THE EFFECTS OF MIXED EMOTIONS ON ADVERTISEMENT EVALUATIONS: THE MODERATING ROLE OF CONSTRUAL LEVEL

By

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To God, my wife and family
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THE EFFECTS OF MIXED EMOTIONS ON ADVERTISEMENT EVALUATIONS: THE MODERATING ROLE OF CONSTRUAL LEVEL

By

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The current study identifies two different mechanisms of mixed emotions based on the sequence to examine how the sequence of mixed emotions affect sports consumers’ evaluation of overall consumption experience: (a) solution strategy (refers to improving view) and (b) protection strategy (refers to declining view). By using construal level theory as a theoretical framework, the current study further proposes that the effects of different sequences of mixed emotions on sport consumers’ evaluation of sport consumption experiences would be determined by the psychological distance that sport consumers create toward a sport consumption experience.
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Significance of Attitudinal Ambivalence in a Sport Context and Current Problems

Consumers’ information-processing and decision-making behaviors received tremendous attention from both traditional and recent scholars (e.g., Chaiken & Maheswaran, 1994; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983; Petty, Unnava, & Strathman, 1991; Reinhard & Sporer, 2008). Those studies have found that the patterns of consumers’ information-processing are different based on situational factors (e.g., involvement and perceived risk; Chaiken & Maheswaran, 1994; Petty et al., 1983), personality (e.g., need for cognition and need for affect; Reinhard & Sporer, 2008), and demographic cues (e.g., race and gender; Darley & Smith, 1995). For example, well-known dual-processing theories (e.g., Elaboration Likelihood and Heuristic and Systematic Models) have suggested that consumers process their information differently depending on their levels of situational and enduring involvement (Chaiken & Maheswaran, 1994; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Petty et al., 1983; Petty et al., 1993).

In the sport management realm, several scholars have argued that the emotion and experiential side of consumption plays an important role in predicting and understanding sport fan’s behavior (Madrigal & Chen, 2008). Those studies have found that sport fans evoked their emotional gratifications, such as pleasure and arousal, through sport spectating, and conceptualized these phenomena as hedonic consumption (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Specifically, hedonic consumption refers to “multisensory, fantasy, and emotive aspects of one’s experience with products” (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982, p. 92).

It is important to note that, for these sports fans, emotional gratification heavily influences their information-processing and decision-making behavior (Hirschman & Holbrook,
However, to date, there has been little effort to understand the power of emotion in sports fans’ information-processing behaviors. Another key limitation is that the majority of sport management literature has only focused on the positive side of emotion even though recent consumer behavior and psychology researchers have highlighted the importance of mixed emotions in understanding various types of humans’ behaviors (Andrade & Cohen, 2007; Hemenover & Schimmack, 2007; Hunter, Schellenberg, & Schimmack, 2008; Larsen, McGraw, & Cacioppo, 2001).

In a sport setting, fans also may experience both positive and negative sides of emotion within the same time frame. For instance, sport fans may encounter conflicting emotions when their supported team wins the game with a bad performance (e.g., I feel happy because my team won the game, but I feel sad because my team’s performance did not meet my expectations). Just as in the above example, in practice, recent commercials have started to highlight mixed emotions appeals in their persuasive strategies, to evoke viewers’ happiness and sadness simultaneously. For example, Procter & Gamble, Inc. launched a global “Thank you, Mom” commercial that highlighted mothers’ contributions to the 2012 London Olympics’ athletes. In particular, the commercial stated that “being a mom is the hardest job in the world…it’s also the best.” Then, how this mixed emotions appeal benefits in persuading consumers?

While a number of consumer behavior and social psychology researchers have forth putted efforts to examine the effect of mixed emotions in evaluating overall consumption experience, it is not clear yet how mixed emotions shape sports consumers’ evaluation of a sports consumption experience and decisions associated with that experience. Furthermore, in the mixed emotions literature, less attention has been paid to examining the effects of differential sequences of mixed emotions. For example, does people evaluate consumption experience more
positively when their experience begins with a positive manner then finished by a negative manner? Or does vice versa is true? Indeed, considering the sequence of mixed emotions is important because people form different perceptions toward consumption based on the order of the events (e.g., sequences effect; Labroo & Ramanathan, 2007; Montgomery & Unnava, 2009).

In order to fill these gaps, the current study identifies two different mechanisms of mixed emotions to demonstrate how the sequence of mixed emotions shape sports consumers’ evaluation of overall consumption experience: (a) solution strategy and (b) protection strategy (Labroo & Ramanathan, 2007). Particularly, solution strategy refers to an improving sequence of mixed emotions, which suggests that negative emotions that appear in the beginning should be resolved by being followed by positive emotions to create an overall positive evaluation. In contrast, protection strategy refers to a declining sequence of mixed emotions, which suggests that positive emotions that appear in the beginning of the experience act as a protector to overcome negative emotions that arise later.

**Purpose of the Study**

By using construal level theory (CLT) as a theoretical framework, the current study examines the effects of different sequences of mixed emotions (improving versus declining) on sport consumers’ evaluation (e.g., satisfaction and enjoyment) of “Sport Viewing Experience” depending on their psychological distance toward the sport viewing experience. Furthermore, based on the mood contagion effect, the current study further examines how the overall evaluation of the sport viewing experience depending on the sequence of mixed emotions transfer to the evaluation process of an advertisement that is positioned immediately after the experience.

**List of Terms**

For the purpose of the study, the following terms were operationally defined.
• ADVERTISING. “A paid form of mediated communication from an identifiable source, designed to persuade the receiver to take some action now or in the future” (Richard & Curran, 2002, p.96).

• MIXED EMOTIONS APPEAL. Advertising appeal that highlights both positive and negative emotional gratifications of experiencing services or products.

• IMPROVING MIXED EMOTIONS APPEAL. Advertising appeal that illustrates mixed emotions in a sequence as a negative emotion and then a positive emotion (Labroo & Ramanathan, 2007).

• DECLINING MIXED EMOTIONS APPEAL: Advertising appeal that illustrates mixed emotions in a sequence as a positive emotion and then a negative emotion (Labroo & Ramanathan, 2007).

• PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTANCE. “A subjective experience that something is close or far away from the self, here, and now” (Trope & Liberman, 2010, p. 440).
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

The Role of Purely Positive Emotion in Sport Spectatorship

Before the 1970s, traditional theory focused on the rational and cognitive sides of consumer behavior – namely utilitarian consumption (Okada, 2005; Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohman, 2003). In particular, utilitarian consumption derives from people’s functional, instrumental, and task-related motives (Batra & Ahtola, 1991). For example, some people may participate in sports activities to get into better shape and stay healthier. Utilitarian consumption was primarily used to define information-processing and decision-making models (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Many previous researchers explained these models as cognitive mental processing in which individuals make their decisions and search information through rational and effortful processing (Batra & Ahtola, 1991).

However, in the early 1980s, some researchers realized that traditional utilitarian theory neglected an important concept in understanding peoples’ consumption behavior. That is, traditional utilitarian theory overlooked the power of emotion and experiential sides of consumer behavior (Bellenger, Steinberg, & Stanton, 1976). Researchers argued that people are more likely to engage in complicated information-processing when they make judgments rather than simply using the cognitive side of information-processing (Olshavsky & Granbois, 1979). Therefore, consumer behavior and psychology researchers have started to pay more attention to the experiential side of consumption and thereby have proposed a new theory – namely hedonic consumption (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Specifically, hedonic consumption describes “multisensory, fantasy, and emotive aspects of one’s experience with products” (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982, p. 92).
In this manuscript, the author conceptualizes hedonic consumption as “a system of consumer behavior that relates to multiple-sensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of one’s experience” (p. 92) by following the definition of Hirschman and Holbrook (1982). The experiential gratification that refers to hedonic consumption occurs when people participate in sports, leisure, and entertainment activities. Typically, positive emotions, such as fun and enjoyment, are the most important concepts in understanding and predicting sport participants’ and spectators’ consumption behavior (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Madrigal & Bee, 2005). Consistent with this notion, Dhar and Wetenbrock (2000) suggested that hedonic consumption is “primarily characterized by an affective and sensory experience of aesthetic or sensual pleasure, fantasy, and fun” (p. 61). Likewise, Holbrook and his colleagues (1984) used the term playful consumption to explain people’s intrinsic motives when involved with leisure activities (Unger and Kernan, 1983), hobbies (Bloch & Bruce, 1984), creative thinking (Hirschman, 1983), games (Huizinga, 1938), sport activities (Mihalich, 1982), and esthetic gratitude (Osborne, 1979). By synthesizing these theoretical frameworks, the current study highlights the importance of understanding the experiential sides of sport spectators’ consumption behavior.

