt. As such, the images, animations and sound from the broadcast medium provide a more engaging mechanism to elicit guilt feelings (Chaudhuri and Buck 1995). Thus, the research has provided a significant methodological contribution to test different types of guilt.

Managerial Contributions

Guilt appeals have been identified as a highly effective and persuasive strategy in advertising because it is an action-oriented emotion (Lewis 1993). This explains why it has been employed more than fear appeals by a number of advertisers (e.g. Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). Further, guilt advertisements have also shown to affect consumers' attitudes and behaviour (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey 2005). It is pertinent for marketers and brand managers to understand how guilt appeals can be utilised. Previous researchers have explained how advertisers have created guilt advertisements (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997), and this research takes it further by showing which techniques are more effective. This has not been examined empirically until now where the three types of guilt are distinguished and tested independently. The research confirms some of the previous findings and provides a new direction on some of the relationships. By doing so it has increased the rigour of our knowledge about guilt appeals and provided practical solutions for managers, advertisers and policy-makers. Further, the study also provides information about the benefits and costs of evoking each type of guilt. To ease the discussion of the managerial implications, they have been documented based on the structure of the hypotheses. They are as follows:

(a) H1 showed that a variety of cognitive responses can significantly change consumers' response to guilt appeals. Cognition is commonly measured to explain consumers' response to advertising and it helps describe 'how advertising works' (e.g. Vakratsas and Ambler 1999). As such cognition will be used to show the differences between the three types of guilt (Gap 2, Objective 2 & Gap 3, Objective 3). The results for all three types of guilt confirmed that ad credibility (A_{cr}) had a positive and significant relationship to attitude towards the ad (A_{ad}). The results reflect findings from past studies (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Goldberg and Hartwick 1990; Hibbert et al. 2007; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). This suggests to managers that ad credibility is one of the key variables that could influence guilt directly and indirectly. That is, **advertisers must use highly credible cues such as facts, characters and messages**, to increase the effectiveness of guilt appeals. This is also confirmed by the persuasion literature that explains that consumers actively process negative advertising appeals (Meline 1996; Scott 1994), thus it is of utmost important to show that guilt appeals are credible.

(b) H2 examined the direct influence of A_{cr} on guilt arousal. The results show that A_{cr} is more important in reactive guilt arousal (Gap 2, Objective 2). This confirms with theory, which states that reactive guilt generally evokes more negative mood (Godek and LaBarge 2006). Therefore as expected, you would require higher ad credibility to convince consumers and to make them feel guilty. Therefore, when advertisers employ reactive guilt appeals, it is **imperative that the advertisement use cues that are highly credible**, e.g. facts from independent or governmental departments, trustworthy endorsers as the spokesperson and co-brand with highly credible organisations.

(c) H3 examined the relationship between A_{ad} and guilt arousal. This is previously unexplored by previous scholars thus the results cannot be compared. The results show insignificant relationships between the two variables for the three types of guilt. The findings suggest that it may not be necessary for consumers to like the advertisement to arouse guilt (Gap 2, Objective 2). This provides an interesting perspective for advertisers and asks the questions: **should they deliberately make consumers feel bad and dislike the advertisement in order to evoke action oriented emotion?** However, more research is needed in this area to before the concept can be considered.

(d) H4 examined the relationship between A_{cr} and inferences of manipulative intent (IMI), and the results confirmed that credible advertisements are perceived as less manipulative. This is not surprising for the result to be consistent across the three types of guilt as it reflects the findings from previous studies (Gap 2, Objective 2) (Campbell 1995; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). As previously mentioned, **sources of credibility should be utilised** to enhance this relationship.

(e) H5 shows a significant relationship between IMI and A_{ad} for all three types of guilt (Gap 2, Objective 2). That is when consumers view the ad to be non-manipulative they will view the ad more favourably. To create effective guilt advertisements in the luxury branding context the advertisers must strive to **create advertisements using** appropriate persuasion techniques such as **soft-sell and pull methods** (e.g. use soft-sell messages that show how the product can help solve the issue and avoid hard sell messages that shows how the product is a

must to solve the issue). As suggested earlier sources of ad credibility can also help reduce the inferences of manipulative intent. Thereby it could indirectly increase the liking towards the advertisement.

(f) H6 investigates the relationship between IMI and guilt arousal for the three types of guilt (Gap 2, Objective 2). The results indicate that IMI is more important for anticipatory and reactive guilt in non-durable products (Gap 3, Objective 3). The results provide an interesting insight into the relationship whereby it reflects that for non-durable products, low inferences of manipulative intent lead to higher anticipatory guilt arousal. However, for reactive guilt non-durable product advertisements, low inferences of manipulative intent lead to lower guilt arousal. The analysis of the results highlights the differences in costs and benefits between anticipatory and reactive guilt appeals. For example the **benefit** of using **anticipatory** guilt is that when consumers view the advertisement as **non-manipulative** it will arouse **higher anticipatory guilt**. However, **reactive guilt appeals cannot achieve the same result** and this is the **cost of employing reactive guilt appeals**. Due to the nature of reactive guilt appeals, it will create negative mood for consumers, thus consumers will always view reactive guilt as being manipulative (Godek and LaBarge 2006). Consequently, low inferences of manipulative intent will always decrease the level of reactive guilt arousal because consumers are also feeling unintended emotions such as irritation and anxiety (e.g. Coulter and Pinto 1995). Advertisers must be wary of the costs and benefits of anticipatory and reactive guilt when designing the advertisements.

(g) H7 examines the relationship between guilt arousal and purchase intention for the three types of guilt (Gap 2, Objective 2). The results indicate that existential, anticipatory and reactive guilt arousal influences purchase intentions differently (Gap 3, Objective 3). An insignificant relationship was recorded for existential guilt across the three product categories. This suggests that **existential guilt may not be effective** in the luxury brand industry. Further, significant relationships were recorded for anticipatory (durable products) and reactive guilt (non-durable products). However there were differences between the two types of guilt, (i) anticipatory guilt appeals have a negative influence on purchase intentions for durable products and (ii) reactive guilt appeals have a positive influence on purchase intentions for non-durable products. There are important implications:

- The findings suggest that **advertisers should avoid using anticipatory guilt when promoting durable products** because it has an inverse effect on purchase intention. It shows that anticipatory guilt is not effective in the luxury brand industry. The results contradict findings by Godek and LaBarge (2006) and Lindsey (2005) that shows a positive relationship between anticipatory guilt and behavioural intention. However, their studies tested the relationship between the two variables in helping and pro-social behavioural context. As previously stated anticipatory guilt is often used to produce positive pro-social behaviour such as safe sex, family welfare, financial management (Alden and Crowley 1995; Burnett and Lunsford 1994; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Merunka et al. 2007). The study has successfully highlighted that anticipatory guilt is not always the best method, and suggested that anticipatory guilt could be more effective for preventive scenarios (e.g. avoid HIV, avoid germs from entering your house and avoid bankruptcy).
- The findings suggest advertisers should **use reactive guilt appeal** to promote non-durable luxury brands. When advertisers utilise reactive guilt, consumers are more willing to spend money on non-durable luxury brands. The reason for this occurrence is because non-durable products are more easily available and affordable. Thus, it is a lot easier for consumers to fix their past violations. As durable and service products in the study are more expensive, it is harder for consumers to fix their past violations. Hence, a significant relationship was recorded only in the non-durable product category.

(h) H8 analysed the relationship between A_{ad} and purchase intentions for the three types of guilt (Gap 2, Objective 2). The results show that the relationship between A_{ad} and purchase intentions differs between the three types of guilt in each of the product categories (Gap 3, Objective 3). Implications of the findings are discussed below.

- In existential guilt advertisements A_{ad} predicted purchase intentions for durable and service products only. The results confirm past findings (Ajzen 1991; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). It shows that advertisers using **existential guilt should employ likeable advertisements** for durable and

service products. When consumers like the advertisement, they believe their purchases of more expensive products (e.g. durable and service luxury brands) can help the less fortunate. These products are more expensive therefore a larger donation is given to the cause, and this may have influenced the relationship for durable and service products. For non-durable products (less expensive) consumer may like the advertisement, but they may perceive that donations from their purchase would not contribute to the cause significantly since the contributions from the advertisers is minute. This may explain why the relationship is insignificant for non-durable products.

- For anticipatory guilt advertisements, A_{ad} predicted significant relationships with purchase intentions for all three product categories. The results confirm findings from previous studies (Ajzen 1991; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). This suggests that advertisers should **use likeable anticipatory guilt advertisements** in luxury brand advertising. The findings reveal that advertisers should **focus less on facts and more on making anticipatory guilt advertisements visually appealing**. This does question current advertiser's execution strategy for anticipatory guilt appeals. That is, over 45% of anticipatory guilt advertisements rely on statement of fact as the execution (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). This shows over reliance of facts and suggests that advertisers should use this method moderately. Some facts are still needed in anticipatory guilt advertisement to show that the message is reliable. However, this should not be the primary focus of the message. Consequently the study suggests that low anticipatory guilt appeals could be effective because it could evoke purchase intentions via favourable A_{ad} . The implications are supported by the theory, just as it is predicted in Chapter 2, that is anticipatory guilt is more likely to go through peripheral route of processing. Thus advertisers should focus on making anticipatory guilt more likable.
- For reactive guilt advertisements, A_{ad} predicted significant relationships with purchase intentions only for non-durable product category. The results further cement the findings from other hypotheses and confirm that advertisers should use

reactive guilt only for non-durable products. The implication of the findings is that reactive guilt advertisements affect purchase intentions through emotions and attitudes. Therefore, advertisers **must use statement of facts and visually appealing cues** to elicit reactive guilt. As mentioned previously, the finding contradicts past studies (Godek and LaBarge 2006). It explains that reactive guilt appeal is more effective for non-durable products because consumers perceive that it is easy to resolve their past transgressions. The implications are partially supported by the theory, just as it is predicted in Chapter 2, that is, reactive guilt advertisements for non-durable products could go through central (credibility of facts) and peripheral route of processing (visually appealing cues).

(i) H9-10 explains the mediating influence of A_{ad} for the three types of guilt (Gap 2, Objective 2). The results confirm past studies and show that A_{ad} is a partial mediator of advertising response (MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986). Implications of the findings are discussed below.

- The results indicate A_{ad} is more likely to mediate the relationships for existential guilt advertisements. Thus, liking the advertisement is important for existential guilt appeals because it has a direct and indirect effect on existential guilt arousal (only for durable and service products). It is recommended that advertisers **use visually appealing advertisements** to arouse existential guilt directly. Further, the findings reveal that advertisers could arouse existential guilt indirectly by encouraging consumers to use peripheral route of processing.
- The results indicate A_{ad} is less likely to mediate the relationships for anticipatory guilt advertisements. Thus, liking the advertisement does not have a propounding effect like existential guilt appeals. The analysis indicates only one significant mediating relationship between $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow AGA$ for durable products. Further, the results show mediation as a negative relationship confirming that advertisers should reconsider the use of anticipatory guilt appeals in the durable product category.
- The results indicate A_{ad} is relatively likely to mediate the relationships for reactive guilt advertisements. The analysis indicates significant mediating relationships between $A_{cr} \rightarrow A_{ad} \rightarrow RGA$ for all three types of products. Thus, the results further reinforce the findings from other hypotheses and confirm that advertisers should use

highly credible and likeable reactive guilt appeals. This will have a propounding effect on the effectiveness of the advertisement thus advertisers should implement these cues in reactive advertisements.

(j) H11-12 illustrates the mediating influence of IMI for the three types of guilt in three product categories (Gap 2, Objective 2). The results extend findings by Cotte, Coulter, and Moore (2005) that suggested that IMI could be a mediator as a response to advertising appeals. Interestingly IMI partially mediated the relationships between $Acr \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow EGA$ for non-durable and service products in existential guilt appeals only. However, IMI partially mediated the relationship between $Acr \rightarrow IMI \rightarrow Aad$ for all three types of guilt and products. This further highlights the importance of IMI for marketing and brand managers to **keep IMI low or encourage consumers to bypass IMI** to enhance the arousal of guilt. This could be achieved by focusing on advertisement elements that are irrelevant to the brand or the product. For example, using an attractive celebrity could divert the viewer's attention away from evaluating the manipulative intent of the advertiser. In review of all the results, **managing IMI is the number one priority** when advertisers are using guilt appeals in the luxury brand industry. This is well supported by the Persuasion Knowledge Model (Friestad and Wright 1994) and past studies in persuasion (Meline 1996; Scott 1994).

LIMITATION AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study has successfully achieved the objectives from Chapter 3 to show that the three types of guilt are different and suggest researchers and practitioners to utilise specific types of guilt differently in order to maximise advertising effectiveness. A majority of the literature on guilt appeals was constructed in the late 1990's and early 2000's (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Coulter and Pinto 1995; Coulter, Cotte, and Moore 1999; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Huhmann and Brotherton 1997; Kugler and Jones 1992; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007; Merunka et al. 2007). Rigorous review of the literature shows that there is a vacuum of guilt appeals studies in recent years. This study aims to reinvigorate interests into guilt appeals. The progress in the field has been very limited since then, and researchers and practitioners have been desperate for further progress (e.g. Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). The traditional understanding of guilt appeals as a unified concept is being challenged by more and more researchers, and there is a greater acceptance that there are specific types of guilt appeals (e.g. Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005; Godek and LaBarge 2006; Hibbert et al. 2007; Lindsey, Yun, and Hill 2007). However, more research is needed to advance the knowledge of guilt appeals. In regards to the current study there are some limitations just like previous studies and it provides an opportunity for new future directions. For example, generalisability of the findings is a concern in advertising research and replication of the study is necessary before the findings could be confirmed. This, and other limitations and future directions, are discussed in the subsequent section.

The study is limited to the effectiveness of guilt appeals in the luxury brand industry, thus it may have generalisability issues with other contexts or industries. Future researchers should investigate the effectiveness of guilt appeals in other context such as health products, green products, FMCG products, beauty products, banking and insurance services, education services, transportation services, unethical and illegal behaviour (e.g. digital piracy), and products that use country of origin as a cue. The list suggests there is a lot more work to be done to understand the effectiveness of guilt appeals.

