Assessing the Emotional Pull of Advertising

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Abstract
The consideration of different running shoe advertisements provoking different emotions in sport consumers was examined in this research. The concept of different emotions leading to different buying behavior of consumers was also looked to be studied. Through snowball sampling, a survey was sent out to participants and results were examined. General demographic questions were asked along with questions about what different feelings participants experienced from looking at three different advertisements. They were also asked how these feelings would change their buying behavior. Responses were categorized into positive, negative, and neutral feelings and intent to purchase was also compared. Participants included adults, male and female and were from the online social media network, Facebook. Basic findings were expected to produce positive emotions resulting in an increased purchase intention and negative feelings resulting in decreased purchase intention. This study will be beneficial to the sport marketing community in further identifying the role emotions play in sport consumer’s behavior.

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*Keywords:* emotions, sport consumers, running shoes, advertising
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The product of sport can be consumed in many ways. Taking an interest in sport can involve different patterns of consumption like attending live events, watching sports on television, surfing internet sites, or purchasing items such as hats, jackets, duffel bags, and even clocks (Crawford, 2004, Chapter 8). When looked at from a sport marketing point of view the product of sport can be put into three categories. These categories are spectator sports, participation sports, and sports-related products (Fullerton & Merz, 2008). Within these three categories marketers can take advantage of alternative forms of advertising. Traditional integration is a technique that uses sport as “part of the marketing program and typically involves the basic components of a marketing mix: a target market and a corresponding marketing mix” while the sponsorship integration method involves activities where “the marketer attempts to capitalize on an official relationship with an event, a team, a player, or some other sports organization” (Fullerton & Merz, 2008, p. 95). Both of these approaches encompass different strategies used to get the consumer to buy the product advertised. The sport-based strategies were examined in the current research to see how such advertisement affects consumer intention. All advertisements not only affect consumer intention, but their attitude as well. The emotions that are derived from such attitudes are the determining factor in the decision making process for a consumer. Therefore, this research examined the topic area of sport marketing and specifically the effect of advertising on consumer’s emotions. The emotion provoked by such advertising was looked at to see the potential influence on consumer buying behavior.

The purpose of this study was to better understand and answer the question of how emotions relate to consumer intentions. This research was meant to determine what type of emotions consumers of sport experience when observing advertisements of running shoes and if
such emotions influence their willingness to purchase the product. Static effect defines that “individual’s feelings at a single point in time influence processing, judgment, and eventually behavior” (Andrade, 2005, p. 355). From this it can be seen that causal influence affects behavior and behavioral intentions based on static affect evaluation theories and dynamic affect regulation theories (Andrade, 2005). The question here is how this relates to the sport industry. From this research, marketers would then have a better understanding of their audience for advertisements. They could enhance the design of their advertisements in order to evoke certain feelings from viewers. Perception is everything, and the way a product will be sold is if the consumer has a need for it or develops an emotional attachment to it. Research connecting feelings and intention will help predict buying behavior patterns.

This research will also be significant for the academic community. By further defining these ideas sport marketing professors will gain knowledge on the best strategies to teach their students, preparing them for future jobs. The information found in this research will also change previous concepts scholars have discussed in this area. There is a need for further investigation on the designs already used, and with this new information new decisions about marketing techniques can be made.

**Literature Review**

Sport Consumption

As sports become more important in people’s lives, the expenditures spent on sports have increased. Scheerder, Vos, and Taks (2011) analyzed socio-demographic and sport-related lifestyle characteristics underlying consumer expenditure on sport apparel. It was found that “the
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decision to spend money on sport clothing and sport shoes is mainly determined by sport-related lifestyle characteristics” such as intensity of sport participation, sport participation of a partner and friends, and the attitude toward sporting goods (Scheerder, Vos, & Taks, 2011, p. 266). The amount of money spent on sport apparel was also attributed to sex, educational level, family size, and a disinterest of watching sports on television (Scheerder, Vos, & Taks, 2011). From this research it is clear that there is a demand for sport and a particular target segment that can be examined. This determines who purchases sport, and can be used to find out why the same group purchases sport. Candemir and Zalluhoglu (2012) also identified similar factors affecting the sport related consumer expenditure including gender, age, income level, marital status, household size or occupation.

Team licensed merchandise is another area of sport consumption. Purchasing team licensed merchandise is linked to the extent fans wish to have a relationship with a team beyond game day (Apostolopoulou et al., 2012). Lee and Trail (2011a) examined further theories that explain purchase intention of team licensed merchandise. The relationship of an individual’s personal values and their attitude which leads to behavioral intention is looked at as well as the impact of satisfaction and perceived product attributes. Attitude is classified into two categories, attitude toward a brand and attitude toward the product. This leads to two aspects of purchase intention, purchase intention of the product and purchase intention of the brand (Lee & Trail, 2011a). Personal values are beliefs that result in behavior that is preferred over an opposite mode of behavior or end-state. The understanding that consumer values and beliefs are guides in purchase intention has been greatly supported in previous research (Doughun et al., 2012; Kwon, Trail, James, 2007; Lee & Trail, 2011a). Lee & Trail (2011b) also examined personal values and found that certain values can be predicted for individuals within a certain location because of
similar and shared socialization processes. This can be applied to the context of sport too. If sports fans have similar values and goal structures marketers can address these factors in their ads (Lee & Trail, 2011b). For Lee and Trail (2011a) using values theory, along with identity theory, attitude theory, and satisfaction theory they were able to form a model to explain purchase intention. Team identification will impact the attitude one forms toward a brand and towards a product, attitude towards a brand will influence the attitude towards a product which will influence purchase intention, and satisfaction will affect attitudes towards a brand and product based on the comparison of product attributes to one’s prior experiences (Lee & Trail, 2011a). These are unique features of team licensed purchase intention compared to other sport consumption segments.