The Role of Mixed Emotions in Sport Spectatorship

Most previous emotion literature has focused on the pure aspects of people’s emotions (Bellenger et al., 1976; Woods, 1981). Like black versus white, people are likely to encounter either positive or negative sides of emotion separately (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). For instance, people feel sadness when they are dissatisfied with their situations, while people feel happiness when they are satisfied with their situations (Russell & Carroll, 1999). Similarly, Shaver et al. (1987) argued that people smile and feel joyful when they are happy, while people cry and feel anxious when they are sad. In this regard, Russell and colleagues developed the circumplex model of affect by using bipolar and orthogonal dimensions (Russell, 1980; Russell
& Carroll, 1999). Traditional literature considered positive and negative emotions as opposite dimensions, and thus, they were viewed as mutually exclusive concepts (Russell, 1979).

However, recent emotion researchers have found abundant evidence that people can simultaneously encounter both positive and negative sides of emotion (Andrade & Cohen, 2007; Hemenover & Schimmack, 2007; Hunter et al., 2008; Larsen et al., 2001). For example, when people graduate from school (e.g., “I’m making progress, but leaving my friends and family, p. 268”) or move to a new place (e.g., e.g., “I’m starting a new life, but losing my old one, p. 268”; Aaker et al., 2008), they simultaneously experience both sides of emotion (Aaker et al. 2008). Consistent with the above notion, several scholars have found that people encounter mixed emotions simultaneously (Fong & Tiedens, 2002; Levav & McGraw, 2009). For example, in study 1, Larsen et al. (2001) found that participants encountered both happiness and sadness at the same time after watching the movie – Life Is Beautiful. Also, in the later studies, participants experienced both positive and negative side of emotions simultaneously at the move-out day from a dormitory (study 2) and the graduation day (study 3).

In a later study, Larsen and colleagues (2004) also found more evidence of mixed emotions in gambling scenarios. That is, participants exhibited both positive and negative emotions simultaneously when they encountered disappointing win (e.g., winning only a small amount) or relieving losses (e.g., losing only a small amount) situations. Moreover, Larsen et al. (2007) found an evidence of mixed emotions in children. They predicted that older children would have better opportunities to encounter mixed emotions compared to younger children (e.g., Donaldson & Westerman, 1986; Harter & Buddin, 1987). Specifically, in their experiment, Larsen and colleagues interviewed children about their emotions immediately after they were exposed to The Little Mermaid movie. As expected, the results indicated that older children (i.e.,
11 and 12 year olds) have a better ability to experience mixed emotions in emotionally complex circumstances than do younger children (i.e., 5 and 6 year olds).

Carrera and Oceja (2007) developed a new measure, the Analogical Emotional Scale (AES), to provide evidence of mixed emotions. The AES helps researchers to better measure subjects’ emotions over durations of time. Specifically, in study 1, participants were asked to imagine the situation of leaving high school and going to a university. They found that among 150 participants, 88 participants (59%) felt both happiness and sadness at the same time. Specifically, 29 participants (33%) among the 88 had simultaneous mixed emotions, while 59 participants (67%) experienced sequential mixed emotions.

However, Larsen and McGraw (2011) argued that previous mixed emotions studies involved some limitations in terms of how researchers measured emotion (e.g., Larsen et al., 2001; Schimmack, 2001; Williams & Aaker, 2002). First, a participant’s mixed emotions may derive from the summaries of their experiences over time rather than at a certain moment. Second, demand characteristics (Orne, 1962) may lead to biased results. Participants may report mixed emotions because they know that researchers are expecting to find such evidence. To overcome these limitations, Larsen and McGraw (2011) conducted a series of experiments in which they asked open-ended questions (e.g., How do you feel right now?) instead of close-ended questions (e.g., Do you feel happy?) to prevent the participants from reporting mixed emotions due to demand characteristics (Orne, 1982). In study 1, Larsen and McGray (2011) randomly assigned participants to watch either a bittersweet clip or the control clip. Each participant’s emotion was measured with mouse-clicking behavior. Particularly, each participant was asked to click the left button if he or she felt happy or click the right button if he or she felt sad. Lastly, the participant was asked to click both buttons if they experienced a combination of
happy and sad emotions. Through their experiments (study 1a & 1b), they found that participants were more likely to encounter mixed emotions simultaneously when they were exposed to the bittersweet clip than to the control. In addition, in study 2, to measure the effects of demand characteristics on mixed emotions, researchers told participants they could not experience mixed emotions simultaneously. Interestingly, the results indicated that although participants were told before the experiment that they could not feel mixed emotions at the same time, they exhibited more intense mixed emotions after they watched the bittersweet clip compared to the control.

The Sequences of Mixed Emotions (Declining vs. Improving)

The question of how sequences of mixed emotions differently affect persuasion is one of great theoretical and practical interest. In a broader sense, the sequences of mixed emotions can be classified into two perspectives: (1) declining and (2) improving views (Labroo & Ramanathan, 2007). The declining view of mixed emotions portrays a sequence of positive emotion followed by negative emotion. In contrast, the improving view of mixed emotions portrays a sequence of negative emotion followed by positive emotion. In a gambling situation, for example, people may elicit a positive emotion in the beginning by gaining money through winning but then finish with a negative emotion by losing their money later on (i.e., a declining view). Meanwhile, people may induce a negative emotion in the beginning by losing their money but elicit a positive emotion later on through winning (i.e., an improving view).

The sequence of mixed emotions is an interesting topic to explore because consumers may respond differently based on the order of different types of emotion. Intuitively, it seems that a sequence of mixed emotions does not matter if the total amounts of positive and negative emotions are equal. However, some studies provide evidence that an improving sequence is more effective than a declining sequence in persuading consumers’ behavior (Fredrickson & Kahneman, 1993; Lau-Gsek, 2005; Loewenstein & Prelec, 1993). For example, consistent with
the improving sequence, Loewenstein and Prelec (1993) found that when people eat their meal, they are more likely to start with an ordinary food and then move on to a fancy food afterward. Likewise, in the emotion literature, several studies have found that people were more likely to evaluate their emotions in a positive manner when the negative event appeared first, followed by a positive event (Labroo & Ramanthan, 2007). The underlying mechanism is that people create more favorable attitudes toward improving emotions because they signal that the previous negative emotions have been resolved (Labroo & Ramanthan, 2007).

However, other studies have provided conflicting evidence. That is, positive events elicit positive emotions in people, which perform as a shelter to overcome negative emotions (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Raghunathan & Trope, 2002). For example, Fredrickson (1998) found that positive emotions benefit people by helping them to overcome negative emotions that were derived by stressful experiences. In addition, Schwarz and Clore (1983) argued that positive emotions elicited in the beginning of the event should draw attention away from the negative emotions created afterward.

In 2007, Labroo and Ramanathan intended to find the boundary condition of the above situations. They predicted that the effects of the improving versus declining views of mixed emotions depend on whether people evaluate (e.g., cognitively) or experience (e.g., affectively) the emotions. They found that the effects of the improving view of mixed emotions was more effective when people evaluated their emotions, while the effects of the declining view of mixed emotions was more effective when people felt their emotions.

**Mixed Emotions and Attitudinal (or Emotional) Ambivalence**

The concept of attitudinal ambivalence has received tremendous attention from several disciplines, including sociology (e.g., Katz & Hass, 1988; Maio, Bell, & Esses, 1996; Jost & Burgess, 2000; Mucchi Faina, Costarelli, & Romoli, 2002; Costarelli & Palmonari, 2003),
consumer behavior (e.g. Jonas, Diehl, & Broemer, 1997; Otnes, Lowrey, & Shrum, 1997; Thompson & Zanna, 1995; Newby-Clark, McGregor, & Zanna, 2002), and health related research (e.g., drug, alcohol, and smoking; Armitage & Conner, 2000; Conner, Sherlock, & Orbell, 1998; Sparks, Conner, James, Shepherd, & Povey, 2001).