Further, the study is limited to three luxury product categories, non-durable (chocolate), durable (jewellery) and service (holiday resort) industries. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) explained that guilt appeals are commonly used in these categories however, the literature did

not indicate which industries are more relevant for guilt appeals. The results from the pre-test shows that chocolate products, jewellery products and holiday resorts were more relevant for the study. As suggested previously there are other industries in each product category these should be examined in future studies.

Additionally, the study utilised three brands to represent each of the product category listed in the previous section, i.e. non-durable (Ferrero Rocher), durable (Tiffany & Co) and service (Club Med). These brands were tested for consumer knowledge and familiarity with the respondents. However, the respondent's existing beliefs, attitudes and experiences may have influenced the results. Further, a question arose if Ferrero Rocher is considered as a luxury brands for chocolates as opposed to Lindt and Godiva. The pre-tests seem to point that this is the case and as such is deemed appropriate and valid for the study. But, future studies may want to utilise fictitious brands to explore the effects of specific types of guilt on consumer's reactions.

In terms of respondents, it is possible that other demographics variables could influence the effectiveness of guilt appeals. For example, age and income could be key variables that could influence guilt appeals. That is guilt proneness could be less as you get older as the individual may face similar events throughout their lives (Silfver et al. 2008). The person may feel more guilt for the first time the event has occurred, however subsequent events may not evoked the same intensity of guilt. Furthermore, the individual's income level could influence the effectiveness of guilt appeals. Individuals who are wealthier may afford more expensive products thus the response to guilt appeals could be greater for high income earners. Further, research suggests that high income earners generally work longer hours (ABS 2003) therefore guilt appeals could be more effective for these consumers who have limited time for their friends and families.

It is also worth noting that there are other related constructs to guilt, e.g. shame and regret. Future studies should consider the effects of these two constructs to explain the effectiveness of guilt appeals. Self-efficacy is another variable that could influence guilt appeals in certain scenarios (e.g. donation).

The three guilt scales are still in their infancy and further validation is needed to increase generalisability of the scale. The scales are designed to be used for manipulation checks thus it is by no means a perfect measure of specific types of guilt. Further, the development of the anticipatory guilt scale was more difficult than previously expected. The issue is, guilt is an internal affective state that is difficult to access directly. For some individuals it is an unconscious response thus it is hard to pin point the factors that causes the feeling of guilt (Tangney 1996). The problem escalates further when researchers attempt to measure the anticipated unconscious response. Thus, the anticipatory guilt scale does need some more work and verification. Similar issues have been reported in other fields. For example, researchers face issues in the Theory of Planned Behaviour to predict actual behaviour (e.g. Armitage and Conner 2001; Glassman et al. 2010). Thus, future researchers should appreciate the challenges of developing a scale that measures anticipated unconscious emotional response. In light of this issue, future researchers may investigate the influence of guilt on actual purchase behaviour, and examine whether there are other differences to purchase intentions.

The study examined guilt appeals in the broadcast medium. Researchers have shown that broadcast advertisements are more engaging and thus more suitable for guilt appeals (Chaudhuri and Buck 1995). However, the use of guilt appeals is also common in the print medium (Huhmann and Brotherton 1997). Future research may investigate the effectiveness of guilt appeals on a new medium and compare the results from the current study. Further, the broadcast advertisements created for the study relied on images as an animatic on PowerPoint. Thus, low production quality of the advertisements may have influenced some of the relationships. However, this was the best method to control for variables so that the experimental research could be conducted.

The sample used for the study was delimited to a narrow age range of respondents. This was justified for the purposes of the study, (discussed in Chapter 4) as it provided a homogeneous sample for the experimental study. Additionally, previous studies have explained that the use of students is representative of general consumers (DeVecchio 2000; Yavas 1994) and young

consumers are an important target market for the three chosen product categories. It is postulated that consumer's emotional reactions will differ as they pass through various stages in their life (Davis 1979). Therefore, longitudinal study of consumer's reaction to guilt appeals may increase the knowledge of guilt appeals. Finally, future researchers may also consider sampling from the general public to increase ecological validity of the findings.

Despite the limitations and further directions, the study hopes to increase more interest in guilt appeals to fulfil the research void that is currently evident in recent years. The present research has provided much needed contribution to the literature by, developing and validating the three guilt scales, comparing the relative effectiveness of each type of guilt in three different product categories and incorporating variables that could directly and indirectly influence the effectiveness of guilt appeals. The study offers new findings and support for the use of specific guilt appeals in advertising. The study hopes that further developments in this field will be aided by the discoveries from this research.

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APPENDIX A

ADVERT: EXISTENTIAL GUILT (animatic)

This appendix provides a selection of images from the broadcast style presentation shown to respondents containing existential guilt cues and background music by Trevor Jones - "Home At Last". The example for Ferrero Rocher is shown below. Tiffany & Co and Club Med used same the images and style, however the brand images are replaced with each respective brand.



Your mum/dad has been away for a very long time and she is coming home for Christmas. Imagine that you are looking to buy a present to celebrate the special occasion.



Proceedings from the sale of Ferrero Rocher chocolates will be donated to World Vision to help provide much needed aid in Asia and Africa



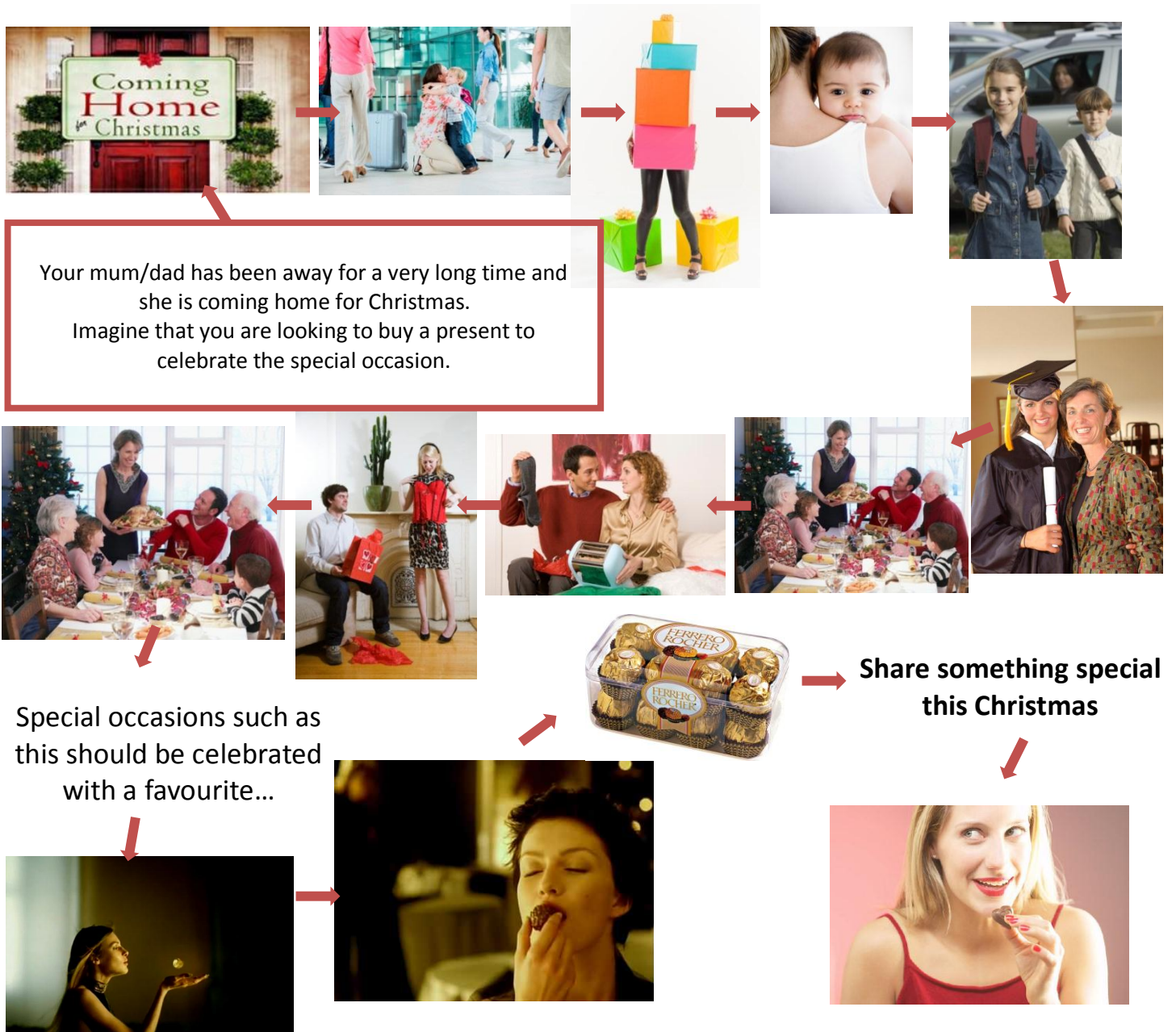
Share something special this Christmas



APPENDIX B

ADVERT: ANTICIPATORY GUILT (animatic)

This appendix provides a selection of images from the broadcast style presentation shown to respondents containing anticipatory guilt cues and background music by Trevor Jones - "Home At Last". The example for Ferrero Rocher is shown below. Tiffany & Co and Club Med used same the images and style, however the brand images are replaced with each respective brand.



APPENDIX C

ADVERT: REACTIVE GUILT (animatic)

This appendix provides a selection of images from the broadcast style presentation shown to respondents containing reactive guilt cues and background music by Trevor Jones - "Home At Last". The example for Ferrero Rocher is shown below. Tiffany & Co and Club Med used same the images and style, however the brand images are replaced with each respective brand.



APPENDIX D1

SURVEY INSTRUMENT: EXISTENTIAL GUILT EFA SURVEY FORM

Note: survey has been reformatted to fit margins of the thesis. This has resulted in smaller font size than the original. Readability of original survey was superior.

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the World Vision ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement. Circle 1 for strongly disagree and 7 for strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
1. I feel guilty when I spend excessively on luxury brands when I see kids dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I feel irresponsible when I spend on luxuries without helping others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I feel guilty when I spend so much money on luxury brands while some kids are dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I feel guilty for not taking accountability of helping kids dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I feel guilty that I am not donating to charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel guilty when I purchase luxury products that harm the well-being of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I feel unaccountable to purchase luxury brands without helping charities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I feel guilty for not taking a proportion out of my spending money for charitable donations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel regretful when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I like to spoil myself with luxuries so that I can help others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. It is dishonourable to purchase luxury products without helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I feel remorseful when I spend excessively on luxury products when I can help save kids dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
13. It is selfish to purchase luxuries without helping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I feel guilty when I spend excessively on luxury brands instead of helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I feel irresponsible when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I feel guilty if I didn't take a proportion out of my spending money for charitable donations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I feel disappointed in myself when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I feel irresponsible when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I feel remorseful when I can help kids in need and I did not help.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I feel ashamed of myself when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I feel remorseful when I can easily help kids in need and I did not help.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I feel guilty when I do not help kids in need but spoil myself excessively with luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I feel guilty when I spend excessively on luxury brands without helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I feel inconsiderate when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I feel selfish when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I feel ashamed of myself when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I feel guilty that I am not donating enough to charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I feel guilty when I spoil myself with luxury products instead of helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I feel disappointed when I bought a luxury product instead of helping kids.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. It is ok to spoil yourself with luxury products without helping others in need	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I feel remorse when I purchase luxuries without considering helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. It is regretful to purchase luxuries instead of helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I feel that it is wrong to buy luxury brands without helping charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
34. I feel disgraced when I purchase luxury brands without helping charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I feel guilty for not taking a proportion out of my pay for charitable donations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. It is a misbehaviour to purchase luxury products without donating to a cause.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. I feel that I have violated my standards by purchasing luxuries excessively without helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. I feel a transgression when I spoil myself but not help others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. I feel guilty when I spoil myself with luxury products without helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. I feel humiliated after purchasing luxuries instead of helping the charity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. It is my obligation to help others through my luxury purchases.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. I feel guilty when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could have done more to help save kids dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

A What is your age? (years) (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|--------------|-----------|--------------|
| <i>i</i> | 17 and Under | <i>ii</i> | 18 - 19 |
| <i>iii</i> | 20 - 22 | <i>iv</i> | 23 - 25 |
| <i>v</i> | 26 - 28 | <i>vi</i> | 29 and above |

B What is your gender? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|----------|------|-----------|--------|
| <i>i</i> | Male | <i>ii</i> | Female |
|----------|------|-----------|--------|

C What is your nationality? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|------------|-------------|------------------------|
| <i>i</i> | Australian | <i>ii</i> | Singaporean |
| <i>iii</i> | Malaysian | <i>iv</i> | Chinese |
| <i>v</i> | Korean | <i>vi</i> | South African |
| <i>vii</i> | Indonesian | <i>viii</i> | Others(Please Specify) |

D What is your annual income? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|---------------------|-------------|---------------------|
| <i>i</i> | 0 - \$5000 | <i>ii</i> | \$5001 - \$10,000 |
| <i>iii</i> | \$10,001 - \$15,000 | <i>iv</i> | \$15,001 - \$20,000 |
| <i>v</i> | \$20,001 - \$30,000 | <i>vi</i> | \$30,001 - \$40,000 |
| <i>vii</i> | \$40,001 - \$50,000 | <i>viii</i> | Over \$50,000 |

APPENDIX D2

SURVEY INSTRUMENT: EXISTENTIAL GUILT CFA SURVEY

Note: survey has been reformatted to fit margins of the thesis. This has resulted in smaller font size than the original. Readability of original survey was superior.

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the World Vision ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement. Circle 1 for strongly disagree and 7 for strongly agree.

Watch ad before going to Part B

Part B

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the World Vision ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement.