Kwon, Hongbum, and Mondello (2008) reviewed similar factors when looking at the purchases of team licensed merchandise and determined the importance of a manufacturer on sport consumers’ attitudes. For sport team licensed apparel there are two brand names, one for the sport team and one for the manufacturer. This is a different partnership than regular co-branded products because the product quality will only be measured by the manufacturer and a sport team will be the source of symbolic meaning for a consumer (Kwon, Hongbum, & Mondello, 2008). From this researchers found that a consumer will form a brand attitude toward a co-branded team licensed product according to their previous attitude toward each manufacturer and this will additionally impact their purchase intention (Kwon, Honbum, & Mondello, 2008). Consumers will respond differently to a manufacture of team licensed merchandise and if team identification is constant they will base purchases off of attitudes towards the manufacturer. For the current study, the goal was to discover consumers’ attitudes towards an advertisement, not a brand. Research done by Kwon, Honbum, and Mondello (2008)
showed that a certain manufacturer can create brand bias for participants purchasing team licensed merchandise; therefore it can be assumed that the same type of brand bias will be present when buying sporting goods, like running shoes, no matter how emotions affect consumers. The same idea can fit with sport sponsorships. Depending on the sponsorship attached to a sport product and the level of team identification, brand image will be influenced and consumer purchase intention will be impacted (Lings & Owen, 2007; Tanvir & Shahid, 2012).

Motives to Consume Sport

Males and females have different motives for consuming sport. James and Ridinger (2002) tested eight motives to see their importance for a sample population. Empathy, aesthetics, achievement, escape, action, knowledge, social interaction, and family were all motives studied. The results found that men are greater fans of sport in general over females (James & Ridinger, 2002). However, men and women are similar in their strength for support for one team in general. Females enjoy sports just as much as males, but males derive an important “social identity” from sport which they experience when achievement of the team is higher, knowledge of the game is better, and empathy, potentially caused by a poor play, is experienced (James & Ridinger, 2002). Female’s greatest motives were action, escape, and drama of the game (James & Ridinger, 2002). Discovering reasons for men and women to consume sport, and in this case sporting events, can help determine the promotional campaigns needed to attract consumers. By attracting individuals to enough sporting events it could possibly turn them into loyal fans which will cause their team identification to go up. Depending on what level of identification one fan has may influence which type of behaviors they exhibit (James & Ridinger, 2002). Improving health, relieving work and life pressure, and need of
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social contact are all identified as motivation for sport consumption as well, but differ between men and women depending on certain factors (Xianliang & Hongying, 2012). The degree to which an individual holds characteristics of impulse buying of sport merchandise are also reasons for consumption (Kwon & Armstrong, 2006; Kwon & Armstrong, 2002). Motivation for children to consume sport is due to social factors and prior participation factors (Casper, 2010).

Motives for males and females to consume sport are important to know as well as motives to attend different types of sporting events. Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, and Pease (2008) discovered that people that attend individual sports do so because of aesthetic motivation. Factors for consuming team sports were more due to eustress, self-esteem, group affiliation, entertainment, and family motivations (Wann, Grieve, Zapalac & Pease, 2008). Individual sports, such as figure skating or gymnastics, compared to basketball or football can also factor into motives for fans consumption. Team identification can be lower for individual sports or individual athletes that only compete for a few years in comparison to a basketball player that gets moved from team to team over a long period of time and keeps playing. The same goes for entertainment motivation. The pace of the sport could be a reason a spectator becomes a fan of basketball instead of golf. Aggressive or nonaggressive sports or violent compared to less violent sports are also deal breakers. Aesthetic motivation and enjoyment were motivators of these categories as well (Wann, Grieve, Zapalac & Pease, 2008). This information can be valuable when trying to reach consumers. It can be limited in the way that everyone is different and it is hard to group people together into reasons for their action. In this way their unconscious responses to stimuli would need to be examined.
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Alonso Dos Santos (2012) has acknowledged these types of motives to attend sporting events and has proposed two models, or attendance motivations scales, to be used to understand consumer behavior in the context of sporting events. One is based on planned behavior theory and the other is on the expectation disconfirmation theory. The goal of this strategy was to formulate successful marketing techniques to generate higher attendance (Alonso Dos Santos, 2012). The research done by Alonso Dos Santos (2012) also examined the role of satisfaction in sport marketing or sporting events by looking at emotions. Factors that enhance the consumer’s affective state during sport consumption indirectly increase satisfaction (Alonso Dos Santos, 2012).

Barriers to Consume Sports

Factors that impede or inhibit an individual from attending a sporting event or consuming sport are known as constraints (Yu Kyoum & Trail, 2010). By figuring out consumer’s constraints, an individual’s choices and behaviors are revealed. There are three categories that suggest leisure constraints. They include intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints (Yu Kyoum & Trail, 2010). Intrapersonal constraints would be those affecting an individual’s psychological state such as stress. Interpersonal constraints have to do with the lack of relationship with others, or not having anyone to consume with. Structural constraints are factors that interfered with participation like financial resources or scheduling of work time. When investigating reasons for these constraints, Yu Kyoum and Trail (2010) discovered that “contextual changes might flip a factor from being a constraint to being a motivator or vice versa” (p. 205). For example, team performance could be a motivator or a constraint. It is important to recognize constraints to minimize them as much as possible while at the same time
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making efforts to turn them into motivators. By highlighting constraints one can find value in why someone would not consume sport while in the same way knowing the importance of why they would.