Although the majority of previous literature has suggested that attitude should be considered as a univalent construct, recent studies have provided evidence that people can experience both positive and negative evaluations of attitude at the same time by proposing the construct of attitudinal ambivalence (Costarelli & Colloca, 2004; Nordgen, Harreveld, & Pligt, 2006). In particular, Costarelli and Colloca (2004) defined *attitudinal ambivalence* as “the simultaneous presence of positive and negative evaluations of the same attitude object” (p. 280). Importantly, the concept of attitudinal ambivalence is a vital element in predicting and determining the effect of mixed emotions because people are in a conflicting psychological state, such as attitudinal ambivalence (e.g., Thompson, Zanna, & Griffin, 1995), when they experience a co-occurrence of the opposite valences of emotion (Hong et al., 2010). Especially, attitudinal ambivalence consists of three different aspects: (1) cognitive ambivalence, (2) affective ambivalence, and (3) cognitive/affective ambivalence (Costarelli & Colloca, 2004; Thompson et al., 1995). *Cognitive ambivalence* represents people’s conflicting beliefs regarding objects, while *affective ambivalence* represents people’s conflicting feelings regarding objects. More importantly, *cognitive/affective ambivalence* refers to the co-occurrence of conflicting beliefs and feelings.

In recent mixed-emotion theory, many scholars have applied the concept of attitudinal ambivalence to effectively explain the effects of mixed emotions (Hong & Lee, 2010). People undergo feelings of being uncomfortable or torn, such as attitudinal ambivalence, when they
experience the opposite sides of an emotion (i.e., happiness and sadness) simultaneously (Thompson et al., 1995). For instance, people experience these discomforting feelings when they are exposed to mixed-emotion advertisements: therefore, they develop less favorable attitudes toward the advertisement and the product (Williams & Aaker, 2002). In addition, according to Williams and Aaker (2002), the relationship between a participant’s feelings of discomfort and attitudinal responses to mixed emotions appeals (i.e., happiness and sadness) can be moderated by age and cultural values. In particular, Asians (i.e., collectivisms) are less likely to encounter feelings of discomfort when they are exposed to mixed emotions advertisements as compared to North Americans (i.e., individualism). In addition, older subjects possess a better ability to adjust the feelings of discomfort compared to younger subjects. As a result, Asians and older people are likely to develop more favorable attitudes toward the mixed-emotions appeals by experiencing reduced feelings of being torn and uncomfortable than North Americans and younger people.

The Purely Positive Emotion and Emotional Response

In the context of consumer behavior and advertising, several studies have suggested that the most effective way to create a persuasive advertisement (ad) is highlighting positive emotions (Brown, 2003; Moore & Harris, 1996; Puto & Wells, 1984). Emotional advertising highlights the positive emotional gratification, such as excitement and enjoyment, of consuming a product rather than focusing on the direct benefits of consuming a product (Aaker & Stayman, 1992). Typically, this emotional appeal is more effective in persuading hedonic consumption, such as sporting events and entertainment (Aaker & Stayman, 1992; Johar & Sirgy, 1991; Shavitt, 1992). For example, Shavitt (1992) empirically found that a hedonic product (i.e., greeting cards and perfumes) was more effectively advertised through emotional appeals compared to informational appeals. Similarly, Mattila (1999) provided evidence that an emotional advertising strategy created better advertising effectiveness and persuasiveness for hedonic services such as hotels and restaurants.
This occurs because the congruity between the audience’s self-image and the product image increases advertising effectiveness and persuasiveness. Specifically, when there is a greater match between the image of the audience and the nature of the product, it creates a higher satisfaction of the audience’s perceived self-congruity and ultimately increases the attitude toward the advertisement and product (Johar & Sirgy, 1991).

Consumer behavior and advertising literature have highlighted the important role of emotional response in predicting advertising effectiveness (Morris, 1995). In particular, several studies have focused on the affective side of attitude formation (Batra & Ray, 1986; Morris et al., 2002). For example, Edell and Burke (1987) expressed the important role of feelings in the development of attitudes toward advertisements and brands. Particularly, Edell and Burke measured participants’ feeling under four conditions: (1) low informational and low transformational appeals, (2) high informational and low transformational appeals, (3) low informational and high transformational appeals, and (4) high informational and high transformational appeals. Specifically, in the first condition, participants viewed an advertisement that implemented both low informational and low transformational appeals. In the second condition, participants exposed to an advertisement that used both high informational and low transformational appeals. In the third condition, participants read an advertisement that employed both low informational high low transformational appeals. Lastly, in the fourth condition, participants viewed an advertisement that consists of both high informational and high transformational appeals. Interestingly, the results indicated that feelings evoked by the advertisements were significant predictors of understanding the formation of attitudes toward the advertisements and brands in all four conditions.
Typically, many sporting event marketers and advertisers implement purely positive emotional appeals in their advertising strategies. As mentioned above, when audiences are exposed to an emotional appeal, their initial reaction is an emotional response (Edell & Burke, 1987). This happens because an emotional appeal is designed to elicit audiences’ enjoyable moments from experiences of sporting events (Puto & Wells, 1984). Many researchers, however, faced difficulties in measuring emotional response due to the complexity of emotions (Plummer & Leckenby, 1985). Therefore, several researchers have proposed different measurements to examine emotional responses, such as verbal self-reports (i.e., adjective; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), physiological techniques (e.g., Picard, Vyzas, & Healey, 2001), and photo decks (e.g., Morris et al., 2002).

However, there is a commonality among these measurements. That is, the measurement of emotional responses should consist of three dimensions to accurately gauge an audience’s emotional response: (1) pleasure, (2) arousal, and (3) dominance (Russell, 1979; Daly, Lancee, & Polivy, 1983; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Havlena & Holbrook, 1986, Morris, 1995). Specifically, Lang (1985) proposed the self-report measure of the Self-Assessment Manikin (SAM) model, which represents the pleasure, arousal, and dominance (PAD) dimensions of individual emotional responses, with each dimension of PAD shown in a visual graphic.

For pleasure, SAM ranges from a smiling, happy figure to a frowning, unhappy figure; for arousal, SAM rages from sleepy with eyes closed to excite with eyes open. The dominance scale shows SAM ranging from a very small figure representing a feeling of being controlled or submissive to a very large figure representing in-control for a powerful feeling. (Morris, 1995, p.64)

In recent advertising literature, Morris and colleagues (2002) developed the AdSAM database, which consists of 232 emotional adjectives based on Lang’s (1985) SAM model to effectively measure emotional responses in advertising and marketing contexts. Similar to SAM, AdSAM is a visually oriented scale originally developed from the PAD theory of affective
response (Morris, 1995). In particular, Morris (1995) has pointed out the limitations in previous verbal emotional measures. That is, researchers found that audiences may face challenges in precisely interpreting the specific meaning of the emotion’s word when looking at adjective checklists or semantic differential scales. Each audience member would perceive the specific meaning of emotional words differently. In addition, when researchers used the nonverbal measure of AdSAM to measure an audience’s emotional response, the audience would not engage in any cognitive processing that may occur with the processing of verbal measures (Edell & Burke, 1987). Furthermore, AdSAM is easier and faster in measuring emotional responses when compared to previous measurements (Morris et al., 1992; Lang, 1985).

**Construal Level Theory: Temporal Distance**

The major objective of consumer behavior and psychology research is to effectively understand how people evaluate certain objects and events (Trope et al., 2007). Many researchers have proposed several different theories to identify the most important elements that influence people’s information-processing and decision-making processes (Okada, 2005; Voss et al., 2003). One major question regarding information-processing and decision-making processes is whether those processes change as the time to decide gets closer. Therefore, many disciplines, such as psychology (e.g., Ainslie & Haslam, 1992; Metcalfe & Mischel, 1999; Rachlin, Brown, & Cross, 2000), and behavioral economics (e.g., O’Donoghue & Rabin, 2000) have attempted to investigate how people process information differently and then predict the outcome as the time gets closer to making the decision.

In general, those studies have found that people put greater value on near-future objects (or events) compared to distant-future objects (or events) even when the distant future is more important to them (e.g., Ainslie & Haslam, 1992; Mischel, Shoda, & Rodriguez, 1989). Based on these phenomena, construal level theory (CLT) was proposed to better understand and predict
consumers’ evaluation processes of objects depending on the psychological distance (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Specifically, CLT suggested that people form different levels of mental construal—high versus low—toward objects depending on the psychological distance; therefore, these psychological distances influence consumers’ information-processing and decision-making behavior (Eyal, Liberman, & Trope, 2008).