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1. I feel guilty when I spend excessively on luxury brands when I see kids dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. I feel guilty when I spoil myself with luxury products without helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. I feel guilty when I spend so much money on luxury brands while some kids are dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I feel guilty when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could have done more to help save kids dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. I feel guilty when I spoil myself with luxury products instead of helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. I feel guilty that I am not donating to charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. I feel guilty for not taking a proportion out of my spending money for charitable donations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. I feel guilty for not taking a proportion out of my pay for charitable donations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. I feel guilty that I am not donating enough to charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. I feel ashamed of myself when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. I feel irresponsible when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. I feel disappointed in myself when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
13. The way this ad tries to persuade people seems acceptable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. The advertiser tried to manipulate the audience in ways I do not like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I was annoyed by this ad because the advertiser seemed to be trying to inappropriately manage or control the consumer audience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I didn't mind this ad; the advertiser tried to be persuasive without being excessively manipulative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. The ad was fair in what was said and shown.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I think that this advertisement is unfair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. It is very likely that I will donate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I will donate the next time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I will definitely donate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I will recommend my friends to donate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

A What is your age? (years) (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|--------------|-----------|--------------|
| <i>i</i> | 17 and Under | <i>ii</i> | 18 - 19 |
| <i>iii</i> | 20 - 22 | <i>iv</i> | 23 - 25 |
| <i>v</i> | 26 - 28 | <i>vi</i> | 29 and above |

B What is your gender? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|----------|------|-----------|--------|
| <i>i</i> | Male | <i>ii</i> | Female |
|----------|------|-----------|--------|

C What is your nationality? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|------------|-------------|------------------------|
| <i>i</i> | Australian | <i>ii</i> | Singaporean |
| <i>iii</i> | Malaysian | <i>iv</i> | Chinese |
| <i>v</i> | Korean | <i>vi</i> | South African |
| <i>vii</i> | Indonesian | <i>viii</i> | Others(Please Specify) |

D What is your annual income? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|---------------------|-------------|---------------------|
| <i>i</i> | 0 - \$5000 | <i>ii</i> | \$5001 - \$10,000 |
| <i>iii</i> | \$10,001 - \$15,000 | <i>iv</i> | \$15,001 - \$20,000 |
| <i>v</i> | \$20,001 - \$30,000 | <i>vi</i> | \$30,001 - \$40,000 |
| <i>vii</i> | \$40,001 - \$50,000 | <i>viii</i> | Over \$50,000 |

APPENDIX D3

SURVEY INSTRUMENT: EXISTENTIAL GUILT MAIN STUDY SURVEY FORM

Note: survey has been reformatted to fit margins of the thesis. This has resulted in smaller font size than the original. Readability of original survey was superior.

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the **Ferrero Rocher** ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement. Circle 1 for strongly disagree and 7 for strongly agree. (The survey form for Tiffany & Co and Club Med Resorts is identical with the respective brand names)

Part A	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. My attitude towards the Ferrero Rocher brand is favourable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My attitude towards the Ferrero Rocher brand is positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My attitude towards the Ferrero Rocher brand is good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I dislike the Ferrero Rocher brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The money given to World Vision goes for good causes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Much of the money donated to World Vision is wasted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My image of World Vision is positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. World Vision has been quite successful in helping the needy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. World Vision performs a useful function for society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part B: Watch ad1 before going to Part C

Part C For each of the following <u>emotions</u>, please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling after watching ad1:	Not at all						Very strongly
1. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Uneasy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Irresponsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Laugh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Accountable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Smile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Amused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Irritated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part D: Watch ad2 before going to Part E

Part E For each of the following <u>emotions</u>, please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling after watching ad2:	Not at all						Very strongly
1. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Uneasy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Irresponsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Laugh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Accountable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Smile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Amused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Irritated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

For each of the following statements , please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling:	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
1. I feel guilty when I spend excessively on luxury brands when I see kids dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I feel guilty when I spoil myself with luxury products without helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I feel guilty when I spend so much money on luxury brands while some kids are dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I feel guilty when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could have done more to help save kids dying of hunger.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I feel guilty when I spoil myself with luxury products instead of helping kids in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel ashamed of myself when I spend excessively on luxury products, when I could help save kids dying of hunger with that money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I am very familiar with the World Vision brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am very familiar with the Ferrero Rocher brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. This ad is believable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. This ad is truthful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. The ad is realistic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I have good attitudes towards this ad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. My attitude towards the ad is favourable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. My attitude towards this ad is positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I dislike this ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
16. The way this ad tries to persuade people seems acceptable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. The advertiser tried to manipulate the audience in ways I do not like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I was annoyed by this ad because the advertiser seemed to be trying to inappropriately manage or control the consumer audience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I didn't mind this ad; the advertiser tried to be persuasive without being excessively manipulative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. The ad was fair in what was said and shown.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I think that this advertisement is unfair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. It is very likely that I will buy Ferrero Rocher chocolate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I will purchase Ferrero Rocher chocolate the next time I need it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I will definitely try Ferrero Rocher chocolate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part F

A What is your age? (years) (only circle one)

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| <i>i</i> 17 and Under | <i>ii</i> 18 - 19 |
| <i>iii</i> 20 - 22 | <i>iv</i> 23 - 25 |
| <i>v</i> 26 - 28 | <i>vi</i> 29 and above |

B What is your gender? (only circle one)

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| <i>i</i> Male | <i>ii</i> Female |
|---------------|------------------|

C What is your nationality? (only circle one)

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| <i>i</i> Australian | <i>ii</i> Singaporean |
| <i>iii</i> Malaysian | <i>iv</i> Chinese |
| <i>v</i> Korean | <i>vi</i> South African |
| <i>vii</i> Indonesian | <i>viii</i> Others(Please Specify) |

D What is your annual income? (only circle one)

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| <i>i</i> 0 - \$5000 | <i>ii</i> \$5001 - \$10,000 |
| <i>iii</i> \$10,001 - \$15,000 | <i>iv</i> \$15,001 - \$20,000 |
| <i>v</i> \$20,001 - \$30,000 | <i>vi</i> \$30,001 - \$40,000 |
| <i>vii</i> \$40,001 - \$50,000 | <i>viii</i> Over \$50,000 |

APPENDIX E1

SURVEY INSTRUMENT: ANTICIPATORY GUILT EFA SURVEY FORM

Note: survey has been reformatted to fit margins of the thesis. This has resulted in smaller font size than the original. Readability of original survey was superior.

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the East Midland Designer Outlet ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement. Circle 1 for strongly disagree and 7 for strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree		Strongly Agree				
1. I would feel guilty for my excessive spending on luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. It would be irresponsible for me to purchase excessively on luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I would feel guilty for maxing out my credit card when I won't be able to pay it off by next month.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I would feel guilty because exceeding my shopping budget is an irresponsible behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. It is humiliating to purchase a cheap gift for a friend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I would feel guilty for blowing my budget to spend on luxuries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I would feel guilty for purchasing products that I can't afford.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I would feel ashamed if I purchased a cheap gift.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I would feel guilty for telling my partner the luxury product I will be buying is inexpensive when it is very expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. It would be a misbehaviour to purchase excessively on luxuries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I would feel guilty for making impulse purchases on luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I would feel guilty for spending so much on luxury products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
13. I would feel disappointed in myself for buying an inexpensive present.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I would feel disgraced for failing to spoil my loved ones with presents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I would feel guilty if my parents found out that the product I was going to buy was very expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I would disapprove myself to spend excessively on luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I will plan my budget before I go shopping so I will not feel guilty for exceeding my limit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I would feel guilty for spoiling myself with expensive products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I would feel guilty for not letting my partner know how much I will be spending on this very expensive product for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I feel guilty for forgetting to buy a Christmas present for my best friend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. During shopping I would have a guilty feeling when I am about to exceed my budget limit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. When I go shopping in the future I would not feel guilty on impulse purchases for luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I would feel indignity for purchasing cheap gifts for others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I would blame myself for spoiling myself with expensive products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. If my best friend's birthday was coming up next week, I will feel guilty for not spoiling her with gifts on her birthday.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Purchasing luxuries excessively would be an irresponsible behaviour for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. An important occasion is coming up and I would feel guilty for forgetting to buy a gift.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I would be violating my standards for spending excessively on luxuries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I would feel guilty for lying to others about the price of the gift.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I would feel guilty for spending so much on luxury products without thinking seriously of future consequences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. It would be an infringement for me to purchase excessively on luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I would feel guilty for spending so much on luxury products if I had no money for the next week.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I would feel irresponsible for my excessive spending on expensive products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
34. I would feel guilty for not taking accountability of excessive purchases of luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. It would be degrading to go broke as the result of my excessive purchases on luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. I would feel guilty for not letting my partner know how much I will be spending on this very expensive product.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. Purchasing excessively on luxury brands would be a transgression my standard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. I would feel guilty for lying to my partner about the expensiveness of the luxury product I may purchase for myself in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. I would dishonour my family for spending excessively on luxuries products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. I would feel guilty spending excessively on luxury brands if it violated my own standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. Spending excessively on luxury brands violated my own standards therefore I would feel guilty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. I would blame myself for maxing out my credit card I couldn't afford to pay it off.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. It would be wrong to spend over my means on luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. I would feel guilty for spending excessively on expensive products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. I would have degraded myself for giving my loved ones a cheap gift.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. I would feel guilty for telling my partner the luxury product I will be buying for myself is very expensive when it is inexpensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. I would have violated my standards for spending on luxuries beyond my means.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. I would blame myself for maxing out my credit card that I can't afford to pay off.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

A What is your age? (years) (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|--------------|-----------|--------------|
| <i>i</i> | 17 and Under | <i>ii</i> | 18 - 19 |
| <i>iii</i> | 20 - 22 | <i>iv</i> | 23 - 25 |
| <i>v</i> | 26 - 28 | <i>vi</i> | 29 and above |

B What is your gender? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|----------|------|-----------|--------|
| <i>i</i> | Male | <i>ii</i> | Female |
|----------|------|-----------|--------|

C What is your nationality? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|------------|-------------|------------------------|
| <i>i</i> | Australian | <i>ii</i> | Singaporean |
| <i>iii</i> | Malaysian | <i>iv</i> | Chinese |
| <i>v</i> | Korean | <i>vi</i> | South African |
| <i>vii</i> | Indonesian | <i>viii</i> | Others(Please Specify) |

D What is your annual income? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|---------------------|-------------|---------------------|
| <i>i</i> | 0 - \$5000 | <i>ii</i> | \$5001 - \$10,000 |
| <i>iii</i> | \$10,001 - \$15,000 | <i>iv</i> | \$15,001 - \$20,000 |
| <i>v</i> | \$20,001 - \$30,000 | <i>vi</i> | \$30,001 - \$40,000 |
| <i>vii</i> | \$40,001 - \$50,000 | <i>viii</i> | Over \$50,000 |

APPENDIX E2

SURVEY INSTRUMENT: ANTICIPATORY GUILT CFA SURVEY FORM

Note: survey has been reformatted to fit margins of the thesis. This has resulted in smaller font size than the original. Readability of original survey was superior.

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the East Midland Designer Outlet ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement. Circle 1 for strongly disagree and 7 for strongly agree.

Watch ad before going to Part B

Part B

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the East Midland Designer Outlet ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement.

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1. I would feel guilty for maxing out my credit card when I won't be able to pay it off.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. I would feel guilty for forgetting to buy a Christmas present for my best friend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. I would feel guilty for spending so much on luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I would blame myself for maxing out my credit card that I can't afford to pay off.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. An important occasion is coming up and I would feel guilty for forgetting to buy a gift.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. I would feel guilty for lying to others about the price of the gift.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. I would feel guilty if my parents found out that the product I was going to buy was very expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. I would feel disappointed in myself for buying an inexpensive present.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. I would feel ashamed if I purchased a cheap gift.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. I would feel irresponsible for my excessive spending on expensive products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. I would feel guilty for spoiling myself with expensive products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
12. The way this ad tries to persuade people seems acceptable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13. The advertiser tried to manipulate the audience in ways I do not like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14. I was annoyed by this ad because the advertiser seemed to be trying to inappropriately manage or control the consumer audience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15. I didn't mind this ad; the advertiser tried to be persuasive without being excessively manipulative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
16. The ad was fair in what was said and shown.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
17. I think that this advertisement is unfair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
18. It is very likely that I will buy from this store.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
19. I will purchase from this store the next time I need it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
20. I will definitely try shopping at this store.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

APPENDIX E3

SURVEY INSTRUMENT: ANTICIPATORY GUILT MAIN STUDY SURVEY FORM

Note: survey has been reformatted to fit margins of the thesis. This has resulted in smaller font size than the original. Readability of original survey was superior.

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the **Ferrero Rocher** ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement. Circle 1 for strongly disagree and 7 for strongly agree. (The survey form for Tiffany & Co and Club Med Resorts is identical with the respective brand names)

Part A	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My attitude towards the Ferrero Rocher brand is favourable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My attitude towards the Ferrero Rocher brand is positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My attitude towards the Ferrero Rocher brand is good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I dislike the Ferrero Rocher brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part B: Watch ad1 before going to Part C

Part C For each of the following <u>emotions</u>, please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling after watching ad1:	Not at all						Very strongly
1. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Uneasy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Irresponsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Laugh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Accountable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Smile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Amused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Irritated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part D: Watch ad2 before going to Part E

Part E For each of the following <u>emotions</u>, please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling after watching ad2:	Not at all						Very strongly
1. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Uneasy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Irresponsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Laugh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Accountable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Smile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Amused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Irritated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

For each of the following statements , please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling:	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
1. I would feel guilty for spending so much on luxury products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I would blame myself for maxing out my credit card that I can't afford to pay off	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I would feel guilty for lying to others about the price of the gift	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I would feel ashamed if I purchased a cheap gift	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am very familiar with the Ferrero Rocher brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. This ad is believable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. This ad is truthful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The ad is realistic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I have good attitudes towards this ad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. My attitude towards the ad is favourable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. My attitude towards this ad is positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I dislike this ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
13. The way this ad tries to persuade people seems acceptable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. The advertiser tried to manipulate the audience in ways I do not like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I was annoyed by this ad because the advertiser seemed to be trying to inappropriately manage or control the consumer audience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I didn't mind this ad; the advertiser tried to be persuasive without being excessively manipulative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. The ad was fair in what was said and shown.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I think that this advertisement is unfair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. It is very likely that I will buy Ferrero Rocher chocolate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I will purchase Ferrero Rocher chocolate the next time I need it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I will definitely try Ferrero Rocher chocolate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part F

A What is your age? (years) (only circle one)

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| <i>i</i> 17 and Under | <i>ii</i> 18 - 19 |
| <i>iii</i> 20 - 22 | <i>iv</i> 23 - 25 |
| <i>v</i> 26 - 28 | <i>vi</i> 29 and above |

B What is your gender? (only circle one)

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| <i>i</i> Male | <i>ii</i> Female |
|---------------|------------------|

C What is your nationality? (only circle one)

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| <i>i</i> Australian | <i>ii</i> Singaporean |
| <i>iii</i> Malaysian | <i>iv</i> Chinese |
| <i>v</i> Korean | <i>vi</i> South African |
| <i>vii</i> Indonesian | <i>viii</i> Others(Please Specify) |

D What is your annual income? (only circle one)

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| <i>i</i> 0 - \$5000 | <i>ii</i> \$5001 - \$10,000 |
| <i>iii</i> \$10,001 - \$15,000 | <i>iv</i> \$15,001 - \$20,000 |
| <i>v</i> \$20,001 - \$30,000 | <i>vi</i> \$30,001 - \$40,000 |
| <i>vii</i> \$40,001 - \$50,000 | <i>viii</i> Over \$50,000 |

APPENDIX F1

SURVEY INSTRUMENT: REACTIVE GUILT EFA SURVEY FORM

Note: survey has been reformatted to fit margins of the thesis. This has resulted in smaller font size than the original. Readability of original survey was superior.