Role of Emotions

Morris, Woo, Geason, and Kim (2002) found that an individual’s emotional response is a powerful predictor of intention and brand attitude. Like this group of researchers, Kwak, Kim, and Hirt (2011) conducted a study to see how people perceive marketing stimuli and if their negative or positive response affected their behavior. Message condition seemed to have an effect on team identification level. Messages can prompt pleasure, arousal, dominance, pride, and shame (Kwak, Kim, & Hirt, 2011). Those who perceived the message as positive felt pleasure, arousal, dominance, and pride where negative interpretations caused shameful feelings. The next step of this research was to see if the feelings produced from the message caused spectators to take part in a promotional giveaway or not. Participants who felt the message was negative were less likely to accept the promotion than those subjects that thought the message was positive or neutral (Kwak, Kim, & Hirt, 2011). This supports the theory that if a stimulus is perceived as positive it will affect participants in a positive way. “Message framing” can affect emotional outcomes which then have a role in one’s behavioral response (Kwak, Kim, & Hirt, 2011). This emotion can affect how a person perceives product value and quality. Emotions influence stages of decision making like evaluation, intention, choice, and formation (Kwak, Kim, & Hirt, 2011; Leone, Pergugini, & Bagozzi, 2005). Mood and the impact of thinking about one’s mood also results in behavioral consequences. Moods can unconsciously affect perceptions and when an individual simply thinks about their mood it can influence their choices in an attempt to regulate it (Caruso & Shafir, 2006).
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Fishbein (1963) found that beliefs have an effect on attitudes and one's strongest belief has the greatest influence on his or her attitude. His theory stated an individual holds many beliefs about an object. These beliefs are things such as characteristics, attributes, values, and goals that are positively or negatively associated with an object. In association with an object people have mediating evaluative responses, or different attitudes produced because of the object. This attitude is so strong that future occasions involving that object will elicit the same response. A person’s attitude towards an object is a “function of his beliefs about the object and the evaluative aspect of those beliefs” (Fishbein, 1963, p. 233). This can be looked at from a sports point of view to determine consumer’s attitudes towards sporting goods. Using a multiattribute attitude measurement model can help one understand how a person feels about a product. Including emotional information in the multiattribute attitude model can also be helpful in identifying prediction and preference (Allen et al., 2005). It can quantify consumers’ attitudes toward competing brands to find the degree to which each of the brands possess certain attributes and which attributes are the most important to the consumer. For the current study researchers were looking to identify emotions at one point, not examine future or past occasions with the advertisement.

Marketing Stimuli

There are different ways advertising can be presented. No matter what medium spectators are viewing advertising it is the job of the advertiser to “create effective campaigns which do not elicit negative reactions from consumers and generate a positive attitude toward the advertisement” (Do Young & Jeffrey, 2009). Understanding what belief constructs impact attitude toward advertising through sport will be extremely beneficial to marketers. Research
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done by Do Young and Jeffrey (2009) explained this by using categorization theory. It is figured through this theory that consumers who have a positive attitude toward sport have a more positive attitude toward advertising through sport (Do Young & Jeffrey, 2009). Tsiotsou (2006) also examined the main concepts of marketing and advertising to explain the role of these things on purchase intentions. A model was then formed to include consumer involvement, satisfaction, and perceived quality to explain the role of purchase intention. The quality and overall satisfaction with an advertisement has the same direct effect on purchase intention and are mediators between involvement and purchase intention (Tsiotsou, 2006). When the quality of a product is high consumers are satisfied and more likely to purchase it again. From this it is understood that marketing strategies should be “designed so that they emphasize product attributes and cues that will enhance consumers’ perceived product quality” (Tsiotsou, 2006, p. 214).

Emotions Connected to Purchases

The concept of a sport product being a symbolic purchase was looked at in previous research. Sport team-licensed merchandise is a symbolic purchase in the way that it’s consumed to show support for the team or to be a part of the team (Kwak & Kang, 2009). The self-image congruence model states that a consumer’s self-concept needs to match the team’s image in order to positively impact buying decisions (Kwak & Kang, 2009). The self-congruity theory also states that self-expressive motivation is a trigger for consumers to purchase goods and services (Kwak & Kang, 2009). These factors are vital to marketers when forming ads. Value expressive advertising needs to reference brand congruity with consumers self-concept features. When consumers see the type of person depicted in an ad performing some sort of behavior and they feel their own self-image matches this typical person their enthusiasm toward the ad will
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increase and it will ensure a strong self-congruity experience (Aguirre-Rodrigyes et al., 2012; Fitzmaurice, 2005).

Kressmann et al. (2006) conducted a study with the goal of creating a link between self-congruity and brand loyalty. Researchers hypothesized that the greater the self-congruity the greater the loyalty and commitment to the brand, in particularly with automobiles. This is because “actual self-congruity implies that the brand serves to satisfy the consumer’s need for self-consistency prompting the consumer to evaluate one’s own brand positively” (Kressmann et al., 2006, p. 957). For research presented in this paper, the focus was not on an advertisements brand, although brand loyalty still impacted emotions towards a product. Kressmann et al.’s (2006) provides important implications for the self-congruity theory. To measure self-congruity they used difference scores between fifteen brand personalities and five dimensions of self-image (Kressmann et al., 2006). This inventory was used to discover how participants believed the personality attributes of the object applied to them, how they would like to be perceived, how the brand of car would be as a person, and how important it was for this person to be a certain way. Answers were then put into a mathematical formula to gain insight on actual self-congruity and ideal self-congruity. Results found vital importance of self-congruity in predicting brand loyalty and that integrating brand relationship into self-congruity theory is relevant (Kressmann et al., 2006). Helgeson and Supphellen (2004) have also studied actual self-congruity and ideal self-congruity and have found that self-congruity and brand personality effects brand attitude. The smaller the difference between the self and the brand being looked at the higher the preference for that brand will be (Branaghan & Hildebrand, 2011; Helgenson & Supphellen, 2004; Kressmann et al., 2006;).
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Rossiter and Bellman (2012) have found that consumers who bond with a brand, who regard it as a companion, or who admit they feel something similar to love will make greater purchases of the brand and have higher usage of the brand. Emotionally attached consumers are the brands best customers and the best predictor of brand purchase volume is brand attitude. This was proven by testing a variable called brand emotional attachment (Rossiter & Bellman, 2012). The four strongest attachment-like emotions were ordered one through four in terms of their strength of attachment and then analyzed. It is not clear if consumers can be told through advertising to regard a brand as their own or to see it as a companion, but by examining one’s emotions from advertising will help determine if emotional branding is more useful than traditional methods of advertising.