People create certain memories about past experiences or make predictions about future experiences even though they can only experience the current situation. These memories and predictions are not related to the direct experience, but they influence people’s mental constructions (Trope & Liberman, 2010). In general, people develop a psychological distance to certain objects based on these mental constructions (Trope & Liberman, 2010). The psychological distance can be defined as “a subjective experience that something is close or far away from the self, here, and now” (Trope & Liberman, 2010, p. 440). Specifically, people create a high or low level of psychological distance to the same object (or event) based on the level of mental construal. High-level construal represents more abstract, flexible, superordinate, and decontextualized mental construction, peripheral features of objects, and captures a broader understanding of objects. Meanwhile, low-level construal represents more concrete, detailed, subordinate and contextualized mental constructions, central features of objects, and reflects a more specific understanding of objects (Trope & Liberman, 2010). For example, under high-level construal conditions, people form their mental constructions with more abstract information, such as communication device, while under low-level construal conditions, people form their mental constructions with more concrete information, such as cellular phone (Trope & Liberman, 2010). In the context of sporting events, sports fans can also represent high-level and low-level construal. Imagine that three college students go to a Gator football game. The
number, the specific age of students, and the colors of the clothes they wear may represent a low level of construal, while students having fun watching a Gator football game reflects a high level of construal. One possible explanation of why construal level decreases as psychological distances become closer to the objects is that people are more likely to put as much information as possible in their mental constructions to reduce the perceived risk associated with decision-making behavior. (Trope, Liberman, & Wakslack, 2007).

In a similar vein, action identification theory may also explain the principle of CLT. In general, people’s goal-related actions differ across the levels of abstractness (see, e.g., Abelson, 1981; Zacks & Tversky, 2001). According to the action identification theory, people’s goal-related actions can be classified into (1) superordinate or (2) subordinate goals (Vallacher & Wegner, 1987). Specifically, people engage in “why” aspects of action when their goal-related action is superordinate, while people engage in “how” aspects of action when their goal-related action is subordinate. Applying the theoretical concept of action theory into CLT, low-level construal of people’s actions may link to a primary goal, while high-level construal of people’s actions may not be associated with a primary goal (Trope & Liberman, 2003).

Based on these theoretical frameworks, CLT researchers have proposed that people’s mental constructions would be different depending on the level of temporal distance of objects (or events). Specifically, CLT researchers have suggested four dimensions of psychological distances: (1) time, (2) spatial, (3) social, and (4) hypothetical distances. The following section provides detailed explanations and literature regarding how each dimension of psychological distance can influence people’s information-processing and decision-making behavior. However, I will not include the hypothetical distances in this study because time, spatial, and social psychological distance are more appropriate in evaluating sports spectators’ behavior.
**Construal Level Theory: Time Distance**

Numerous studies have examined how people construe their information differently in their mental constructions based on a time perspective (Ledgerwood, Trope, & Chaiken, 2010; Liberman, Sagristano, & Trope, 2002; Stephan, Liberman, & Trope, 2011). CLT researchers have predicted that people construe information in a more abstract and flexible manner and focus on superordinate and decontextualized information for distant-future events compared to near-future events. For example, Liberman and his colleagues (2002) asked participants to imagine several situations (e.g., “going to a camping trip”) in the context of two different time perspectives: tomorrow (near future) versus next year (distant future). After reading a scenario, subjects were asked to take time to review the sets of items, and subsequently, they were asked to classify the items into groups that belong to each scenario. Consistent with CLT predictions, the results of study 1 indicated that participants classified items with more abstract categorization for the distant-future condition, while participants classified items with more concrete categorization for the near-future condition.

In recent studies, several scholars have examined how construal level influences the effectiveness of information type in people’s attitude formation (Fujita, Eyal, Chaiken, Trope, & Liberman, 2008; Ledgerwood et al., 2010). Fujita et al. (2008) provided empirical evidence that different types of message appeals (primary vs. secondary) interact with temporal construal level (high vs. low). In particular, in study 1, participants were asked to evaluate courses that were offered either next semester (near future condition; high-construal level) or next year (distant future condition; low-construal level). Specifically, each participant was exposed to advertisements either with primary features (goal relevant) or with secondary features- (goal irrelevant) of the course (Trope & Liberman, 2003). Consistent with CLT predictions, the results showed that, in the distant-future condition, participants more positively evaluated the course.
advertisement that featured primary (or goal relevant) information than secondary (or goal irrelevant) information. However, researchers did not find any difference between primary features and secondary features in the near-future condition.

In study 2, Fujita et al. (2008) further extended the findings of study 1 by using different types of persuasive appeals: (1) desirability versus (2) feasibility. Similar to the results of study 1, participants created more positive attitudes toward the DVD when the advertisement mainly represented the positive desirability features than feasibility features in the distant-future condition. Meanwhile, participants created similar attitudes toward the DVD when the advertisement mainly represented positive desirability features or positive feasibility features in the near-future conditions. Taken together, Fujita and colleagues (2008) found that temporal distance (near vs. future) influences how peoples develop their attitudes toward certain objects across different persuasive appeals; however, this interaction was manifest only in the distant-future condition.

Another explanation is Ledgerwood et al.’s (2010) study. They examined the interaction effects between temporal distance level (near future vs. distant future) and information type (aggregate vs. individualized) in a drug product context. The results indicated that participants had more positive attitudes toward a drug when aggregate information was used for the distant future, while participants created more positive attitudes toward a drug when individualized information was used for near-future events. Importantly, this study further extended previous CLT literature by providing evidence that people not only put more weight on abstract information—as compared to concrete information—during the decision-making process for distant-future events, but they also put more weight on aggregated social influences than on individualized social influences for distant-future events.
In a similar vein, many social psychology scholars have applied CLT in different contexts, such as management and charity. For example, Stephan et al. (2011) examined how perceived familiarity with an unknown person whom one may possibly meet in the future will be different based on temporal distance (study 1 and 2). In particular, participants were asked to imagine a situation in which they would meet a person in near future (i.e., the upcoming weekend) or distant future (i.e., six months later) conditions. Similar to CLT prediction, the results showed that subjects perceived the person as more familiar in the near-future condition compared to the distant-future condition.

In a recent study, Ein-Gar and Levontin (2012) used CLT to better understand how psychological distance with charitable organizations influences people’s donation behavior. The results demonstrated that CLT is an appropriate theoretical framework in explaining people’s donation behavior. Specifically, participants had a greater willingness to donate money (study 1) and time (study 2) toward a charitable organization for a distant-future event (i.e., a year later) when the donation appeal highlighted an abstract feature (i.e., a care center) compared to a specific feature (i.e., one underprivileged boy). In contrast, participants’ willingness to donate money toward a charitable organization was greater for a near-future event (i.e., next year) when the donation appeal focused on a specific feature compared to an abstract feature.

**Construal Level Theory: Spatial Distance**

Several scholars have examined the relationship between the level of spatial distance and people’s developmental processes of mental construal (Shani, Igou, & Zeelenberg, 2009; Trope et al., 2007). In particular, those studies have focused on the effect of global versus local perception of psychological distance (Liberman & Forster, 2009). When individuals process information toward global perception of psychological distance (high-level construal), they favorably responded to abstract, flexible, and superordinate information. Meanwhile, when
individuals process information toward local perceptions of psychological distance (low-level construal), they favorably responded to concrete, detailed, and subordinate information (Ziamou & Veryzer, 2005).

In a recent study, Shani et al. (2009) examined how construal level influences people’s information-searching behavior. Specifically, in study 2, they provided different scenarios to subjects by manipulating the spatial distance. The results indicated that participants were more likely to search for information about the event in a near spatial condition (i.e., a local company) compared to a distant spatial condition (i.e., a foreign company). This is because, when people construe their mental constructions regarding near distant conditions (i.e., low-level construal), they are more likely to create higher levels of perceived risk associated with their decision making. As a result, they create stronger desires to search and obtain more information regarding objects or events to reduce the perceived risk.

In addition, some scholars have used CLT to explain people’s creative-thinking behavior. Jia et al. (2009), for example, found that people produce more creative responses (study 1), and thus, they handle creative problem-solving tasks (study 2) better in a spatially far condition compared to a spatially near condition. Specifically, in study 1, under a spatially distant condition, participants were required to finish a linguistic skills task that was particularly targeted to students involved in a study abroad program in Greece. Meanwhile, under spatially near conditions, participants were exposed to the same condition as in the spatially distant conditions except they were involved in an Indiana University–Purdue University program in Indianapolis. As expected, under spatially distant conditions, participants generated more creative responses compared to spatially close conditions. In addition, in study 2, Jia et al. manipulated the spatial distance by providing different scenarios. That is, participants were asked
to answer a problem-solving question created either in Indiana (spatially close condition) or in California (spatially distant condition). Similar to study 1, participants scored better in solving problems that were created in a California research institute (spatially distant condition) than in an Indiana research institute (spatially close condition). Taken together, the results support the idea that spatial distance of certain objects also influences individuals’ creative thinking.