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the Patek Philippe ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement. Circle 1 for strongly disagree and 7 for strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
1. I felt guilty after buying luxury brands that I could not afford.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. It was irresponsible of me to spend excessively on luxuries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I felt guilty for violating my acceptable level of standards as I have spent excessively on luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I felt ashamed when I spent excessively on luxury brands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I felt guilty for buying a very expensive product.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I felt guilty after purchasing luxury products that I couldn't afford.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I felt guilty when I maxed out my credit card that I couldn't afford to pay it off.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I felt guilty when I exceeded my budget in a recent luxury product shopping trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It was humiliating for me to go broke for spending excessively on luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I felt guilty when I told my partner about the luxury product I bought is inexpensive when it is very expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I felt degraded after spending too much on luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I was disappointed with myself for spending excessively on luxury product.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
13. I felt guilty for not taking accountability of my excessive purchases of luxury brands in my past shopping trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I felt guilty for spending excessively on a luxury as it was violating my acceptable standard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I felt guilty for spending so much on luxury products in the past as I am now paying for my mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I felt guilty for lying to others about my spending habits on luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. In my past shopping trip, I felt guilty for spending excessively on luxury brands as it violated my standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. It was my obligation to purchase luxury brands excessively.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I felt guilty for violating my standards in purchasing excessively on luxury product.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. It was dishonourable to lie about your spending habits on luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I felt guilty when others found out what I bought was very expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I did not take accountability of excessive purchase behaviour of luxury brands on my past shopping trip and I felt guilty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. It was a misbehaviour for me to spend excessively on luxuries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I felt guilty for violating my acceptable level of standards as I spent excessively on luxury brands that I couldn't afford.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. It was my transgression to spend excessively on luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I blamed myself spending excessively for spending beyond my means.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I felt obligated to lie after spending excessively on luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. In the past, it was ok to spoil yourself without feeling guilty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I felt guilty when I told others what I bought is inexpensive when it is very expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I felt ashamed for spending excessively on luxuries in the past.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I felt guilty when I lied about my past excessive spending on luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. In the last shopping free I felt ashamed for spending excessively on luxuries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I felt guilt for my past spending on luxury products as it was a violation of my own standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Spending excessively on luxury products in the past was my wrong-doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

A What is your age? (years) (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|--------------|-----------|--------------|
| <i>i</i> | 17 and Under | <i>ii</i> | 18 - 19 |
| <i>iii</i> | 20 - 22 | <i>iv</i> | 23 - 25 |
| <i>v</i> | 26 - 28 | <i>vi</i> | 29 and above |

B What is your gender? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|----------|------|-----------|--------|
| <i>i</i> | Male | <i>ii</i> | Female |
|----------|------|-----------|--------|

C What is your nationality? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|------------|-------------|------------------------|
| <i>i</i> | Australian | <i>ii</i> | Singaporean |
| <i>iii</i> | Malaysian | <i>iv</i> | Chinese |
| <i>v</i> | Korean | <i>vi</i> | South African |
| <i>vii</i> | Indonesian | <i>viii</i> | Others(Please Specify) |

11 What is your annual income? (only circle one)

- | | | | |
|------------|---------------------|-------------|---------------------|
| <i>i</i> | 0 - \$5000 | <i>ii</i> | \$5001 - \$10,000 |
| <i>iii</i> | \$10,001 - \$15,000 | <i>iv</i> | \$15,001 - \$20,000 |
| <i>v</i> | \$20,001 - \$30,000 | <i>vi</i> | \$30,001 - \$40,000 |
| <i>vii</i> | \$40,001 - \$50,000 | <i>viii</i> | Over \$50,000 |

APPENDIX F2

SURVEY INSTRUMENT: REACTIVE GUILT CFA SURVEY FORM

Note: survey has been reformatted to fit margins of the thesis. This has resulted in smaller font size than the original. Readability of original survey was superior.

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the Patek Philippe ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement. Circle 1 for strongly disagree and 7 for strongly agree.

Watch ad before going to Part B

Part B

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the Patek Philippe ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement.

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1. I felt guilty after buying luxury brands that I could not afford.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. I felt guilty for buying a very expensive product.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. I felt guilty for spending excessively on a luxury as it was violating my acceptable standard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I felt guilty for violating my acceptable level of standards as I spent excessively on luxury brands that I couldn't afford.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. I felt guilty when others found out what I bought was very expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. I felt ashamed when I spent excessively on luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. I was disappointed with myself for spending excessively on luxury product.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. I felt guilty when I lied about my past excessive spending on luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. I felt guilty when I told my partner about the luxury product I bought is inexpensive when it is very expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
10. The way this ad tries to persuade people seems acceptable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. The advertiser tried to manipulate the audience in ways I do not like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I was annoyed by this ad because the advertiser seemed to be trying to inappropriately manage or control the consumer audience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I didn't mind this ad; the advertiser tried to be persuasive without being excessively manipulative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. The ad was fair in what was said and shown.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I think that this advertisement is unfair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. It is very likely that I will buy this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I will purchase this brand the next time I need it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I will definitely try this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX F3

SURVEY INSTRUMENT: REACTIVE GUILT MAIN STUDY SURVEY FORM

Note: survey has been reformatted to fit margins of the thesis. This has resulted in smaller font size than the original. Readability of original survey was superior.

The purpose of this study is to measure your reactions to the **Ferrero Rocher** ad. Please evaluate the reactions by circling the number that best reflects your reactions toward each statement. Circle 1 for strongly disagree and 7 for strongly agree. (The survey form for Tiffany & Co and Club Med Resorts is identical with the respective brand names)

Part A	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree			
	My attitude towards the Ferrero Rocher brand is favourable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My attitude towards the Ferrero Rocher brand is positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
My attitude towards the Ferrero Rocher brand is good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I dislike the Ferrero Rocher brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Part B: Watch ad1 before going to Part C

Part C For each of the following <u>emotions</u>, please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling after watching ad1:	Not at all						Very strongly
1. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Uneasy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Irresponsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Laugh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Accountable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Smile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Amused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Irritated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part D: Watch ad2 before going to Part E

Part E For each of the following <u>emotions</u>, please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling after watching ad2:	Not at all						Very strongly
1. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Uneasy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Irresponsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Laugh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Accountable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Smile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Amused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Irritated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

For each of the following statements , please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling:	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
1. I felt guilty after buying luxury brands that I could not afford	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I felt guilty for buying a very expensive product	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I felt ashamed when I spent excessively on luxury brands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I felt guilty when others found out what I bought was very expensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I felt guilty for spending excessively on a luxury as it was violating my acceptable standard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I was disappointed with myself for spending excessively on luxury product	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I felt guilty when I lied about my past excessive spending on luxury brands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am very familiar with the Ferrero Rocher brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. This ad is believable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. This ad is truthful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. The ad is realistic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I have good attitudes towards this ad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. My attitude towards the ad is favourable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. My attitude towards this ad is positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I dislike this ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
16. The way this ad tries to persuade people seems acceptable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. The advertiser tried to manipulate the audience in ways I do not like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I was annoyed by this ad because the advertiser seemed to be trying to inappropriately manage or control the consumer audience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I didn't mind this ad; the advertiser tried to be persuasive without being excessively manipulative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. The ad was fair in what was said and shown.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I think that this advertisement is unfair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. It is very likely that I will buy Ferrero Rocher chocolate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I will purchase Ferrero Rocher chocolate the next time I need it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I will definitely try Ferrero Rocher chocolate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part F

A What is your age? (years) (only circle one)

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| <i>i</i> 17 and Under | <i>ii</i> 18 - 19 |
| <i>iii</i> 20 - 22 | <i>iv</i> 23 - 25 |
| <i>v</i> 26 - 28 | <i>vi</i> 29 and above |

B What is your gender? (only circle one)

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| <i>i</i> Male | <i>ii</i> Female |
|---------------|------------------|

C What is your nationality? (only circle one)

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| <i>i</i> Australian | <i>ii</i> Singaporean |
| <i>iii</i> Malaysian | <i>iv</i> Chinese |
| <i>v</i> Korean | <i>vi</i> South African |
| <i>vii</i> Indonesian | <i>viii</i> Others(Please Specify) |

D What is your annual income? (only circle one)

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| <i>i</i> 0 - \$5000 | <i>ii</i> \$5001 - \$10,000 |
| <i>iii</i> \$10,001 - \$15,000 | <i>iv</i> \$15,001 - \$20,000 |
| <i>v</i> \$20,001 - \$30,000 | <i>vi</i> \$30,001 - \$40,000 |
| <i>vii</i> \$40,001 - \$50,000 | <i>viii</i> Over \$50,000 |

APPENDIX G1

ETHICS EFA/CFA



Form C Application for Approval of Research with Low Risk (Ethical Requirements)

Office Use Only: Date Added to Database: _____ Application No: SOM2008
Approved: Yes No 031

This form should be completed by students/staff undertaking research involving humans with **low risk**, defined as research where participants have the potential to suffer no harm, but where there is potential to suffer only inconvenience or discomfort". Research may not commence without written notification of approval. This form must be submitted along with the checklist in the Application Guidelines. Please complete this document electronically save it, print it, and have it signed, then submit it.

Please note that if your application involving humans is not classed as **low risk** you will need to complete a **Form A** "Application for Ethical Approval of Human Research" http://research.curtin.edu.au/ethics/human_cfm#application

SECTION 1 TO BE COMPLETED BY APPLICANT

1. Investigator Name(s) Michael Lwin Supervisor Name (if applicable) Tan Phau

Phone: _____ Wk: _____ Mb: _____

Email michael.lwin@cbs.curtin.edu.au

Mailing Address _____

School or research group School of Marketing

2. Project Title Development of a three scales to measure guilt

3. Plain English summary of project (100 words or less)

The study focuses on the development of existential, anticipatory and reactive guilt scales

4. Aims of project (100 words or less)

The aim of the project is to conduct an EFA for the three sets of scales. This exploratory study is the second step of the scale development.

5. Project Type Funded research Source of Funds _____

Unfunded research

Project as part of degree (e.g. Undergraduate, Honours, Coursework Master's degree)

Name of degree PhD of Philosophy - Marketing

6. Recruitment Procedures follow guidelines as stated in the National Statement

7. Participants Describe the population from which participants/sample will be recruited/and how they are to be Recruited:

student sample

8. Participant Data Identified OR Re-identifiable (eg linked code) OR Non-identifiable

9. Sources of Data directly from individuals Curtin University data private organisation
government organisation other source

10. Data Collection Method(s) (e.g. observation, physical activity, interviews, survey) _____

Self-administered survey

Please confirm the following:

11. Privacy & Confidentiality

- i. Data will be stored in a secure location (state where)
- ii. Data will be stored for: 6 years
- iii. Access to data will be restricted to student and supervisor *Yes*
- iv. Data will only be used for purposes as described in the Information sheet *Yes*
- v. Data will only be published in the format as stated in the Information sheet *Yes*

12. Information Sheet

- i. Participants will be given an information sheet written in plain, clear language *Yes*
- ii. Information sheet will contain all items listed on the attached guidelines *Yes*

Attach written justification if an Information sheet is not being used

13. Consent form

- i. Consent form not required
- ii. Participants sign a consent form
- iii. Participants consent verbally
- iv. Consent assumed if participants return a questionnaire

14. Attachments Research Methods & Ethical Issues

- Information Sheet
- Consent form
- Instrument (eg survey)
- Signed checklists in Form C Application Guidelines

Signature: *[Handwritten Signature]*

Supervisor Signature (if applicable) *IAN PHAN*

Date: 8/4/2008

RESEARCH METHOD (where co-investigator is a higher degree by research student)

- Application for Candidacy was approved by the Faculty Graduate Studies Committee at the meeting held on _____ Date
- or
- Application for Candidacy has been submitted to the Faculty Graduate Studies Committee for consideration at the meeting scheduled for _____ Date
- or
- Application for Candidacy has not been submitted to the Faculty Graduate Studies Committee but will be submitted for consideration at the meeting scheduled _____ Date

Applicants have you:

- 1. Completed and attached the Form C Application Guidelines
- 2. Obtained all relevant signatures for both the Form C Application and the Ethics Checklist

END OF SECTION 1

SECTION 2 TO BE COMPLETED BY RESEARCH ETHICS COORDINATOR/REVIEWER

(1) Project meets ethical requirements and is granted approval

From:	18/04/08	To:	18/04/13
-------	----------	-----	----------

OR

(2) Project requires amendment, to be resubmitted to reviewer for approval).....
(attach list of amendments)

Summary of amendments required:

OR

(3) Applicant instructed to submit an Application Form A to the HREC for approval

Name of reviewer
(Block Letters)

i

Signature:

Date:

Checklist

- 1. Completed the attached Form C Checklist for Reviewers
- 2. Details added to the Ethics Form C Database.....
- 3. Letter sent to Applicant

END OF SECTION 2

FORM C REVIEWER CHECKLIST

- 1. Information Sheet in plain language appropriate to age/culture or participant
- 2. Consent Form/s *N/A implied by Corporation*
- 3. Consent Form/s and Information Sheet/s allow INFORMED CONSENT.....
- 4. Description of Methods.....
- 5. Is it necessary to use humans to get the results desired? *yes*
- 6. Is it low risk?
Yes No
- If Yes Form C to be reviewed, If No – notify researcher that they must submit a Form A rather than Form C.
- 7. If yes, is the risk justified?
- 8. Plain Language Statement
- 9. Contact details for researchers
- 10. Any special information needed? YES No
- If YES, is this identified and provided?
- 11. All parts of the form completed.