Brand attachment is differentiated from brand attitude strength in Whan Park et al.’s (2010) research. In this research a novel scale was provided that maps properties of brand attachment and its relationship to attitude strength. It was found that brand attachment predicts intentions to perform behaviors that use consumer resources and it is a “stronger predictor of actual consumer behaviors than brand attitude strength” (Whan Park et al., 2010). There are four differences between brand attachment and brand strength as found by Whan Park et al. (2010). Brand attachment affects a brand as far as a consumer links it to themselves while brand attitude reflects a consumer’s evaluations involving judgment of the brand. Brand attachment applies strength to the bond that connects the brand with a consumer’s self while brand attitude applies strength to a person’s judgment of the goodness or badness of the brand. These two theories differ in their range of valence. Attitudes range from positive to negative and attachments range from weak to strong. Attachment is also time dependent and attitude is not. Brand attitudes are based on elaboration that can be formed in an instance (Whan Park et al., 2010).
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Decision to Buy

Decision-making styles can be used to predict purchasing behaviors. Sungwon and Miller (2009) studied the different styles that are special to each gender. With the use of the Consumer Styles Inventory created by Sproles and Kendall (1986) eight basic consumer decision-making characteristics were looked at. They include value for money/price consciousness, perfectionist/high-quality consciousness, brand consciousness, novelty/fashion consciousness, habitual/brand-loyal orientation, recreational shopping consciousness, impulsiveness/carelessness, and confusion from over choice. Questions concerning each characteristic were asked and results show sport apparel shopping pattern differences between male and female college-aged consumers. The majority of females valued quality, recreation, confusion, impulse, and brand consciousness more than males (Sungwon & Miller, 2009). Females may spend more time gathering information about a product although they will participate in a greater amount of impulsive buying too (Sungwon & Miller, 2009). With this information decision-making style guidelines can be formed to help understand consumer behavior between males and females.

When making decisions consumers often look at all alternatives. Teng and Laroche (2007) conducted research to understand how the information about a competing ad and brand is processed and how these evaluations influence decisions. “Ad affect” is an important determinant in the formation of ad attitude (Teng & Laroche, 2007). This research took multiple print advertisements of digital cameras and made them with few differences. They then asked participants about positive or negative cognitions for the focal ad and competing ad. Also, they manipulated pictures to elicit positive or negative feelings. One picture was emphasizing self-
expression and uniqueness and the other was emphasizing group connections and feelings of harmony with others. Measuring ad cognition was used to assess the content, graphic design and layout of competing ads. Ad affect, attitude toward the ad, brand cognition, attitude toward the brand and purchase intention were also measured. Results show that taking into consideration consumers’ emotions and confidence in evaluating a brand will help determine their decision-making process. The higher level of affective responses to an ad led to a higher evaluation of the ad (Teng & Laroche, 2007). Brand cognition impacts brand attitude and confidence in evaluating the brand, while confidence influences purchase intention (Teng & Laroche, 2007). Also, it was believed that consumers evaluate attribute information independently for several brands. Contrary to this belief, Teng and Laroche (2007) have found that information about competing advertisements is processed comparatively and the evaluations of competing ads directly affect evaluations of the advertisement. Marketers not only have to pay attention to their own advertisements, but understand competitor’s advertisements and products to understand consumer decision making styles.

Based on the analysis of previous research such as that presented above, there were clearly some variances and areas that needed further investigation. This research was meant to provide additional evidence to help in the ongoing investigation of how emotions influence purchasing behavior.

**Methods**

**Research Tradition**

Sport is a social phenomenon and consumers of sport are influenced by a number of social factors (Gratton & Jones, 2010). Individuals react to these factors in different ways. This
research was not certain on the responses it would get because of the nature of the questions and hence was not generalizable. The nature of the question was not to understand the data in terms of a causal relationship. It was expected that the participants who provided data to this research would have different responses due to their freedom to act in different ways. The goal was to try and describe or explain the connection between the participant and the information they were taking in from the advertisement to identify common threads. This is why an interpretivism approach was best for this research. This allowed for the researcher to gain an insider’s perspective and provide a chance to understand subjects from within. Words and statements were collected in order to get data from the viewpoint of the participant. Uncovering meanings, values, and explanations were discovered from the results. The approach used did not look for the ‘truth’; it explored explanations (Gratton & Jones, 2010). There is not a single reality and all data was interpreted by the researcher. As Gratton and Jones (2010) points out, the basis of the interpretivism approach is one’s feelings and emotions explaining sporting behavior which is what was being studied here (pg. 28).

Qualitative data was valuable in this research and provided information about what emotions participants were experiencing. With this data the researcher was able to capture meanings or qualities, feelings, thoughts and experiences from participants (Gratton & Jones, 2013). Qualitative methods were intended to collected rich data from participant’s explanations. This research embodied an inductive approach with the pattern of collecting data, and analyzing that data to develop a theory, model or explanation for the results (Gratton & Jones, 2010, pg. 36).
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Conceptual Framework

In order to investigate the effects of advertisements on individuals the concept of emotions and attitudes was addressed. Someone’s feelings at the moment they saw the advertisement and the moment after they saw the advertisement would have influenced their viewpoint of the advertisement. Feelings could have included mood lifting emotions or mood threatening emotions (Andrade, 2005). Mood lifting emotions are positive while mood threatening emotions are negative. Such feelings can be measured by the amount of mood lifting or threatening cues in an advertisement. For this research feelings and attitudes were considered interchangeable. Feelings towards the product or the brand were not of interest in this research. Attitudes toward the advertisement were the main focus. Attitudes include a function of someone’s beliefs and their evaluation of those beliefs. Attitudes reflected consumer’s evaluations involving judgment of a product and is a force of persuasion.