**Construal Level Theory: Social Distance**

CLT proposed that social distance is also an important determination of psychological distance (Nan, 2007). People construe the same information differently in their mental constructions based on the social distance toward the object, such as self versus other and in-group versus out-group. For example, under high-level construal conditions (when social distance increases), information represents more abstract, flexible, and superordinate aspects of objects. In contrast, under low-level construal conditions (when social distance decreases), information reflects more concrete, detailed, and subordinate aspects of objects (Pennington & Roese, 2003; Ziamou & Veryzer, 2005).

Nan (2007) examined how social-distance levels interact with different types of persuasive appeals, thereby influencing people’s responses. In study 1, Nan investigated the impact that gain versus loss framing in persuasive appeals has on people’s decision making based on different levels of social distance. The results indicated that there was an interaction effect between social distance level and gain versus loss framing on the participants’ decision-making behaviors. Specifically, participants had more favorable judgments when they were exposed to gain-framed appeals under distant conditions (high-level construal) compared to proximal conditions (low-level construal), while there was no difference in judgment when they were exposed to loss-framed appeals between distant (high-level construal) and proximal conditions (low-level construal). In study 2, Nan (2007) further tested CLT by using the concept
of societal versus individual framing appeals. In this study, Nan defined *societal appeal* as “a message strategy that focuses on the implications of complying or not complying with the advocacy for the society in general,” (p. 493) while he defined *individual appeal* as a “message strategy that emphasizes the consequences of compliance or noncompliance for the individual” (p. 493). Consistent with the prediction, participants created more favorable judgments when they were exposed to societal appeals under distant conditions compared to proximal conditions, while there was no difference in judgment when they were exposed to individual appeals between two social distances. One possible explanation of the results is that people’s mental constructions may be influenced only by persuasive appeals when there is a sufficient psychological distance (e.g., distant conditions), and thus, their mental construction is less sensitive under low-level construal conditions.

**Construal Level Theory and Team Identification**

In the CLT literature, researchers have put forth effort in identifying factors that determine peoples’ psychological distance toward a given object (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Beside aforementioned four basic dimensions, researchers have found that different colors (black and white vs. color imagery; Lee, Deng, Unnava, & Fujita, 2014), darkness of a target object (darkness vs. brightness; Steidle, Werth, & Hanke, 2011), different types of emotions (guilt vs. shame; Han, Duhachek, & Agrawal, 2014), different role in product purchase situation (seller vs. buyer; Irmak, Wakslak, & Trope, 2013), and different posture of evaluating a target object (looking up vs. looking down; Van Kerckhove, Geuens, & Vermeir, 2015) determine peoples’ psychological distance toward a given object (or event).

The current study proposes that team identification would be a key variable that determines a subject’s degree of psychological distance from consumption related to sports setting. In particular, the authors propose that fans who are highly identified with competing
teams would form a close psychological distance toward sport consumption than fans who are less identified with competing teams. Stated differently, a lower level of mental construal forms in fans who have high team identification than forms in those with low team identification.

The literature contains supporting evidence. First, team identification is determined by the degree to which a fan feels a psychological connectedness to a supported team (Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001); this implies that highly identified fans may be less psychologically distant from their supporting team than fans that identify to a lesser degree. Second, according to CLT, social distance form a given object is a significant determinant of psychological distance (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Particularly, low social distance between a subject and a target object correspond with a lower psychological distance, and vice versa (Trope et al., 2007). Likewise, fans behavior literature has suggested that more highly identified fans form stronger emotional attachments to their favorite teams than those with lower team identification (Wann & Branscombe, 1990). Similarly, research has showed that highly identified fans more regularly watched their favored teams play on television or at stadium (Carlson & Donavan, 2013; Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Yoshida, Heere, & Gordon, 2015), seek greater amounts of information about their teams through various media (Wann, 2006), and spent larger amounts of money to purchase merchandised products for their favored team (Carlson & Donavan, 2013; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). In sum, these evidences have indicated that, while watching a game, fans with strong team identification may form a lower level of mental construal toward sport spectating consumption than fans with lower team identification form.
Figure 2-1. Effect of Mixed Emotions
CHAPTER 3
HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENTS

Construal Level Theory and Different Sequences of Mixed Emotions

One interesting theoretical question that arose from previous literature is how the sequence of mixed emotions appeals would interact with construal levels. Based on the previous literature, the current study identifies two types of sequences of mixed emotions: (1) declining versus (2) improving view (Labroo & Ramanathan, 2007). Specifically, this study proposes that, under low construal levels, people respond more favorably toward improving sequences of mixed emotions appeals than declining sequences. Meanwhile, under high construal levels, people respond more favorably toward declining sequences of mixed emotions appeals than improving sequences.

Evidence from several studies in the literature supports our assertions. According to the CLT, when people construe a close psychological distance toward an object, they process information in a more concrete and detailed manner and focus on the negative side of the information to reduce the risk in making decisions (Trope & Liberman, 2010). In this respect, the current study proposes that for highly identified fans, the solution strategy (improving view) would be more effective than the protection strategy (declining view) in creating overall positive evaluations regarding the mixed emotions experience. The central tenet of this idea is that under the close psychological distance condition, people are more likely to focus on the negative side of the information (Trope & Liberman, 2010); therefore, the negative emotion that appeared in the first part of the experience must be resolved by following with positive emotion to create an overall positive perception of the mixed emotions experience.

In contrast, when people construe a far psychological distance toward an object, they process information in a more flexible and abstract manner, and focus on the positive side of the
information (Trope et al., 2007), because a relatively low level of risk is associated with making decisions for a psychologically far object (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Thus, the current study predicts that for lowly identified fans, the protection strategy would be more effective in creating overall positive evaluations regarding the mixed emotions experience than the solution strategy. The proposed underlying mechanism is that the positive emotions that arise in the first part of the mixed emotions experience would act as a shelter to protect against negative emotions that follow the positive emotions. Such effects are driven by the fact that people are more likely to focus on the positive aspects of information when they form a far psychological distance toward a given object (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Therefore, we hypothesized the following:

**H1: Solution Strategy:** For highly identified fans, an improving sequence of mixed emotions create a more positive evaluation of sport consumption experience such as (1) higher satisfaction and (2) enjoyment than a declining sequence of mixed emotions compared to lowly identified fans.

**H2: Protection Strategy:** For lowly identified fans, a declining sequence of mixed emotions will create a more positive evaluation of sport consumption experience such as (1) higher satisfaction and (2) enjoyment than an improving sequence of mixed emotions compared to highly identified fans.

**The Mood Contagion Effect**

The current study further proposes that the overall evaluation of sports consumption experience would be transferred to the evaluation of advertisement that is positioned immediately after the experience. According to the mood contagion effect, mood is easily transferable between persons (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1992) or a person and object (Fishbach, Shah, & Kruglanski, 2004). Particularly, researchers have found that one’s emotional expression is “contagious” to others who are nearby (Neumann & Strack, 2000), and this contagion effect occurs even among people who are not familiar to one other (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999). For example, Neumann and Strack (2000) found that people evoked more positive
moods when others speak to them with a happy voice than a sad voice. In addition, mood state also transfers between a person and a product (Choi & Fishbach, 2011). For instance, Choi and Fishbach (2011) found that when people experience a positive mood state (e.g., vitality), they evaluate products more favorably compared to a situation when they experience a negative mood state (Choi & Fishbach, 2011).

Existing research in the sports management literature has suggested that mood states induced by sports-related consumptions (e.g., sport participation and spectatorship) influence consumers’ decisions (Kwak, Kim, & Hirt, 2011; Wang & Kaplanidou, 2013). For example, Wang and Kaplanidou (2013) found that spectators who experienced positive moods after watching their favorite team win had a greater likelihood of purchasing the products (e.g., sports drink) advertised during the games than spectators who watched their favored team lose. Likewise, Kwak et al. (2011) found that when fans produced positive emotions after reading a team message that highlighted the winning moments, they more favorably evaluated team-related promotional products compared to a situation when fans evoked negative emotions after reading a team message that emphasized losing moments. By synthesizing previous literature, the current study predicts that the overall evaluation of mixed emotions consumption would transfer to the evaluation of an advertisement that is positioned immediately after the experience. The current study hypothesizes as following:

**H3:** For a highly identified fan, an advertisement that is positioned after an improving sequence of mixed emotions create a more positive (a) attitude toward the advertisement and (b) a sporting event, and (c) future intention to attend the sporting event than after a declining sequence of mixed emotions.