Name of reviewer (Block Letters) CHRIS MARCHEGIANI
Signature: *C. Marchegiani* Date: 13/08/09

APPENDIX G2

ETHICS MAINSTUDY



Form C Application for Approval of Research with Low Risk (Ethical Requirements)

Office Use Only: Date Added to Database: _____ Application No: _____
Approved: Yes No

This form should be completed by students/staff undertaking research involving humans with **low risk**, defined as research where participants have the potential to suffer no harm, but where there is potential to suffer only inconvenience or discomfort. Research may not commence without written notification of approval. This form must be submitted along with the checklist in the Application Guidelines. Please complete this document electronically save it, print it, and have it signed, then submit it.

Please note that if your application involving humans is not classed as **low risk** you will need to complete a **Form A** "Application for Ethical Approval of Human Research" <http://research.curtin.edu.au/ethics/human.cfm#application>

SECTION 1 TO BE COMPLETED BY APPLICANT

1. Investigator Name(s) Michael Lwin Supervisor Name (if applicable) Prof. Ian Phau
Phone: 8 9089 Wk: x 4089 Mb: _____
Email michael.lwin@des.curtin.edu.au
Mailing Address _____

School or research group School of Marketing

2. Project Title An Exploratory study on ETD (E) Advertising Appeal

3. Plain English summary of project (100 words or less)
To validate the existential guilt appeal and to test the model using a specific advertising appeal.

4. Aims of project (100 words or less)
Scale validation, SEM of the modelling TV advertisements

Project Type Funded research Source of Funds _____
 Unfunded research
 Project as part of degree (e.g. Undergraduate, Honours, Coursework Master's degree)
 Name of degree PhD.

6. Recruitment Procedures follow guidelines as stated in the National Statement

7. Participants Describe the population from which participants/sample will be recruited/and how they are to be Recruited:
Students

8. Participant Data Identified OR Re-identifiable (eg linked code) OR Non-identifiable

9. Sources of Data directly from individuals Curtin University data private organisation
government organisation other source

10. Data Collection Method(s) (e.g. observation, physical activity, interviews, survey) _____
Survey, self-administered

Please confirm the following:

11. Privacy & Confidentiality

- i. Data will be stored in a secure location (state where).....
- ii. Data will be stored for: 5 years
- iii. Access to data will be restricted to student and supervisor
- iv. Data will only be used for purposes as described in the Information sheet
- v. Data will only be published in the format as stated in the Information sheet

12. Information Sheet

- i. Participants will be given an information sheet written in plain, clear language
- ii. Information sheet will contain all items listed on the attached guidelines

Attach written justification if an Information sheet is not being used

13. Consent form

- i. Consent form not required
- ii. Participants sign a consent form
- iii. Participants consent verbally
- iv. Consent assumed if participants return a questionnaire

- 14. Attachments**
- Research Methods & Ethical Issues
 - Information Sheet
 - Consent form
 - Instrument (eg survey)
 - Signed checklists in Form C Application Guidelines

Signature: [Signature]

Supervisor Signature (if applicable) _____

Date: 23/4/10

RESEARCH METHOD (where co-investigator is a higher degree by research student)

- Application for Candidacy was approved by the Faculty Graduate Studies Committee at the meeting held on _____ Date 6/2/08
- or
- Application for Candidacy has been submitted to the Faculty Graduate Studies Committee for consideration at the meeting scheduled for _____ Date _____
- or
- Application for Candidacy has not been submitted to the Faculty Graduate Studies Committee but will be submitted for consideration at the meeting scheduled _____ Date _____

Applicants have you:

- 1. Completed and attached the Form C Application Guidelines.....
- 2. Obtained all relevant signatures for both the Form C Application and the Ethics Checklist

END OF SECTION I

SECTION 2 TO BE COMPLETED BY RESEARCH ETHICS COORDINATOR/REVIEWER

(1) Project meets ethical requirements and is granted approval

From:		To:	
--------------	--	------------	--

OR

(2) Project requires amendment, to be resubmitted to reviewer for approval)
(attach list of amendments)

Summary of amendments required:

OR

(3) Applicant instructed to submit an Application Form A to the HREC for approval

Name of reviewer (Block Letters) _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

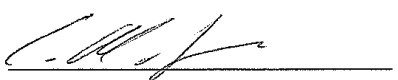
Checklist

- 1. Completed the attached Form C Checklist for Reviewers
- 2. Details added to the Ethics Form C Database
- 3. Letter sent to Applicant.....

END OF SECTION 2

FORM C REVIEWER CHECKLIST

- 1. Information Sheet in plain language appropriate to age/culture or participant
- 2. Consent Form/s
- 3. Consent Form/s and Information Sheet/s allow INFORMED CONSENT
- 4. Description of Methods
- 5. Is it necessary to use humans to get the results desired?.....
- 6. Is it low risk?
Yes No
- If Yes Form C to be reviewed, If No – notify researcher that they must submit a Form A rather than Form C.
- 7. If yes, is the risk justified?
- 8. Plain Language Statement.....
- 9. Contact details for researchers.....
- 10. Any special information needed? YES No
- If YES, is this identified and provided?
- 11. All parts of the form completed.....

Name of reviewer (Block Letters) CHRIS. MARCHEGIANI
Signature:  Date: 27/04/10

APPENDIX H1

MAIN STUDY: EXISTENTIAL GUILT SCALE FACTOR ANALYSIS

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.912
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	918.748
	df
	15
	Sig.
	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
G3	.947
G2	.941
G4	.933
G5	.919
G6	.859
G1	.854

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a. 1 components extracted.

APPENDIX H2

MAIN STUDY: EXISTENTIAL GUILT SCALE RELIABILITY

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.958	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
G1	24.6131	51.254	.800	.958
G2	24.8978	49.563	.913	.946
G3	24.6496	48.803	.921	.945
G4	24.6861	50.143	.895	.948
G5	25.0073	50.066	.883	.949
G6	25.1971	50.601	.806	.958

APPENDIX I1

MAIN STUDY: ANTICIPATORY GUILT SCALE FACTOR ANALYSIS

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.698
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	76.817
	df
	6
	Sig.
	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
GA1	.808
GA2	.783
GA7	.662
GA4	.592

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a. 1 components extracted.

APPENDIX I2

MAIN STUDY: ANTICIPATORY GUILT SCALE RELIABILITY

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.670	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
GA1	14.6723	12.697	.547	.533
GA2	14.1261	15.569	.529	.569
GA4	15.2017	15.586	.352	.669
GA7	16.2773	14.558	.410	.633

APPENDIX J1

MAIN STUDY: REACTIVE GUILT SCALE FACTOR ANALYSIS

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.871
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	582.621
	df
	21
	Sig.
	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
G3	.860
G6	.857
G5	.806
G4	.798
G1	.775
G7	.658
G2	.643

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a. 1 components extracted.

APPENDIX J2

MAIN STUDY: REACTIVE GUILT SCALE RELIABILITY

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.885	7

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
G1	25.8917	59.725	.678	.868
G2	26.5732	64.515	.548	.884
G3	26.1529	59.618	.780	.854
G4	25.9427	62.016	.697	.865
G5	26.3439	64.881	.707	.866
G6	25.8025	60.954	.773	.856
G7	25.5478	65.467	.568	.881

APPENDIX K1

MAIN STUDY: A_{cr} & A_{ad} SCALE RELIABILITY

Ad credibility (A_{cr})

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.925	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Cr1	10.4015	7.654	.819	.913
Cr2	10.6058	6.961	.879	.865
Cr3	10.6569	7.227	.843	.894

Attitude towards the ad (A_{ad})

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.927	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Aad1	15.5328	16.957	.866	.894
Aad2	15.7080	16.282	.878	.888
Aad3	15.5620	16.704	.878	.889
Aad4	15.2336	16.930	.714	.947

APPENDIX K2

MAIN STUDY: IMI & PI SCALE RELIABILITY

Inferences of manipulative intent (IMI)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.881	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
IMI1	24.4745	37.736	.751	.851
IMI2	24.6934	36.141	.702	.860
IMI3	24.6934	36.214	.745	.851
IMI4	25.0292	40.602	.546	.884
IMI5	24.6058	38.799	.730	.855
IMI6	24.1314	38.909	.685	.862

Purchase Intention (PI)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.873	3

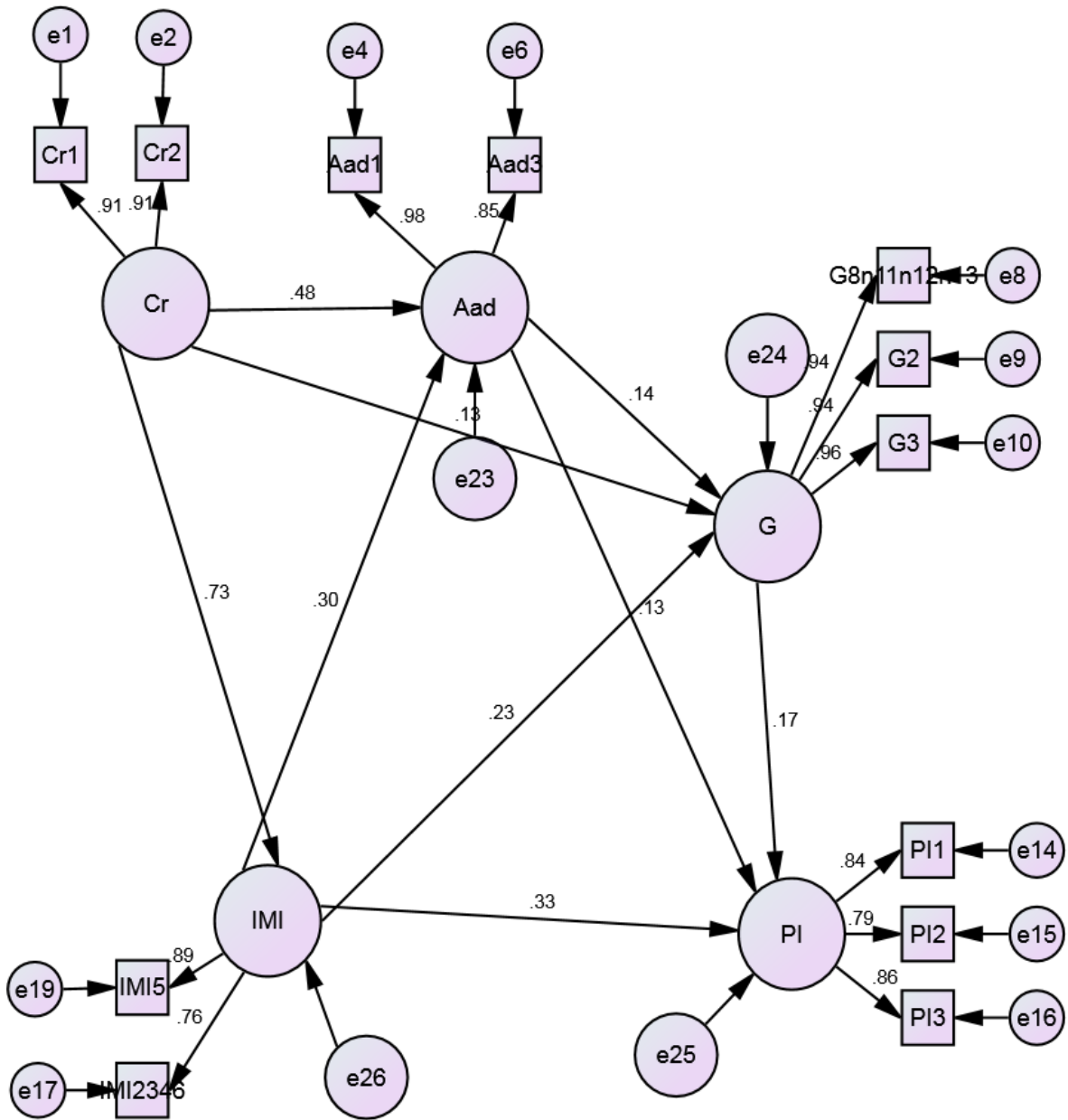
Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PI1	9.7299	11.257	.760	.816
PI2	10.0000	11.515	.732	.841
PI3	9.6277	11.265	.774	.804