Purchase intention or behavioral intentions have to do with lifestyle characteristics. A person’s beliefs about an advertisement or a product would influence their intent to purchase that item. There is a direct relationship between personal values, attitudes, and behavioral intention (Lee & Trail, 2011a). Evaluation and choice of a product all encompass intention to purchase. Intent to purchase means an individual has made the decision to buy an item. It has to do with the appeal of the product. Purchase intention was considered the next step in obtaining the product.

The theory of planned behavior was also used in this research. The theory of planned behavior has to do with the theory of reasoned action (Alonso Dos Santos, 2012). The three basic components of this theory are attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control. All of
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these things determine intention and behavior. One’s attitude is the result of evaluating a behavior, subjective norms include the pressure on someone to act in a particular way, and perceived control refers to the factors that facilitate or prevent the carrying out of an activity (Alonso Dos Santos, 2012). This theory can be looked at as a factor in the decision making process. The independent variable in the research presented in this paper was the emotion one felt and the dependent variable was the intent to purchase. All other moderating variables were matters that had an effect on the relationship. This would have been something like the brand or previous knowledge of the advertisement. The intervening variables were how the mood created from the emotion one got from the advertisements affected their intentions.

Theoretical Framework

Based on these concepts the theoretical framework for this research was built from the self-congruity theory. As previously stated, this theory has to do with the consumption of sport being a symbolic purchase. The consumer’s self-concept needs to match the team’s image to impact buying decisions (Kwak & Kang, 2009). Relating this to running shoes or products not connected to a sports team, a consumer’s self-concept still needs to match the image surrounding the product to increase purchasing intentions. It is not the image of the brand that mattered here, it was the advertisement itself. Self-congruity helps explain why people looked at an advertisement and felt certain emotions. Self-expressive motivation would cause consumers to purchase goods. The more similar the advertisement of a product was to oneself it was expected to create a better chance of that individual buying it. Self-congruity theory can help explain why participants of this study reacted to different forms of marketing stimuli. As stated by Fitzmaurice (2005), “the closer match between one’s self-concept and a proposed behavior, the
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more motivated a consumer is to act” (pg. 915). When consumers saw certain behavior or a certain theme depicted in the ad and felt their own self-image matched this typical person their enthusiasm toward the ad was projected to increase to ensure a strong self-congruity experience (Aguirre-Rodrigues et. al, 2012; Fitzmaurice, 2005).

Design

Data was collected through a cross sectional survey (See Appendix). Assessments were made based off of one time data collection and an experimental design, attempting to identify whether emotions had an effect upon behavior. In order to do this, qualitative data was collected. Standard questions inquiring about demographics of participants were asked. (For example, participant’s gender and age.) Then the use of open ended questions was used to allow for qualitative responses. Participants were allowed to choose all answers that applied to them and encouraged to elaborate on any they needed to with an open text box. All questions were inquiring about a specific advertisement and there were three separate advertisements that were analyzed. The questions were solely about the participant’s emotions. (For example, asking participant’s how the advertisements made them feel). Intention to purchase the product was also asked in the questionnaire. To account for brand loyalty a question was asked using a Likert scale, which was also meant to keep qualitative data manageable. The question specifically asked if participant’s emotions would change if they knew the brand of the advertisement. A matrix displayed different brands (Nike, Under Armour, Asic, Brooks, and Mizuno) and a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree was used to show the importance of each of the brands on one’s intent to purchase. Based on previous factors that influence a consumer’s decision making process, questions included factors of trust, bonding, resonance, companionship, and love. Some
other factors considered were pleasure, arousal, or pride (Kwak, Kim, Hirt, 2011; Rossiter & Bellman, 2012). Taken from anecdotal data, factors also included happiness, sadness, anger, anxiety, judgment, or excitement. Providing advertisements of multiple brands were used. Specifically, advertisements of Under Armour and Nike were used for a comparison. The same questions were applied to all three ads and the message of the advertisements was examined to understand what caused the differences.

Sample

Participants were reached based off of their presence on the social media site Facebook. Runner’s World Verified Facebook Page has 626,541 ‘likes’ on its page. People view this page to discuss running and this page delivers highlights the “world’s leading running magazine, informs, advises, and motivates runners of all ages and abilities” (Runners World, n.d.). The people who showed an interest in this page were those to whom the survey targeted. The researcher posted the survey link on this page with a description of the aim of the research. To gain more exposure the survey was posted on the wall of New York Road Runners page as well. Also, the survey was posted on the researcher’s personal Facebook page to reach out to ‘friends’. Participants overall were reached through snowball sampling. Initial participants were located from the researcher’s Facebook page, and those initial participants identified further potential participants themselves (Gratton & Jones, 2010). The survey was posted and then intended to be reposted by all that took it. At the end of the survey there were instructions asking the participant to repost the survey in order to get more participants. People all over the world have access to Facebook the volume and the consistency the survey was reposted would entice participants to comply. This process allowed a sample of males and females to take the survey.
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Based on the usage of Facebook participants will range from ages 16 to 55. Responses outside of this range will still be considered to aid in this research. A variety of responses will help in discovering any common threads between participants.

Procedure

Before participants were contacted a pilot test was run. A group of six people were asked to take the survey and provided feedback on its quality. From these responses, answers were looked at to determine necessary changes to the survey and changes to specific questions. After these suggestions were taken into consideration the survey was finalized.