**H4:** For a lowly identified fan, an advertisement that is positioned after a declining sequence of mixed emotions will create a more positive (a) attitude toward the advertisement and (b) sporting event, and (c) future intention to attend the sporting event than will an improving sequence of mixed emotions.
CHAPTER 4
METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the procedure that was used to examine the effects of different sequences of mixed emotions on consumers’ evaluation of sport viewing experience (e.g., satisfaction and enjoyment) and advertisement that was positioned immediately after the experience.

Study Design and Participants
This study employed a 2 (construal level: high vs. low) x 2 (sequences of mixed emotions: improving vs. declining) between-subjects design. Construal level was measured variable while sequences of mixed emotions was manipulated variable. Specifically, the construal level was manipulated in terms of team identification (lowly identified fans: high construal vs. highly identified fans: low construal). In addition, a sequence of mixed emotions was manipulated by exposing the subject to a series of negative pictures first and positive pictures later (improving), or positive pictures first and negative pictures later (declining).

A total of one hundred twenty one \( (n = 166) \) subjects were recruited from M-Turk. Among participants, sixty \( (n = 60) \) participants who failed to fully read the instructions (attention check questions; Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009) were excluded before we analyzed the data. In the attention check question section, instructions asked participants to recall the name of sporting event that appeared in the advertisement. This attention check method has been used in several consumer behavior and psychology research (e.g., Baskin, Wakslak, Trope, & Novemsky, 2014; Clarkson, Janiszewski, & Cinelli, 2013; Palmeira & Srivastava, 2013). Furthermore, participants \( (n = 10) \) who have participated in this study before were excluded before we analyzed the data. In conclusion, the total sample size was ninety six \( (n = 96) \).
Stimulus Materials

While researchers have been used numerous ways to manipulate sequences of mixed emotions (e.g., watching videos or reading descriptions; Labroo & Ramanathan, 2007), one effective way is using a series of images (e.g., Bhargave & Montgomery, 2013). In this study, Dallas Cowboy was selected as a target sports team to develop the stimulus materials because they ranked number one in terms of popularity in recent 10 years according to the Harris (2014)’s national survey.

To create stimulus materials, in the first stage, 30 positive and negative images that portray Dallas Cowboy were selected from Google by searching keywords (e.g., positive image: “winning” and “happy”, vs. negative image: “losing” and “sad”). All pictures selected for this part of the study were taken during National Football League game. Positive images portrayed the winning moment of the game (e.g., celebrating winning), and negative images portrayed the losing moment of the game (e.g., crying).

In the next stage, 10 students and five faculty members in the advertising and sport marketing departments were asked to evaluate those images to create an initial pool of items. Based on this process, five positive and five negative images were chosen to create the final stimulus materials. In the improving sequence condition, the five negative images came first followed by the five positive images. In contrast, in the declining sequence condition, the five positive images came first followed by the five negative images. Importantly, on the last page of stimuli (after exposing to all 10 images), participants were exposed to an advertisement that was created for a fictitious sporting event. This advertisement page featured a logo for the sporting event and one sentence describing the experience of the sports consumption experience (e.g., “SPORTS, It’s such an enjoyable moment you will never forget!”). The order of the images was fixed.
Pretest 1

Pretest 1 ($n = 21$) was conducted to insure that positive images elicit a feeling of happiness, while negative images evoke a feeling of sadness. Participants’ happiness and sadness were measured after watching a series of either positive or negative images. As expected, the results of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) indicated that participants who were exposed to positive images showed greater feelings of happiness compared to ones who were exposed to negative images, $M$ positive images = 5.25 ($SD$: 1.36) vs. $M$ negative images = 2.89 ($SD$: 1.17), $F(1, 19) = 17.49$, $p < .001$. Meanwhile, participants who were exposed to negative images showed greater feelings of sadness compared to participants who were exposed to positive images, $M$ positive images = 2.00 ($SD$: 1.54) vs. $M$ negative images = 5.00 ($SD$: 1.80), $F(1, 19) = 16.91$, $p < .001$.

Procedure

As a first stage of experiment, participants were asked to evaluate a series of pictures associated with Dallas Cowboy. The sequence of mixed emotions was manipulated as either improving- or declining- mixed emotions. Right after expose to a series of images ($n = 10$; one image per page), participants were exposed to a sporting event advertisement in the last page of stimuli. After viewing the stimuli, participants were asked to complete a questionnaire that contained dependent variables (e.g., game satisfaction and game enjoyment with the sports viewing experience, attitude toward the advertisement and sporting event, and future intention to attend the sporting event), selection variable (e.g., team identification) and demographic information.
Measures

Satisfaction for Viewing Experience

Satisfaction of sport viewing experience was measured by three items on a 7-point semantic differential scale from Yang, Mano, and Peracchio’s (2012) study: (1) “dissatisfied/satisfied”, (2) “frustrated/contented”, and (3) “upset/delighted”.

Enjoyment of Sport Viewing Experience

Enjoyment of sport viewing experience was measured by four-items on a 7-point Likert scale adopting from Ryan, Koestner, and Deci’s (1991) study: (1) “I enjoyed watching the sport viewing experience”, (2) “The sporting viewing experience was fun to watch”, (3) “I thought the sporting viewing experience was a boring activity (reverse coded)”, and (4) “While I was watching the sporting viewing experience, I was thinking about how much I enjoyed it”.

Attitude toward the Advertisement and Advertised Sporting Event

Attitude toward the advertisement was measured by four-items on a 7-point semantic differential scale: (1) “bad/good”, (2) “unpleasant/pleasant”, (3) “unfavorable/favorable”, and (4) “negative/positive”.

Future Intentions to Attend the Game

Future Intentions to attend the game was measured by three-items on a 7-point Likert scale from previous literature (Kim, Trail, & Ko, 2011) – (1) “I intend to attend the game”, (2) “The likelihood that I will attend the game in the future is high” and (3) “I will attend the games in the future” (1=strongly disagree versus 7 = strongly agree).

Football Involvement

Football involvement was measured by five-items on a 7-point Likert scale from previous literature (Kim, Trail, & Ko, 2011) – (1) “matters to me”, (2) “relevant”, (3) “valuable”, (4) “means a lot to me”, and (5) “of concern to me” (1=strongly disagree versus 7 = strongly agree).
CHAPTER 5
RESULTS

Demographics

Among participants, the mean scores for age was 33.53 (SD = 11.36) and consisted of 59 (61.4%) male. In terms of race, 73 were Caucasian (76%), 6 were African-American (6.3%), 11 were Hispanic (11.5%), and 6 were Asian (6.3%). In terms of income, 32 were less than $39,999 (33.3%), 26 were between $40,000 and $69,000 (27.1%), 27 were between $70,000 and $119,000 (28.1%), and 11 were higher than $120,000 (11.5%).

Data Analysis

To examine the interaction effect of different sequences of mixed emotion and team identification on dependent variables, the current study used a simple slope analysis suggested by Aiken and West (1991). Specifically, the authors utilized the ‘Interaction!, 1.4.1903’ program (Soper, 2012) to examine the interaction effect. This program has been used in several other academic research projects (e.g., Boyraz & Lightsey, 2012; Leow & Davis, 2012; Newton & Rudestam, 2012). Furthermore, a spotlight analysis at 1 standard deviation above and 1 standard deviation below the mean was performed to investigate the specific nature of the interaction effect.

Test of Hypothesis 1 and 2

After controlling the effect of football involvement, the results of the simple slope analysis indicated a significant interaction between different sequences of mixed emotions and team identification on game enjoyment (β = .39, t = 2.70, p < .001) and game satisfaction (β = .39, t = 3.02, p < .001). In addition, team identification (game enjoyment: β = -.51, t = -2.18, p < .05 and satisfaction: β = -.48, t = -2.31, p < .05) and sports involvement (game enjoyment: β = .25, t = 3.29, p < .001 and satisfaction: β = .15, t = 2.17, p < .05) has a significant impact on game
enjoyment and game satisfaction. That said, highly identified fans more enjoyed and satisfied with the sport consumption experience than lowly identified fans. Particularly, the model explained 15% and 13% of the variance in game enjoyment and game satisfaction, respectively.