APPENDIX L1

MAIN STUDY: SEM STUDY 1 EXISTENTIAL NON-DURABLE

Chi Square = 61.281 d.f= 45 p=.053 rmsea= .052 rmr= .071 agfi= .887 cfi=.98



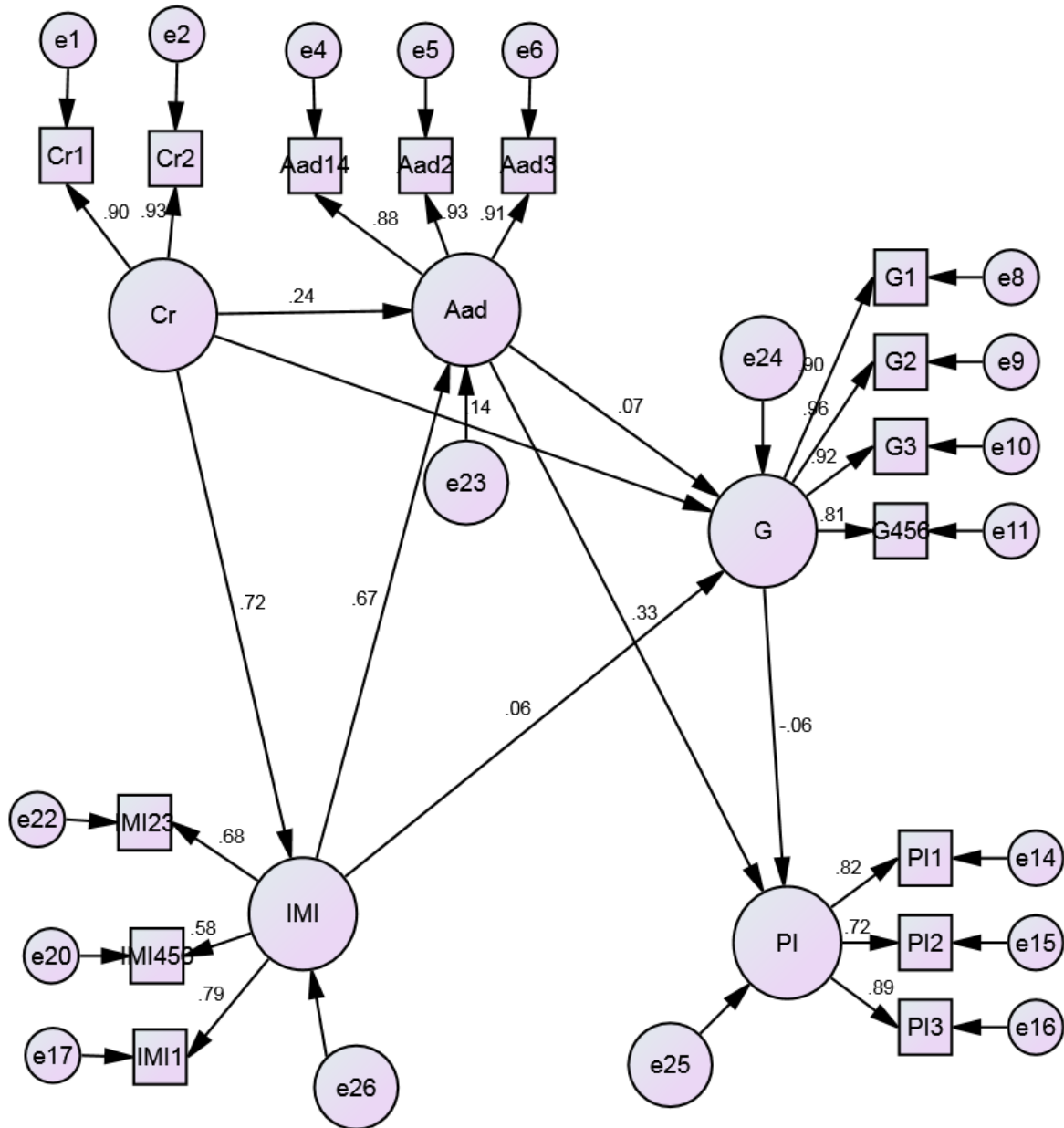
Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
IMI	<---	Cr	.598	.082	7.290	***	par_11
Aad	<---	Cr	.530	.129	4.111	***	par_8
Aad	<---	IMI	.416	.162	2.561	.010	par_12
G	<---	Aad	.131	.117	1.120	.263	par_9
G	<---	IMI	.297	.195	1.522	.128	par_13
G	<---	Cr	.138	.160	.863	.388	par_14
PI	<---	G	.198	.111	1.791	.073	par_10
PI	<---	Aad	.137	.131	1.048	.295	par_15
PI	<---	IMI	.486	.199	2.441	.015	par_16
Cr1	<---	Cr	1.000				
Cr2	<---	Cr	1.028	.074	13.914	***	par_1
Aad1	<---	Aad	1.000				
Aad3	<---	Aad	.878	.067	13.034	***	par_2
G8n11n12n13	<---	G	1.000				
G2	<---	G	1.090	.048	22.549	***	par_3
G3	<---	G	1.136	.048	23.741	***	par_4
PI1	<---	PI	1.000				
PI2	<---	PI	.935	.094	9.941	***	par_5
PI3	<---	PI	1.004	.094	10.711	***	par_6
IMI2346	<---	IMI	1.000				
IMI5	<---	IMI	1.230	.136	9.035	***	par_7

APPENDIX L2

MAIN STUDY: SEM STUDY 2 EXISTENTIAL DURABLE

Chi Square = 89.547 d.f= 82 p=.266 rmsea= .027 rmr= .111 agfi= .879 cfi=.994



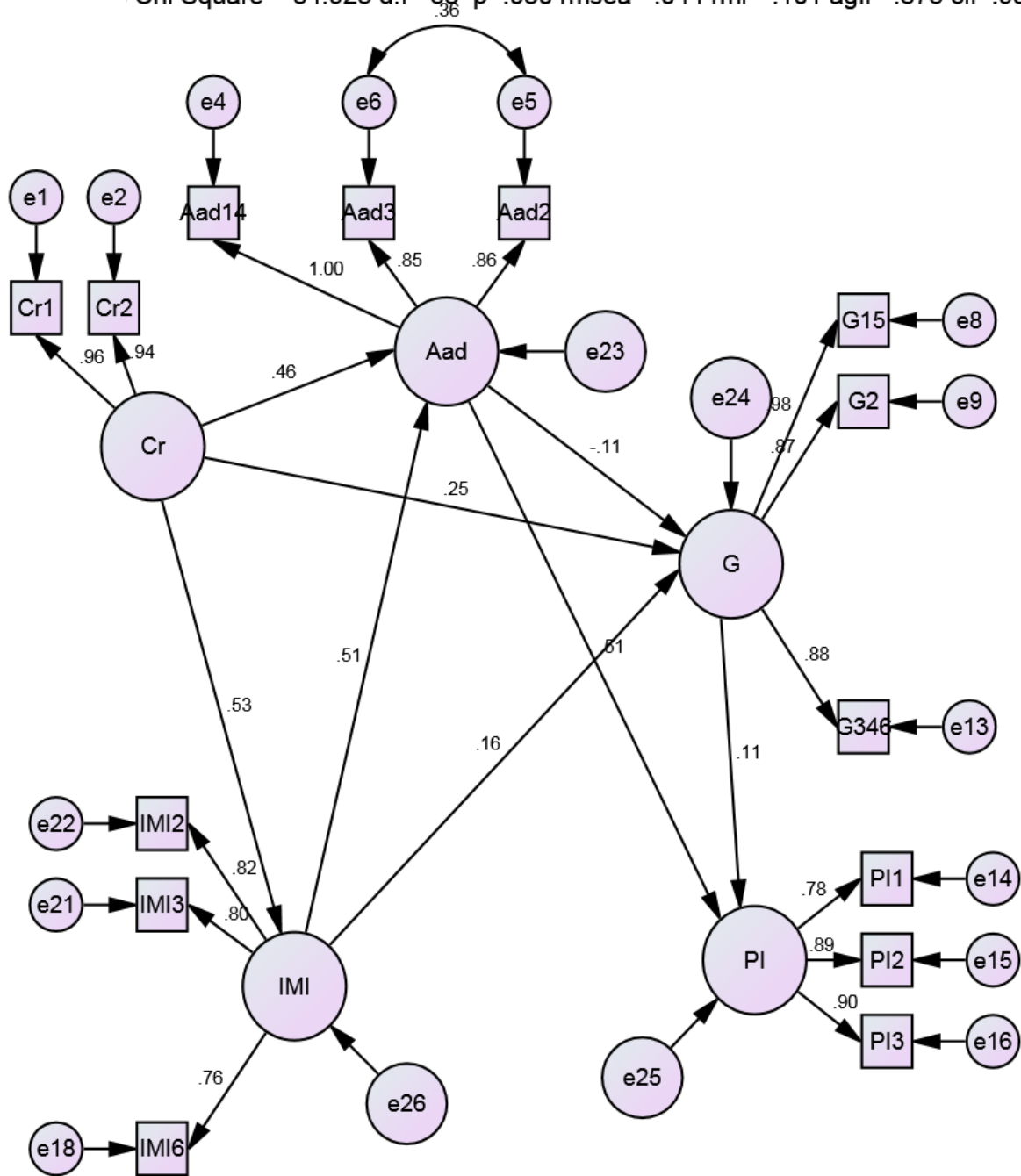
Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
IMI	<---	Cr	.645	.090	7.143	***	par_14
Aad	<---	Cr	.227	.113	2.016	.044	par_11
Aad	<---	IMI	.696	.152	4.578	***	par_15
G	<---	Aad	.073	.258	.283	.777	par_12
G	<---	IMI	.063	.301	.209	.834	par_16
G	<---	Cr	.138	.157	.883	.377	par_17
PI	<---	G	-.068	.108	-.634	.526	par_13
PI	<---	Aad	.400	.120	3.325	***	par_18
Cr1	<---	Cr	1.000				
Cr2	<---	Cr	1.071	.083	12.851	***	par_1
Aad14	<---	Aad	1.000				
Aad2	<---	Aad	1.112	.071	15.595	***	par_2
Aad3	<---	Aad	1.153	.077	15.058	***	par_3
G1	<---	G	1.000				
G2	<---	G	1.057	.057	18.707	***	par_4
G3	<---	G	1.011	.060	16.723	***	par_5
G456	<---	G	.793	.063	12.665	***	par_6
PI1	<---	PI	1.000				
PI2	<---	PI	.915	.109	8.371	***	par_7
PI3	<---	PI	1.104	.117	9.471	***	par_8
IMI1	<---	IMI	1.000				
IMI456	<---	IMI	.606	.099	6.149	***	par_9
IMI23	<---	IMI	.865	.119	7.282	***	par_10

APPENDIX L3

MAIN STUDY: SEM STUDY 3 EXISTENTIAL SERVICE

Chi Square = 84.925 d.f= 68 p=.080 rmsea= .044 rmr= .101 agfi= .875 cfi=.985



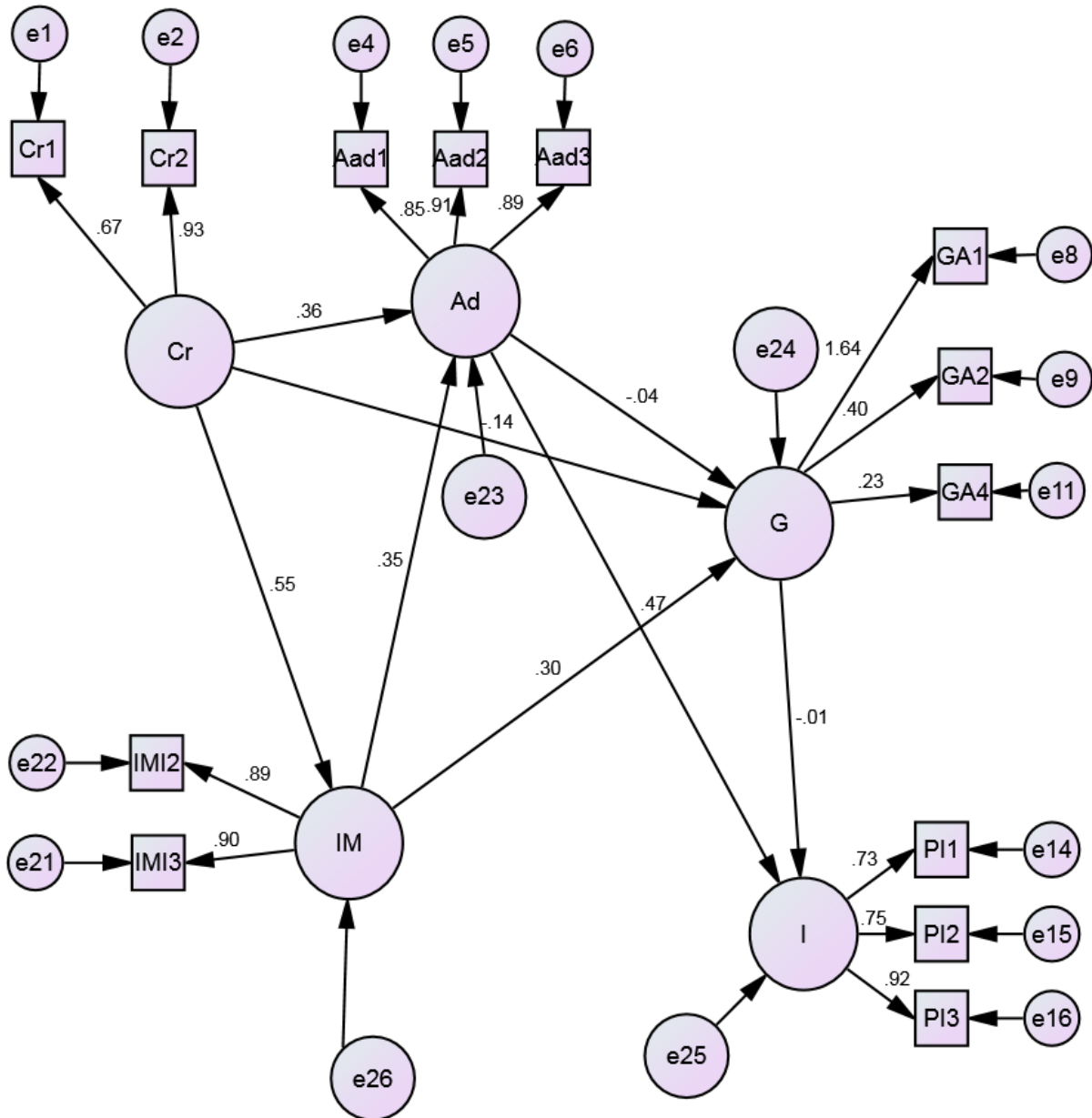
Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
IMI	<---	Cr	.480	.086	5.606	***	par_12
Aad	<---	Cr	.448	.065	6.875	***	par_9
Aad	<---	IMI	.534	.081	6.587	***	par_13
G	<---	Aad	-.110	.192	-.573	.567	par_10
G	<---	IMI	.173	.176	.983	.326	par_14
G	<---	Cr	.251	.137	1.832	.067	par_15
PI	<---	G	.088	.068	1.303	.193	par_11
PI	<---	Aad	.429	.076	5.618	***	par_16
Cr1	<---	Cr	1.000				
Cr2	<---	Cr	.930	.053	17.581	***	par_1
Aad14	<---	Aad	1.000				
Aad3	<---	Aad	.964	.059	16.301	***	par_2
G15	<---	G	1.000				
G2	<---	G	.959	.058	16.529	***	par_3
G346	<---	G	.868	.050	17.246	***	par_4
PI1	<---	PI	1.000				
PI2	<---	PI	1.273	.119	10.690	***	par_5
PI3	<---	PI	1.236	.115	10.770	***	par_6
IMI6	<---	IMI	.808	.090	8.939	***	par_7
IMI3	<---	IMI	.959	.102	9.387	***	par_8
IMI2	<---	IMI	1.000				
Aad2	<---	Aad	.872	.052	16.739	***	par_17