Once the survey was finalized the link was put up on Facebook. The survey was posted on the researcher’s Facebook twice. It was also posted on NYRR Facebook and Runner’s World as well. If participants had questions they were encouraged to contact the researcher and that contact information was given.

When choosing the advertisements it was the intent of the research to control as much as possible for brand bias. Therefore the advertisements excluded the brand name directly. Other variables that needed to be controlled for include getting answers that were false or getting participants that gave answers just to complete the survey. To control for this a disclaimer was put in the survey asking for truthful answers. Participants taking the survey were asked to give only their personal experiences, not those of more than one person.

All advertisements were chosen based on their focus as well as the indirectness of the brand. Running was the main emphasis not the action of the individual, the number of people in the ad, or the apparel or scenery in the ad. All advertisements were for running shoes, not a
particular type of shoe or brand of shoe. This is because everyone has different needs when it comes to shoes; this research was just looking at the emotions an advertisement of a shoe caused. It is not the logistics about the sole of the shoe, the arch, or the like. Multiple companies’ advertisements were used in hopes that participants would examine an advertisement they were unfamiliar with. Advertisements were altered slightly to remove brand images when applicable to avoid concentrating on the brand instead of the advertisement itself. Visual effects of the advertisement as well as the text were all factors that were looked at when determining usage and the aim was to get a variety of advertisements in order to examine different techniques.

Analysis

When results were collected they were interpreted to identify similar responses and patterns. Analytic techniques included open coding and axial coding (Gratton & Jones, 2010). This was done to see what categories could be formed and what fit together. This process included assigning codes to answers received and organizing data into categories. When these groups were established, any additional codes were examined. Codes included answers that were positive versus answers that were negative. (For example, feelings such as happy and excited will be positive while anger and anxiety will be negative.) Other potential codes could include neutral or indifferent feelings as well as codes which allude to purchase intentions. Confirmation bias was avoided by looking for contradicting data as well as confirmatory data to challenge the researcher’s ideas. Some surveys were thrown out based on the level they were completed. If 75 % of the questions on the survey were not answered the survey was invalid and not analyzed. If answers were off topic and of no relative importance to the research, the responses were also discounted.
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Responses for the question about brand loyalty were looked at to conduct a paired sample T-test. A t-test was used to investigate whether there was a significant difference between values of the same measurement under two different conditions.

Conclusions were drawn which were anticipated to either support or deny previous research on the topic. Based on a consumer’s self-expressive motivation it was assumed that it would lead a consumer to purchase goods and when there was a match this would lead to a favorable brand evaluation and preference. Participants would therefore most likely engage in behavior that maintains or enhances their self-theory. Positive emotions would presumably elicit higher intention to purchase the tested product and negative emotions would lead to a disliking of the ad and decrease the chances of participants purchasing it.

Results

Responses were gathered in order to investigate if there was a relationship between emotions and an individual’s intent to purchase. Through snowball sampling a total of 104 responses were collected to answer this question. Only 96 respondents provided their gender, 58 being female and 38 being male, and 91 responses indicated age. The median age was 30 years old with the youngest participant being 18 and the oldest 65. This wide range of participants was expected with the method of distribution being Facebook targeting anyone within reach. As the research tried to reach runners and athletes who purchase running shoes, the majority of responses hold true. Of 104 responses, 38 (37%) participate in physical activity two to three times a week and 32 (31%) participated in physical activity daily. This suggests that there are responses from active athletes whom running shoe advertisements are targeted toward. Only two responses (2%) said they never participate in physical activity. Relating these findings to
purchase behavior it would be assumed that the group of participants who said they participated in physical activity two to three times a week or daily would purchase shoes most frequently. When asked how frequently participants purchased running shoes, 44 responses (43%) do so twice a year. Once every three to six months had 17 (17%) of responses from the sample. There was no way of knowing if the same participant who participated in physical activity daily would have the need to purchase shoes more than twice a year, however it is logical to assume that the more often shoes are used the more often they need to be replaced.

When categorizing the type of physical activity the most notable responses were those who choose cardio training, endurance, or both. This provided a better explanation of the sample. Cardio received the most responses with 77 (75%) of participants and endurance was 43 (42%) of responses. When coded into the three categories, responses from 34 participants chose both cardio and endurance and 38 choose cardio. Only 12 participants chose endurance without choosing cardio as well. Those that take part in this sort of physical activity would be those most likely purchasing running shoes over those who do strength training, balance, and flexibility.

Emotions are the main focus of this research, but to account of other factors that go into purchasing running shoes participants were asked what influences their decision for purchasing. The most responses were comfort of shoe with 90 (87%) acknowledging this factor and 70 responses (68%) saying the cost of the shoe. Also, 59 (57%) said the style influenced their purchase and 53 (51%) purchased because of the brand. Material of the shoe was the least prevalent with 21 (20%) responses. Nine participants (9%) choose other providing an explanation of “proper fit for my foot”, “support”, “I always buy the same model”, and shoes “made in the USA”. Since participants were able to check all the factors that influenced them it
is not clear which was the most important factor. Out of 103 responses, only 10 did not choose comfort as a factor, so it can be assumed that this is a major consideration. 77 responses said that the material of the shoe was not a factor. Brand, style, and cost were more of a consideration as only 48 people did not consider brand, 40 people did not depend on the style, and 32 did not purchase based on cost.

The emotions produced from looking at the advertisements were broken down into three categories, positive, negative, and neutral. Positive emotions included feeling happy, excited, motivated, proud, and having a sense of love. Negative emotions included feeling sad, angry, anxious, and shame. Those who felt no reaction were categorized as having neutral feelings. Those who chose conflicting emotions were classified as having mixed emotions.