In addition, the authors performed a spotlight analysis at 1 standard deviation above (refers to highly identified fans) and 1 standard deviation below (refers to lowly identified fans) the mean to clarify the nature of the interaction effect. For game enjoyment, at a 1 standard deviation above, there was no difference between improving- and declining- sequence of mixed emotions ($\beta = .33, t = 1.19, p = .23$). In contrast, at a 1 standard deviation below, lowly identified fans more enjoyed the declining sequence of mixed emotions than the improving sequence ($\beta = -1.02, t = -3.58, p < .001$).

For game satisfaction, at a 1 standard deviation above, highly identified fans reported greater satisfaction for the improving sequence of mixed emotions than the declining sequence ($\beta = .49, t = 1.95, p = .05$). Meanwhile, at a 1 standard deviation below, lowly identified fans reported greater satisfaction for the declining sequence of mixed emotions than the improving sequence ($\beta = -.86, t = -3.39, p < .001$). Therefore, H1 was only supported for game satisfaction, while rejected for game enjoyment. Meanwhile, H2 was supported for game enjoyment and satisfaction.

**Test of Hypothesis 3 and 4**

After controlling the effect of football involvement, the results of the simple slope analysis indicated that interaction effect between different sequences of mixed emotions and team identification was significant for on attitude toward the advertisement ($\beta = .35, t = 2.03, p < .05$) and marginally significant for attitude toward the advertised sporting event ($\beta = .26, t = 1.75, p < .08$). However, interaction effect was not significant for future intention to attend the advertised sporting event ($\beta = .23, t = 1.31, p < .19$). In terms of main effect, only the effect of
sports involvement on future intention to attend advertised sporting event was significant ($\beta = .29$, $t = 3.09$, $p < .01$).

For attitude toward the advertisement, at a 1 standard deviation above, there was no difference between improving sequence of mixed emotions and declining sequence ($\beta = .53$, $t = 1.57$, $p = .12$). Meanwhile, at a 1 standard deviation below, lowly identified fans evaluated advertisement more favorably when it was located immediately after the declining sequence of mixed emotions compared to the improving sequence ($\beta = -.70$, $t = -2.03$, $p < .05$).

For attitude toward the advertised sporting event, at a 1 standard deviation above, highly identified fans created more marginally favorably attitude toward the advertised sporting event when advertisement was located immediately after the improving sequence of mixed emotions compared to the declining sequence ($\beta = .48$, $t = 1.66$, $p < .09$). Meanwhile, at a 1 standard deviation below, there was no difference between improving sequence of mixed emotion and declining sequence ($\beta = -.43$, $t = -1.45$, $p = .14$).

Simple slope analysis was not performed for future intention to attend the advertised sporting event because interaction effect was not significant. Thus, H3 was only partially supported for attitude toward the advertised sporting event, while H3 was rejected for attitude toward the advertisement and future intention. In contrast, H4 was only supported for attitude toward the advertisement, while H4 was rejected for attitude toward the advertised sporting event and future intention.
<table>
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<td>.97</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unpleasant/Pleasant</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Unfavorable/Favorable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative/Positive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward the Sporting Event</td>
<td>Bad/Good</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unpleasant/Pleasant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unfavorable/Favorable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Intention</td>
<td>Unlikely/Likely</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Improbable/Probable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impossible/Possible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dissatisfied/Satisfied</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Frustrated/Contented</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Upset/Delighted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I thought the “Sport Viewing Experience” was exciting.</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I enjoyed the “Sport Viewing Experience”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Watching the “Sport Viewing Experience” was a fun activity to do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I thought watching the “Sport Viewing Experience” was a boring activity (reversed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I thought watching the “Sport Viewing Experience” was quite enjoyable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Matters to me</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football Involvement</td>
<td>Relevant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Valuable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Means a lot to me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Of concern to me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>Standard Effort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Regression Constant)</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>-1.06</td>
<td>.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Identification</td>
<td>-.48</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence * Team Identification</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.*** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$.**
Table 5-3. Regression Analysis for the Enjoyment for Sport Viewing Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Effort</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Regression Constant)</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>-1.21</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>-2.97</td>
<td>.004**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Identification</td>
<td>-.51</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>-2.18</td>
<td>.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence * Team Identification</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>.008**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>.01**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05.*
Table 5-4. Regression Analysis for the Attitude toward the Advertisement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Standard Effort</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Regression Constant)</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>-.87</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>-1.78</td>
<td>.008**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Identification</td>
<td>-.035</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>-1.23</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence * Team Identification</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>.05*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05.
Table 5-5. Regression Analysis for the Attitude toward the Sporting Event

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Standard Effort</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Regression Constant)</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>-.56</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>-1.32</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Identification</td>
<td>-.26</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence * Team Identification</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* ***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05.*
Table 5-6. Regression Analysis for the Future Intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Standard Effort</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Regression Constant)</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>.008**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>-.50</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>-.101</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Identification</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence * Team Identification</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.002**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.*** p < .001; ** p < .01; * p < .05.*
Figure 5-1. The Effects of Sequence of Mixed Emotion Satisfaction
Figure 5-2. The Effects of Sequence of Mixed Emotion on Attitude toward the Advertisement
CHAPTER 6
DISCUSSION

For more than three decades, the power of emotions has been well-recognized by multiple disciplines including psychology (e.g., Andrade & Cohen, 2007; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Russell & Carroll, 1999), marketing (e.g., Aaker et al. 2008; Labroo & Ramanathan, 2007), and advertising (e.g., Morris, 1995; Morris et al., 2002). Many researchers have found that emotion shapes and influences how people process information and subsequently, make decisions (Morris et al., 2002). Especially, in the fields of advertising, several researchers have highlighted the role of emotions in creating effective advertisements (Brown, 2003; Moore & Harris, 1996; Morris et al., 2002; Puto & Wells, 1984). Although the power of emotions has been extensively highlighted in the literature, there has been a lack of scholarly efforts to understand how different types of emotional appeals in advertisements influence sports fans’ information-processing behaviors and their subsequent decisions.

To assist in filling these theoretical gaps, the purposes of the current study were to provide a guideline of how different sequences of mixed emotion affect sports consumers’ evaluation of sport viewing experience and their evaluation of advertisement that was positioned right after the experience across different digress of construal level (high vs. low).

**Sequence of Mixed Emotions and Construal Level Theory**

This study investigated the effects of different sequences of mixed emotions (improving vs. declining) on sports fans’ evaluations of advertisements based on the construal level (near future vs. distant future) with the sporting event. Prior literature has found that when people sequentially encounter opposite sides of a situation that conflict with each other, their overall evaluation is determined either on their first impression or the later impression (Forgas, 2011; Labroo & Ramanathan, 2007). This logic has been tested in the context of impression
management (Forgas, 2011), memory (Montgomery & Unnava, 2009), hedonic experience (Bhargave & Montgomery, 2013), and mixed emotions advertisements (Labroo & Ramathan, 2007).

**Highly Identified fans: Solution Strategy**

The results indicated that highly identified fans prefer to utilize a solution strategy when they evaluate a mixed emotions experience over a protection strategy. Specifically, this study found that, highly identified fans exhibited greater satisfaction when the sequence of mixed emotions was improving than declining. These findings are consist with the underlying mechanism of proposed solution strategy – that is, when highly identified fans experience a mixed emotions, negative emotions that appear during the first part should be resolved by following with positive emotions afterward to create an overall positive evaluation of a mixed emotions experience.

Consistent with our finding, there are several pieces of evidences that indicate solution strategy is more effective in creating overall positive evaluation of experience than protection strategy (Bhargave & Montgomery, 2013). For example, Montgomery and Unnava (2009) found that people usually evaluate retrospective memory as more favorable when the event is remembered as an improving sequence. Furthermore, in a job interview situation, Eyal et al. (2011) found that when a company hired a new employee for the upcoming week, the employee was evaluated more favorably when negative characteristics were mentioned in the first part of the application (e.g., envious) followed by the positive characteristics (e.g., intelligent) afterward.

**Lowly Identified Fans: Protection Strategy**

The results revealed that lowly identified fans favor to utilize a protection strategy when they evaluate mixed emotions experience than a solution strategy. Particularly, this study found that lowly identified fans more enjoyed the mixed emotions experience and exhibited greater
satisfaction when the sequence of a mixed emotions experience was declining compared to improving. These findings are consistent with the underlying mechanism of proposed protection strategy. That said, when lowly identified fans undergo a declining sequence of a mixed emotions experience, the positive side emotions that appeared in the beginning performed as a protector to overcome negative emotions that appeared in the later part of the mixed emotions experience.