APPENDIX M1

MAIN STUDY: SEM STUDY 4 ANTICIPATORY NON-DURABLE

Chi Square = 72.211 d.f= 57 p=.084 rmsea= .059 rmr= .148 agfi= .829 cfi=.970



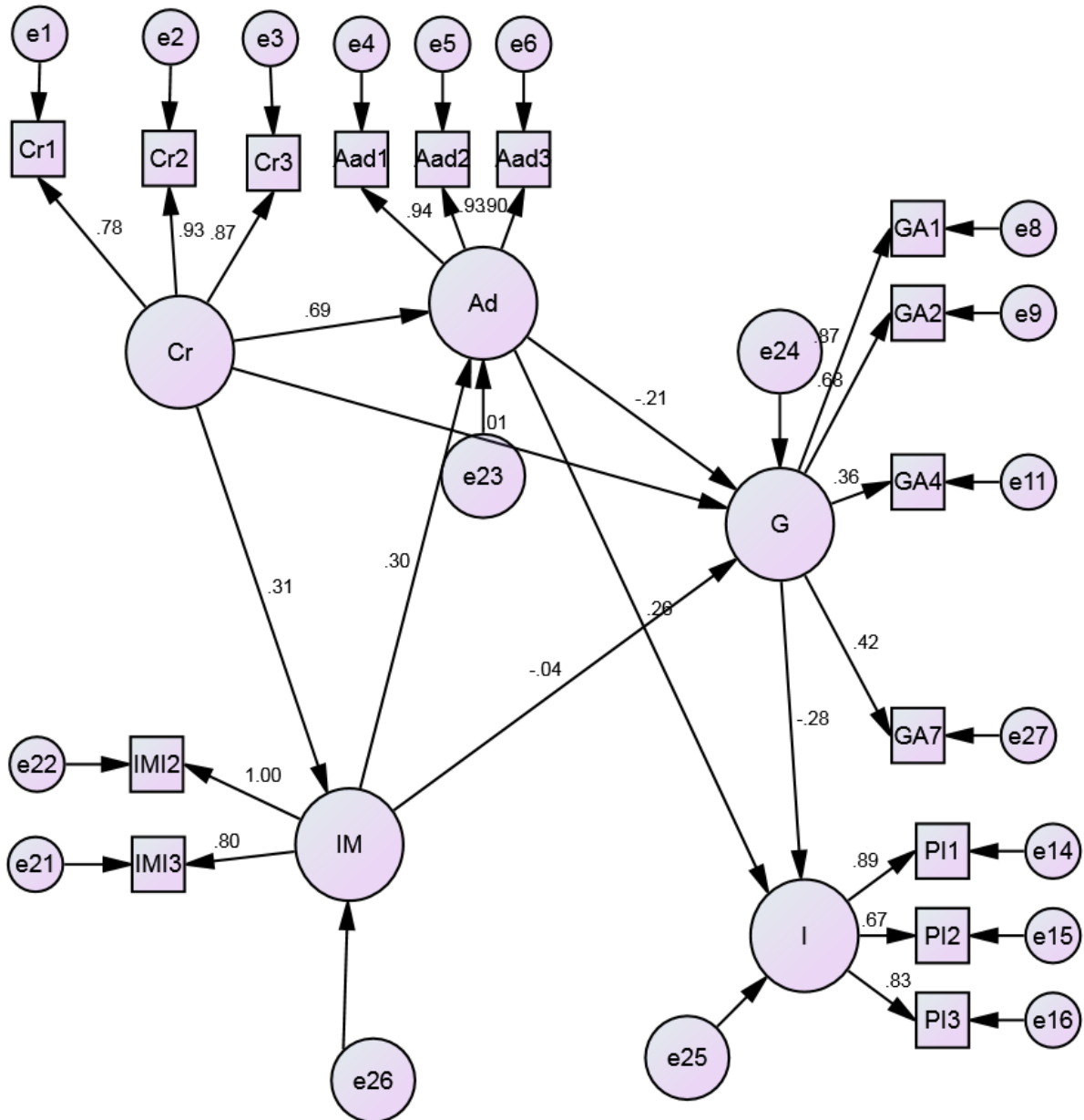
Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
IM	<---	Cr	.781	.194	4.031	***	par_12
Ad	<---	Cr	.365	.146	2.501	.012	par_9
Ad	<---	IM	.252	.101	2.487	.013	par_13
G	<---	Ad	-.124	.252	-.494	.621	par_10
G	<---	IM	.728	.217	3.360	***	par_14
G	<---	Cr	-.497	.283	-1.756	.079	par_15
I	<---	G	-.003	.023	-.141	.888	par_11
I	<---	Ad	.691	.194	3.568	***	par_16
Cr1	<---	Cr	1.000				
Cr2	<---	Cr	1.258	.267	4.719	***	par_1
Aad1	<---	Ad	1.000				
Aad2	<---	Ad	1.183	.116	10.171	***	par_2
Aad3	<---	Ad	1.225	.123	9.943	***	par_3
GA1	<---	G	1.000				
GA2	<---	G	.186	.137	1.353	.176	par_4
GA4	<---	G	.110	.092	1.194	.232	par_5
PI1	<---	I	1.000				
PI2	<---	I	.929	.148	6.293	***	par_6
PI3	<---	I	1.120	.167	6.709	***	par_7
IMI3	<---	IM	.948	.107	8.823	***	par_8
IMI2	<---	IM	1.000				

APPENDIX M2

MAIN STUDY: SEM STUDY 5 ANTICIPATORY DURABLE

Chi Square = 103.328 d.f= 82 p=.056 rmsea= .040 rmr= .168 agfi= .891 cfi=.985



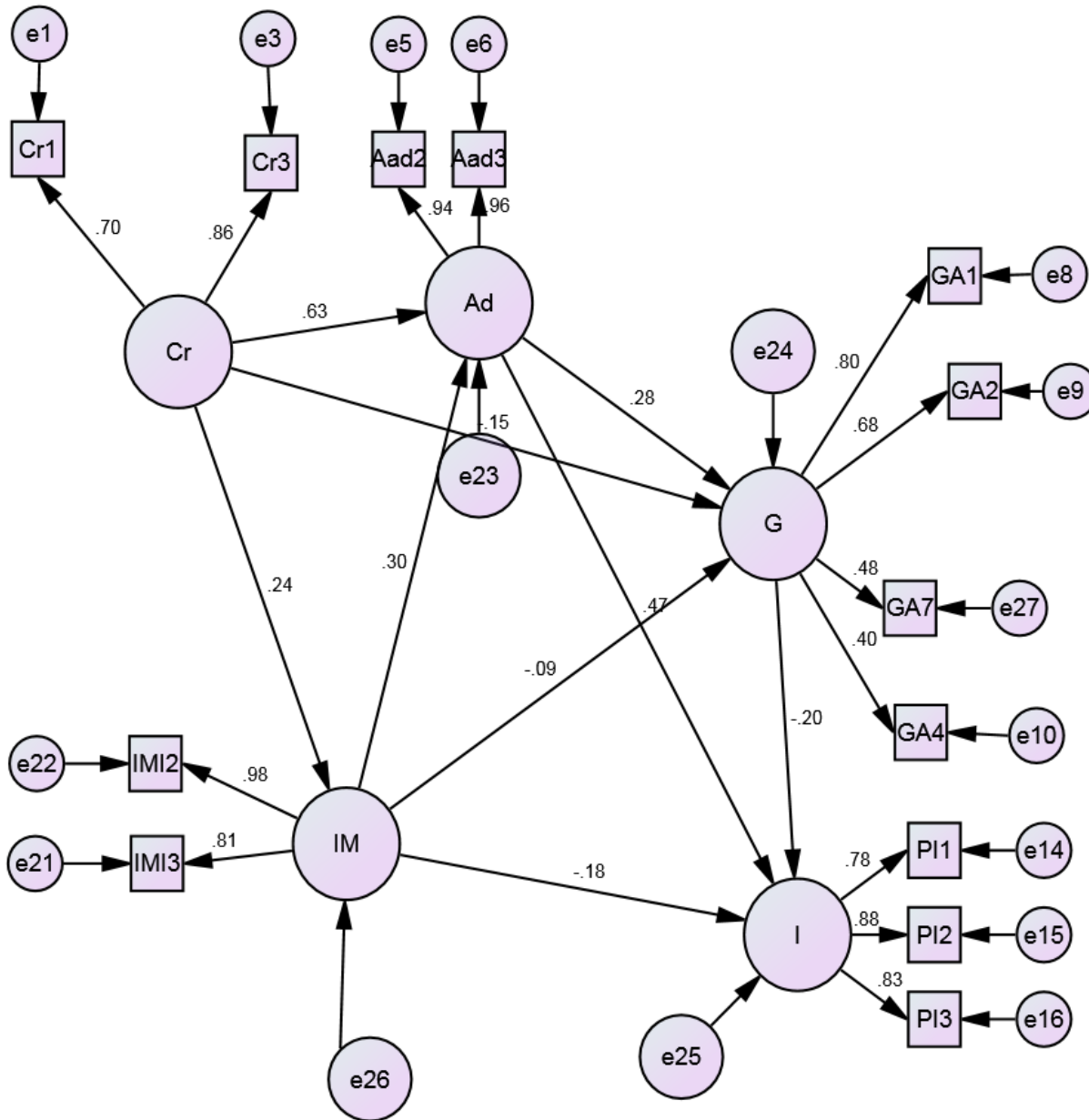
Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
IM	<---	Cr	.448	.116	3.847	***	par_13
Ad	<---	Cr	.783	.081	9.654	***	par_10
Ad	<---	IM	.236	.049	4.793	***	par_14
G	<---	Ad	-.251	.214	-1.175	.240	par_11
G	<---	IM	-.039	.098	-.403	.687	par_15
G	<---	Cr	.018	.219	.082	.935	par_16
I	<---	G	-.274	.095	-2.895	.004	par_12
I	<---	Ad	.302	.099	3.056	.002	par_18
Cr1	<---	Cr	1.000				
Cr2	<---	Cr	1.216	.092	13.196	***	par_1
Cr3	<---	Cr	1.181	.096	12.291	***	par_2
Aad1	<---	Ad	1.000				
Aad2	<---	Ad	.965	.044	21.974	***	par_3
Aad3	<---	Ad	.969	.048	20.249	***	par_4
GA1	<---	G	1.000				
GA2	<---	G	.665	.109	6.075	***	par_5
GA4	<---	G	.457	.115	3.960	***	par_6
PI1	<---	I	1.000				
PI2	<---	I	.838	.094	8.936	***	par_7
PI3	<---	I	1.052	.097	10.830	***	par_8
IMI3	<---	IM	.746	.087	8.587	***	par_9
IMI2	<---	IM	1.000				
GA7	<---	G	.486	.109	4.461	***	par_17

APPENDIX M3

MAIN STUDY: SEM STUDY 6 ANTICIPATORY SERVICE

Final Anticip ClubMed Chi Square = 61.632 d.f= 56 p=.282 rmsea= .029 rmr= .138 agfi= .882 cfi=.992



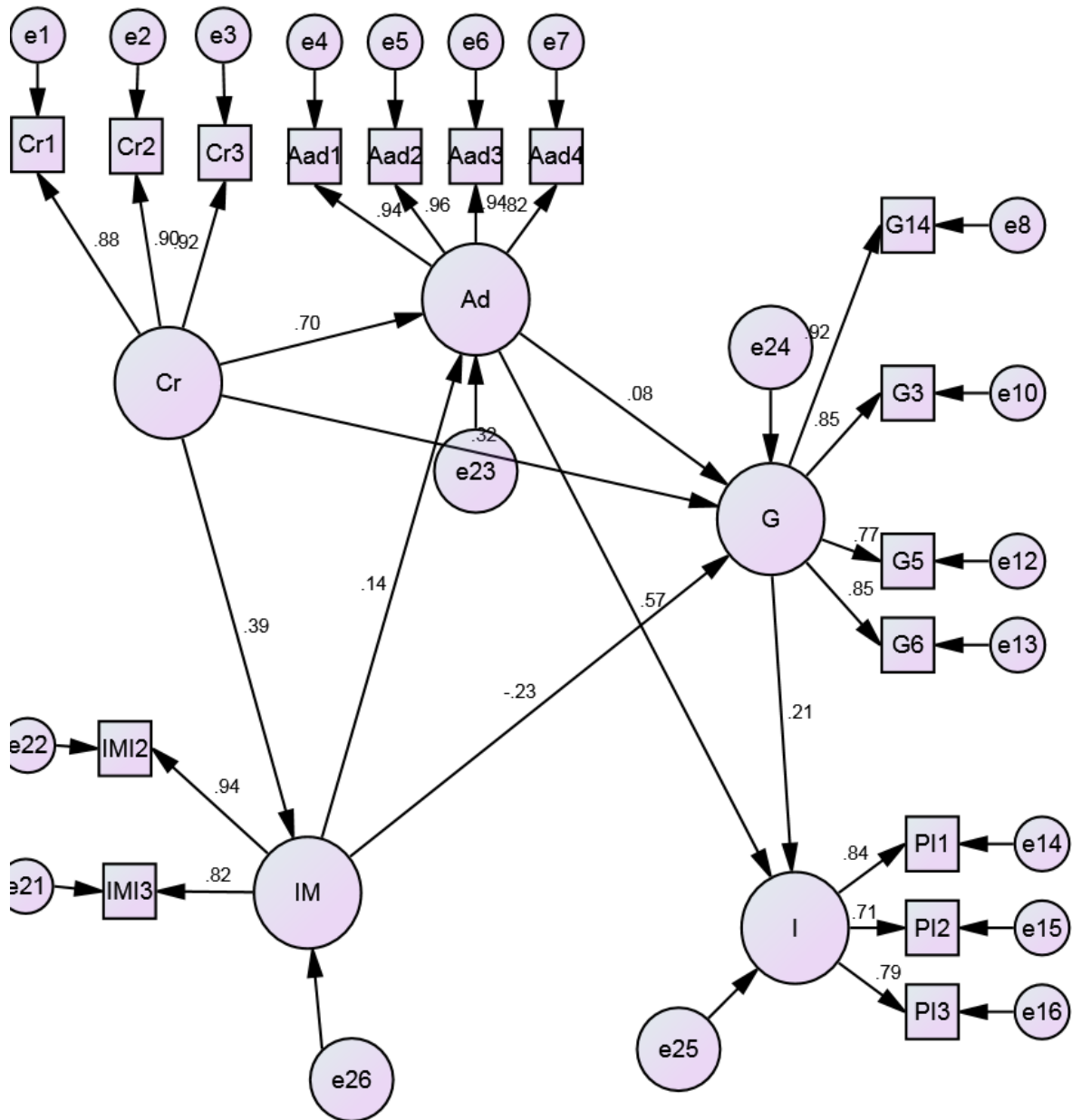
Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
IM	<---	Cr	.445	.196	2.275	.023	par_10
Ad	<---	Cr	.867	.145	5.973	***	par_7
Ad	<---	IM	.225	.064	3.543	***	par_11
G	<---	Ad	.341	.232	1.469	.142	par_8
G	<---	IM	-.084	.112	-.751	.452	par_12
G	<---	Cr	-.255	.311	-.819	.413	par_13
I	<---	G	-.167	.094	-1.787	.074	par_9
I	<---	Ad	.482	.118	4.099	***	par_16
I	<---	IM	-.136	.084	-1.620	.105	par_17
Cr1	<---	Cr	1.000				
Cr3	<---	Cr	1.231	.194	6.353	***	par_1
Aad2	<---	Ad	1.000				
Aad3	<---	Ad	1.074	.061	17.470	***	par_2
GA1	<---	G	1.000				
GA2	<---	G	.645	.130	4.967	***	par_3
PI1	<---	I	1.000				
PI2	<---	I	1.150	.122	9.430	***	par_4
PI3	<---	I	1.206	.132	9.169	***	par_5
IMI3	<---	IM	.762	.114	6.660	***	par_6
IMI2	<---	IM	1.000				
GA7	<---	G	.584	.140	4.164	***	par_14
GA4	<---	G	.463	.131	3.536	***	par_15