When first asked what emotions participants felt when analyzing advertisement one, at least 38 (38%) participants felt some positive emotion. On the other hand, 28 (28%) participants felt negatively and 12 (12%) experienced no emotion. Factoring in the other 20 (20%) responses that choose other, these responses are overall negative with explanations like feeling annoyed, frustrated, confused, numb, and stressed. Twelve (12%) responses were neutral with participants feeling none of the listed emotions. When asked a second time, 20 (20%) of participants felt positive emotions and 18 participants (18%) felt negative emotions. Participants who choose other provided explanations of feeling anxiety, annoyance, embarrassment, and irritation which are classified as being negative. This accounts for 20 (20%) of responses. Participants who choose neutral made up 41 (40%) of the responses. Overall it would appear that advertisement one had a negative effect and this was further supported when participants were asked if they would purchase the shoe based off of this advertisement and 77 (76%) said no while 24 (24%)
said yes. This brings up a point of interest and an area for further analysis. Of the 38 people who felt positively when asked the first time and the 20 people who felt positively when asked a second time, only 24 (24%) of participants said they would purchase the shoe. Therefore, positive emotions did not have an influence on purchasing behavior for this sample in this example. One specific example can help put this into perspective. Responses from 38 people show they felt motivated, an overall positive emotion. Only 24 participants said yes for purchasing shoes based off of the advertisement. That leaves at least 14 individuals who would not purchase, but experienced positive emotions.

With advertisement two similar results were found. When asked first 59 (58%) participants experienced positive emotions and 35 (34%) participants experienced positive emotions the second time. Negative emotions were experienced by only three (3%) participants for the second ad when asked first and two (2%) participants when asked a second time. Of the responses 23 (23%) were neutral the first time and 43 (42%) were neutral the second time. The second advertisement resulted in more positive emotions across the board, except intent to purchase was still low. Of participants 58 (57%) said they would not purchase the shoes based off the advertisement and 43 (43%) said yes, they would. Also, 80 responses (78%) stated they liked the advertisement and 22 (22%) said they did not like it. Again, participants showed favorable feelings towards the advertisement, this time acknowledged they liked it, yet still were not influenced to purchase based on this evidence.

Responses for advertisement three were consistent with the previous ads. Fifty-one (50%) responses were positive the first time asked and 42 (42%) were positive the second time. The first time there were 12 (12%) participants that experienced negative emotions and 14 (14%)
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the second time. Neutral reactions were greater than the negative category with 31 responses and 21 responses. Still when asked who would purchase shoes based off of this advertisement, 52 (53%) said no and 46 (47%) said yes.

Intending to account for brand bias participants were asked if they agreed or disagreed with the following statement: Despite an advertisement, I will purchase a product based on this brand. A Likert scale was used with answers ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree for five different brands. A paired sample T-test was conducted to compare the degree to which participants were loyal to Nike to the degree participants were loyal to Under Armour. For Nike there were 67 responses for agreeing participants would buy shoes from Nike regardless of their advertisements. Similarly, 50 responses agreed with the statement when purchasing Under Armour products. There was a significant difference in the scores for Nike (M=3.71, SD=1.151) and Under Armour (M=3.28, SD=1.176); t(95)=3.612, p<.000. The alpha was .05. From the analysis it was found that the value of p was less than .000. This shows there is a statistically significant difference between Nike and Under Armour. There was strong brand loyalty for Nike users and this brand loyalty was stronger than any other brand tested, including Under Armour, Asic, Brooks, and Mizuno.

Discussion

Based on the responses it can be concluded that the majority of the respondents experienced positive emotions from all three ads. However, the mere feeling of positivity is not enough to influence purchasing behavior. Morris, Woo, Geason, and Kim (2002) stated that an emotional response will be a predictor of intent to purchase certain products. From this research it shows that the emotion itself does not act as a predictor. It may be the strength of this
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emotional response that is the true indicator of intent. Kwak, Kim, and Hirt (2011) suggest that individuals who feel a message is negative are less likely to accept the message compared to those who see the message as positive or neutral. From this study there seemed to be no connection or definitive line supporting this. When participants found the message positive, they still disregarded the advertisement and stated they would not purchase shoes because of this. The theoretical framework suggesting the self-congruity theory was not supported in this research. Participants of this research did not accept self-expressive motivation triggers meant to influence their purchase decision. Instead they acknowledged these values and they had no noticeable impact on purchase intention. Specifically, advertisement three showed some evidence of the self-congruity theory. Overall the explanation for participants choosing ‘other’ as to how they felt responses included feeling defeated, insufficient, annoyed, alienated, and challenged. Since this is projecting a negative self-image and people usually avoid these feelings it is understandable why their enthusiasm toward the ad would decrease. This is a negative self-congruity experience. However this is just one example of where the theory would have made sense. Taking into consideration that the majority of responses were positive for all three ads under the theory responses for whom would purchase the shoe based on the ad would have been higher. Instead all three questions of purchase intention resulted in a ‘no’. It is also worthy to note that for advertisement two more participants said they liked the ad yet they would still not purchase the shoes because of it.

From this research it is clear that there needs to be more of an investigation to see the full impact of emotions on consumer’s intention to buy sport products, specifically running shoes. It is worth further investigation so marketers can reach their target market better and potentially relate to more customers. If this research was done again participants should be restricted in
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	heir answers. The option to check all that apply should be limited. For example, participants should be asked to define their strongest emotion when shown different advertisement as opposed to selecting every emotion they feel. The question of one’s dominant feeling needs to be asked to get a better understanding of how this feeling would impact their purchasing decision. Also, choosing the most significant factor that influences purchasing behavior instead of every factor should be analyzed.