Likewise, several other studies have also identified situations in which a protection strategy is effective in creating overall perceptions. In the context of an intergroup situation, Levy, Freitas, and Salovey (2002) found that for a distant future event, people showed a better ability to solve intergroup conflicts by focusing on positive aspects when making decisions than for a close future event. Likewise, in the job interview situation, Eyal et al. (2011) found that for the far distant event (e.g., hiring in the next 6 months), the interviewee was more favorably evaluated when the description highlighted the positive characteristics in the first part of the description followed by the negative characteristics.

**Extensions of Mood Contagion Effect**

In the emotions literature, existing research has suggested that mood transfers between persons (Hatfield et al., 1992) or objects (Neumann & Strack, 2000). The results of this study also indicated that sports consumers’ evaluation of sports consumption experience transfer to the assessment of advertisement that is positioned immediately after the experience. When sports consumers more enjoyed the sports consumption experience and exhibited greater satisfaction, they also created more favorable attitude toward the advertisement that was positioned immediately after the consumption experience. Particularly, this study extends previous emotion literature by demonstrating that sports consumers not only utilize outcome of the game as an important evaluation cue to assess advertisement that is positioned immediately after the game.
(Kwak et al. 2011; Wang & Kaplanidou, 2013), but they also utilize process of experiencing a sport consumption experience as an important evaluation cue. However, mood contagion effect was not strong enough to influence attitude toward advertised sporting event and intention to attend advertised sporting event in the future.

Managerial Implications

The current study provides several meaningful implications to managers in creating an effective promotional strategy for a sporting event based on the level of psychological distance that sports consumer created with a sporting event. In practice, many brands have started to implement mixed emotional appeal as part of their creative strategy to positively influence potential consumers because mixed emotional appeal is generally more effective than singular side emotional appeal (e.g., purely positive appeal; Alwitt, 2002). However, the results of this study suggest that managers should also select the appropriate sequence of mixed emotions to enhance the effectiveness. For a local or a nearly upcoming sporting event (e.g., a close psychological distance condition), managers should implement an improving sequence of mixed emotional appeal than a declining sequence to create an overall positive perceptions of an advertisement and an advertised sporting event. Meanwhile, for a global or a distant future sporting event (e.g., a far psychological distance condition), managers should implement a declining sequence of mixed emotional appeal than an improving sequence to create an overall positive perceptions of an advertisement and an advertised sporting event.

In addition, the results of this study suggest that managers should use sporting events as a marketing platform to promote products especially if they expect an engaging or enjoyable game. The results indicate that sport consumers’ evaluation of advertisements that follow a sporting event depend on the consumers’ assessments of their spectating experiences. Thus, managers
should attempt to advertise products during or after games that will likely elicit a positive evaluation from sport consumers.

**Limitation and Future Research**

The current study does have a few limitations. First, the current study did not measure whether mixed emotions truly occurred simultaneously or experienced in an extremely short period of time. In the future study, therefore, it will be interesting to examine whether people actually experience both positive and negative emotions at the same time or simply vacillate between those two emotions in a short period of time by using a neuroscience method (e.g., fMRI). Second, the current study used a fictitious sporting event to develop a target advertisement to control for the potential effects of prior knowledge and event evaluation. Future studies should attempt to replicate the results of this study by using a real advertisement with an existing sporting event. Third, this study used images to manipulate sequences of mixed emotions. While using images is an effective way to manipulate different sequences of mixed emotions (Bhargave & Montgomery, 2013), future studies should measure the effect that different media (e.g., video or text) have on sequences of mixed emotions and, ultimately, consumers’ decisions (Labroo & Ramanathan, 2007). Lastly, this study limited manipulation of construal level to a social distance based on the degree of team identification. In the CLT literature, researchers have identified several other dimensions—including temporal (e.g., tomorrow vs. next year), spatial (e.g., local vs. global perspective), and hypothetical distance (e.g., 90% vs. 10% of winning)—that determine levels of a consumer’s mental construal regarding a given object or event (Trope et al., 2007). Thus, future studies should examine how other dimensions affect consumers’ construal levels toward spectating behavior, and, ultimately, affect their decisions.
SPORTS. It’s such a enjoyable moment you will never forget!
Dear Participants;

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of emotional appeals on sporting event advertisements and sports fans’ media consumption behavior. Your contribution and participation in this survey is very important for the further examination of quality of experience. It is expected to take 20-25 minutes to complete the survey. You will earn 1 credit by participating in this experiment. However, there is also a non-research alternative to earn extra credit. You can earn 1 credit by reading a research article from a professional journal in Marketing and submitting a paper that discusses the article. If you are under 18 years old then you have to select a non-research alternative to earn extra credit.

There are no direct benefits to you for participating in the study. In addition, there are no known risks to you if you decide to participate in this survey and we guarantee that your responses will not be identified with you personally. We promise not to share any information that identifies you with anyone outside my research group. Also, your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law.

Your participation is voluntary and there is no penalty if you do not participate. Also, you can withdraw to take the survey at any time without penalty. If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about being in this study, please contact the addresses below. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the IRB (Email: irb2@ufl.edu; Phone Number: 1-352-392-0433). Thank you again for your cooperation and the valuable information you are providing in this survey.

Sincerely,

Wonseok Jang
Graduate Student
Advertising
University of Florida
sathink@ufl.edu

Approved by University of Florida Institutional Review Board 02:
PART I(1): We’d now like to ask some questions about your feelings and thoughts regarding the sporting viewing experience.

### Please indicate your overall evaluation of sport viewing experience?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dissatisfied</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frustrated</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Contented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upset</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Delighted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Please indicate your overall enjoyment of the sport viewing experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I enjoyed the sport viewing experience task very much</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sport viewing experience was fun to do</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think the sport viewing experience was a boring activity</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think sport viewing experience was quite enjoyable</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### What is your attitude toward the “IWAS” advertisement?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bad</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unpleasant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Pleasant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Favorable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### What is your attitude toward the “IWAS” Sporting Event?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bad</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unpleasant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Pleasant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Favorable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### My future intention to attend the “IWAS” sporting event is?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unlikely</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Likely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Certain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitely would not</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Definitely</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Please indicate your identification level with the Dallas Cowboys

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I consider myself to be a “real” fan of Dallas Cowboys</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of the</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dallas Cowboys</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being a fan of the Dallas Cowboy is very important to me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For personally, how accurately do this following describes football to you?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Matters to me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevant</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valuable</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means a lot to me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of concern to me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PART II: Please either check the appropriate box or fill in the blank for the items below.

Demographic information

What is your age?

What is your gender? (1) Female, (2) Male

Are you a native English speaker? (1) No, (2) Yes

My annual house hold income is (family):

(1) $9,999 or less
(2) $10,000~$39,999
(3) $40,000~$69,999
(4) $70,000~$119,999
(5) $120,000~199,999
(6) $200,000 or higher
I am:

(1) African-American
(2) Asian
(3) Caucasian/White
(4) Hispanic
(5) Others

My highest level of education is:

(1) High school
(2) College
(3) Graduate degree
(4) Other

Have you taken this study before? (Your response to this question will not influence your credit for participation)

(1) No
(2) Yes
(3) Maybe

Are you familiar with the logo?

(1) No
(2) Yes

One last question: What was the name for the logo?
LIST OF REFERENCES


BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Wonseok (Eric) Jang received his PhD from the College of Health and Human Performance at the University of Florida in the spring of 2016. His research has covered various topics with specific focuses on: (1) advertising effectiveness (e.g., sports and emotions) and (2) media consumption (e.g., mental energy and new media). He holds an M.S in sport management from University of Florida. Prior to entering the graduate program, he has 4 years of industry experiences. He has worked at Puma, a global sport brand in the department of advertising and marketing, and also has worked at Jack Nicklaus, a golf brand in the department of event management.

In regard to teaching, he has taught “Sport Advertising” and “Sport Marketing” class for both undergraduate and graduate students at the University of Florida. Particularly, he has developed a new class at the University of Florida – namely, “Sport Advertising” – designed to provide students with an industry perspective for the development, presentation, and evaluation of viable solutions to client market problems based on theory. Especially, during the course, his students have worked with a real client – FC Bayern Munich – to create a strategic communications plan to effectively promote the client’s brand in the United States.