APPENDIX N1

MAIN STUDY: SEM STUDY 7 REACTIVE NON-DURABLE

CFA reactive Chi Square = 111.808 d.f= 96 p=.129 rmsea= .032 rmr= .087 agfi= .884 cfi=.992



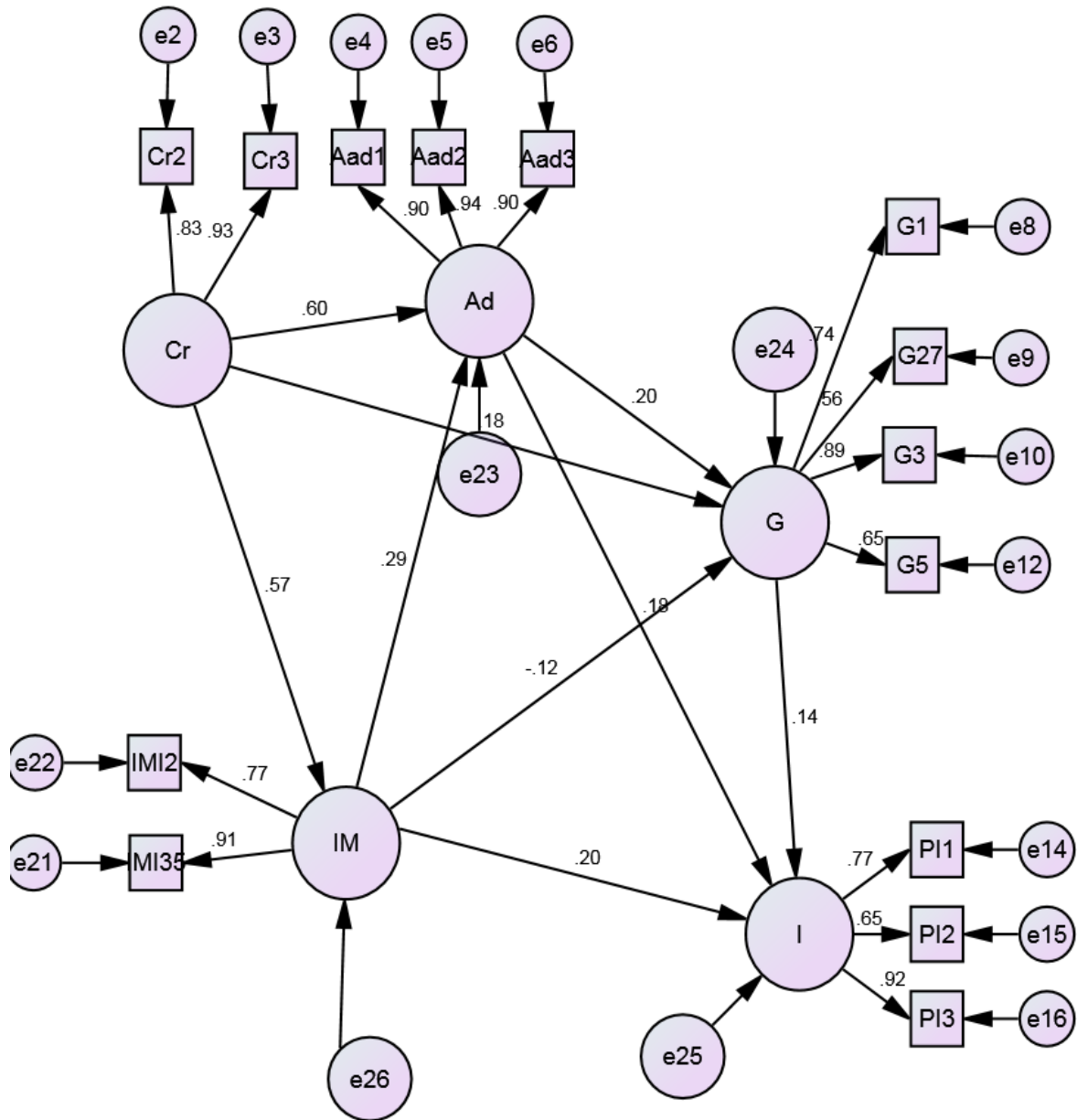
Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
IM	<---	Cr	.405	.088	4.588	***	par_13
Ad	<---	Cr	.760	.079	9.562	***	par_10
Ad	<---	IM	.142	.069	2.048	.041	par_14
G	<---	Ad	.082	.132	.617	.537	par_11
G	<---	IM	-.241	.101	-2.399	.016	par_15
G	<---	Cr	.348	.147	2.372	.018	par_16
I	<---	G	.195	.073	2.679	.007	par_12
I	<---	Ad	.537	.076	7.040	***	par_17
Cr1	<---	Cr	1.000				
Cr2	<---	Cr	.997	.062	15.961	***	par_1
Aad1	<---	Ad	1.000				
Aad2	<---	Ad	.977	.038	25.968	***	par_2
Aad3	<---	Ad	1.010	.043	23.315	***	par_3
G14	<---	G	1.000				
G3	<---	G	1.050	.071	14.799	***	par_4
G5	<---	G	.797	.064	12.361	***	par_5
G6	<---	G	1.004	.067	15.014	***	par_6
PI1	<---	I	1.000				
PI2	<---	I	.837	.095	8.801	***	par_7
PI3	<---	I	.958	.098	9.741	***	par_8
IMI3	<---	IM	.863	.120	7.212	***	par_9
IMI2	<---	IM	1.000				
Cr3	<---	Cr	1.057	.065	16.352	***	par_18
Aad4	<---	Ad	1.035	.066	15.791	***	par_19

APPENDIX N2

MAIN STUDY: SEM STUDY 8 REACTIVE DURABLE

FA reactive Chi Square = 87.067 d.f= 68 p=.059 rmsea= .041 rmr= .136 agfi= .898 cfi=.986



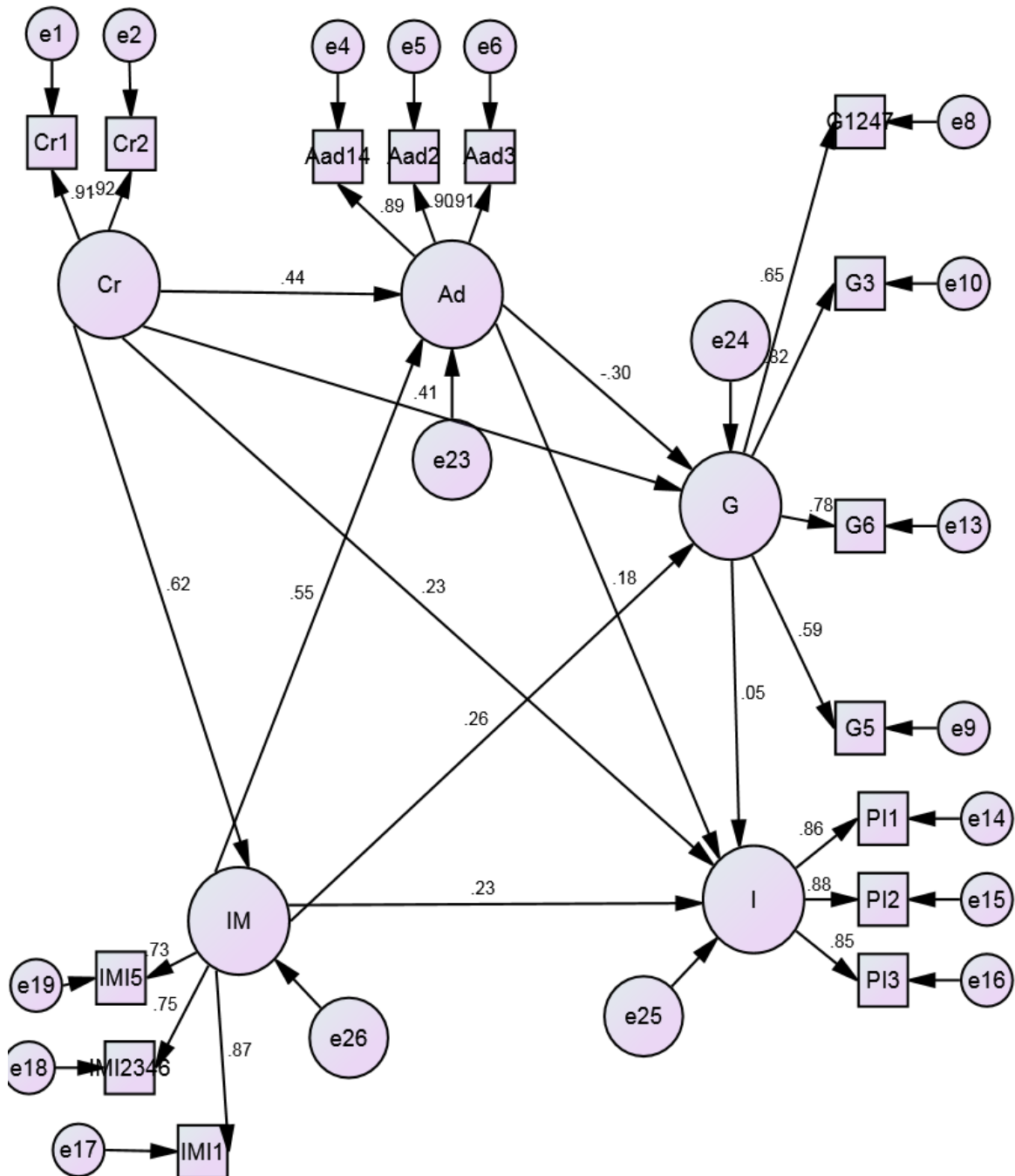
Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
IM	<---	Cr	.522	.087	5.967	***	par_13
Ad	<---	Cr	.630	.087	7.279	***	par_10
Ad	<---	IM	.331	.091	3.654	***	par_14
G	<---	Ad	.196	.153	1.274	.203	par_11
G	<---	IM	-.136	.137	-.995	.320	par_15
G	<---	Cr	.188	.153	1.229	.219	par_16
I	<---	G	.136	.083	1.630	.103	par_12
I	<---	Ad	.163	.107	1.526	.127	par_17
I	<---	IM	.211	.123	1.711	.087	par_18
Cr2	<---	Cr	1.000				
Cr3	<---	Cr	1.141	.090	12.699	***	par_1
Aad1	<---	Ad	1.000				
Aad2	<---	Ad	.936	.048	19.387	***	par_2
Aad3	<---	Ad	.977	.055	17.783	***	par_3
G1	<---	G	1.000				
G27	<---	G	.650	.096	6.760	***	par_4
G3	<---	G	1.158	.122	9.483	***	par_5
G5	<---	G	.751	.095	7.920	***	par_6
PI1	<---	I	1.000				
PI2	<---	I	.864	.105	8.201	***	par_7
PI3	<---	I	1.284	.135	9.495	***	par_8
IMI35	<---	IM	.961	.110	8.729	***	par_9
IMI2	<---	IM	1.000				

APPENDIX N3

MAIN STUDY: SEM STUDY 9 REACTIVE SERVICE

FA reactive Chi Square = 101.707 d.f= 80 p=.051 rmsea= .040 rmr= .098 agfi= .895 cfi=.98



Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
IM	<---	Cr	.599	.075	7.941	***	par_13
Ad	<---	Cr	.427	.066	6.426	***	par_10
Ad	<---	IM	.555	.076	7.325	***	par_14
G	<---	Ad	-.179	.151	-1.183	.237	par_11
G	<---	IM	.158	.119	1.329	.184	par_15
G	<---	Cr	.235	.094	2.496	.013	par_16
I	<---	G	.088	.138	.636	.525	par_12
I	<---	Ad	.187	.214	.870	.384	par_17
I	<---	Cr	.223	.135	1.650	.099	par_19
I	<---	IM	.231	.169	1.369	.171	par_20
Cr1	<---	Cr	1.000				
Cr2	<---	Cr	.964	.059	16.378	***	par_1
Aad14	<---	Ad	1.000				
Aad2	<---	Ad	.949	.054	17.522	***	par_2
Aad3	<---	Ad	1.002	.056	17.941	***	par_3
G1247	<---	G	1.000				
G3	<---	G	1.732	.215	8.052	***	par_4
G6	<---	G	1.617	.205	7.908	***	par_5
PI1	<---	I	1.000				
PI2	<---	I	1.049	.074	14.186	***	par_6
PI3	<---	I	1.015	.075	13.533	***	par_7
IMI1	<---	IM	1.000				
IMI2346	<---	IM	.665	.061	10.962	***	par_8
IMI5	<---	IM	.743	.070	10.626	***	par_9
G5	<---	G	1.127	.175	6.447	***	par_18