The sample for future research should be narrower. This study was done through snowball sampling using a Facebook page where most ‘friends’ of the page were young adults ranging from 18-28. Also, ‘friends’ of the page were of all athletic backgrounds, some who did not participate in physical activity while some exercised regularly. It would be beneficial to contact more serious runners and elicit their responses. Asking an avid runner their opinion on ads can provide in essence an expert opinion. This research was beneficial in the way that it targeted regular individuals and incorporated brands like Nike who encourage anyone to purchase their running shoe as a common street shoe. Nonetheless, future research could focus on different brands who deal only with running shoes to get a different view of the question.

Additionally, choosing the advertisements for future research should be done more methodically. The advertisements in this research were meant to be different from one another. The brand was not disguised and the shoe itself was not the focus. Future research could be done with a specific brand or a specific shoe line to see the effect of the advertising of that company. This could be valuable market research and aid in transforming the way marketers create their ads. From this research it was shown that comfort and cost were two major factors in purchasing behavior. Comfort and cost were two things that were not depicted in the advertisements.
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Future research could take this into consideration and show a variety of advertisements not only with those of images of runners, but potentially more information about the shoe itself. Emotions related to an image or emotions related to facts could be examined.

The survey in this research was helpful in getting an abundance of responses in a short amount of time. If the research was to be completed in the future, researchers should think about having focus groups or interviews with participants. For this study participants had the option to elaborate and give more of a detailed response, but most of them did not. Giving the participant a chance to verbalize how they are feeling instead of giving them options to choose from will provide for improved results.

In addition, discovering more information about who the participants are would be beneficial. Since it was seen from this research that Nike consumers are very loyal to their brand, this research could be done excluding these individuals. Participants could be runners who purchase other brands and researchers could ask them how they felt. Considering that Nike is a brand that has been around for a while, future research could use a relatively new brand to see how effective their advertising strategies are in comparison.

**Conclusion**

To discover if emotions impacted purchasing behavior for individuals a survey was conducted using three different advertisements. Participants were asked a series of questions to find out how often they participate in physical activity, what type of physical activity they participated in, how often they purchased running shoes, and what factors went into their purchase. They were then asked to elaborate on the feelings they experienced from analyzing an
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advertisement and discuss if the advertisements would make them purchase running shoes. It was found that positive emotions from an advertisement would not cause an individual to be more likely to purchase the product presented. A person may like an advertisement, but that does not directly impact their intent to purchase. The extent to which a participant is loyal to a brand will influence their purchasing behavior regardless of the advertisement. With a paired sample t-test it was found that Nike has the strongest brand loyalty of the participants in this study over the other brands tested. This information shows there is a need for further investigation on the influence emotions have on individuals to better understand their intent to purchase sporting good.
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Appendix

The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of the way emotions affect an individual's intent to purchase. As a participant in this research, you are being asked to complete this survey that addresses your reactions and emotions to a specific shoe advertisement. This survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

The information you provide will aid in determining common themes in advertising that have the best results on consumers. Participation is voluntary. You may start this survey and withdraw at any time.

By completing this survey, you will give me permission for your participation.

Please answer these questions truthfully and as completely as possible. Your responses are greatly appreciated. Answer the questions as best you can to express your personal opinion.
Assessing the Emotional Pull of Advertising

What is your gender?
- Male
- Female

What is your age?

How often do you participate in physical activity?
- Never
- Once a Month
- 2-3 Times a Month
- Once a Week
- 2-3 Times a Week
- Daily

What type of physical activity do you participate in? Check all that apply.
- Endurance
- Strength
- Balance
- Flexibility
- Cardio
- If other, explain

[Submit]
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How frequently do you purchase new shoes for physical activity?

- Twice a year
- Once every three to six months
- Once every six months to a year
- Once every year and a half
- If other, how often?

What factors go into your purchase decision for running shoes? Check all that apply.

- Brand
- Material
- Comfort of the shoe
- Cost
- Style
- If other, explain
Assessing the Emotional Pull of Advertising

Look at the characteristics of the advertisement below.

run from bills, run from mortgages, run from work, run from routine, run from your fears, run from your worries, run from relationships, run from commitments, run from handicaps, run from disadvantages, run from your wants, run from needs, run from this, run from that, run run run run run run

Do you like this advertisement?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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</table>

How does this advertisement make you feel? Check all that apply.

- [ ] Happy
- [ ] Sad
- [ ] Angry
- [ ] Anxious
- [ ] Excited
- [ ] Motivated
- [ ] Other, explain
- [ ] None

Which of these emotions do you experience when viewing this advertisement? Check all that apply.

- [ ] Pride
- [ ] Love
- [ ] Compassion
- [ ] If other, explain
- [ ] None

Would you purchase shoes based on this advertisement?

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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</tbody>
</table>
Look at the characteristics of the advertisement below.

Do you like this advertisement?
- Yes ( )
- No ( )

How does this advertisement make you feel? Check all that apply.
- Happy ( )
- Sad ( )
- Angry ( )
- Anxious ( )
- Excited ( )
- Motivated ( )
- If other, explain: [ ]
- None ( )

Which of these emotions do you experience when viewing this advertisement? Check all that apply.
- Pride ( )
- Compassion ( )
- Shame ( )
- Love ( )
- If other, explain: [ ]
- None ( )

Would you purchase shoes based on this advertisement?
- Yes ( )
- No ( )
Assessing the Emotional Pull of Advertising

Look at the characteristics of the advertisement below.

Do you like this advertisement?
- Yes
- No

How does this advertisement make you feel? Check all that apply.
- Happy
- Sad
- Angry
- Anxious
- Excited
- Motivated
- If other, explain: 
- None

Which of these emotions do you experience when viewing this advertisement? Check all that apply.
- Pride
- Compassion
- Shame
- Love
- If other, explain: 
- None

Would you purchase shoes based on this advertisement?
- Yes
- No
Assessing the Emotional Pull of Advertising

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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</table>

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey. Your response has been recorded.
References


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