



FULL TIME WITH INTERNATIONAL ORIENTATION

“Study on Personalization, Emotion and Consumer’s Attitude”

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the master’s
degree in marketing & communication

by

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CERTIFICATE OF DISSERTATION PREPARATION

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Executive Summary

Based on a review of the advertising personalization, emotions and the self-validation hypothesis literature, this thesis investigates the relationship among the personalization status and emotions. The author predicted and found that personalization status in a combination with a specific emotion can influence evaluative judgments by affecting the confidence people have in their thoughts to a persuasive message. Data for this analysis were collected from an experiment. In the study, participants first read a match or mismatched persuasive message. After listing their thoughts about the message, participants were induced to feel happy or sad. As a consequence, the effect of personalization on attitudes was greater for happy than for sad participants.

Key Words: Personalization, Advertising, Social Media, Facebook, Emotions, Sad, Happy, Attitude
Product



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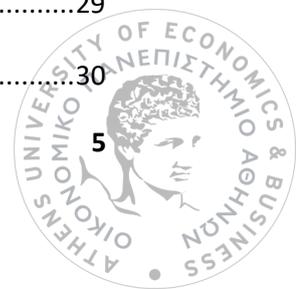
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1. Introduction

1.1 Problem definition and study purpose

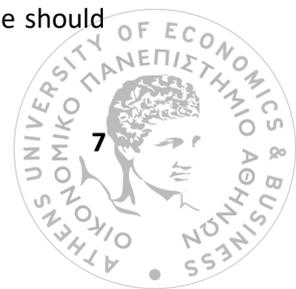
Prior work demonstrates that effective social media marketing can positively influence users' engagement (Cvijikj and Michahelles, 2013) and attachment to a brand (Jung and Soo, 2012). It stands to reason, therefore, to investigate how to strengthen users' attitudes toward a product, and consequently their perceptions of and loyalty to the brand itself (DelVecchio et al., 2006; Fetscherin, Heinrich, 2015) using social media marketing practices.

The fundamental idea of personalization is to deliver individualized information to message recipients based on their unique preferences. When exposed to a personalized message, message recipients are expected to pay closer attention to it, process it more carefully, and be more likely to use it for decision-making (Rimer & Kreuter, 2006). According to Noar et al. (2009), most, but not all, existing studies support the notion that personalized messages can generate more favorable effects, such as being more memorable, more likeable, and more persuasive, than non-personalized messages.

The literature has introduced mechanisms by which emotion can affect message recipients' evaluation (Briñol P. et al 2007). It is found that emotion can influence evaluative judgments by affecting the confidence people have in their thoughts to a persuasive message (R. E. Petty, P. Briñol, & Z. L. Tormala, 2002).

1.2 Research objective

In persuasion research, one way to manipulate the valence of thoughts is to vary the quality of the arguments in a message (Petty, Wells, & Brock, 1976). According to the literature, strong arguments elicit predominantly favorable thoughts and weak arguments elicit primarily unfavorable thoughts, if happiness increases reliance on thoughts more than sadness, this means that happy people should



be more influenced by argument quality than sad individuals. In this research, it is investigated whether or not the personalization variation in a message can manipulate the valence of attitudes. This finding would be important not only because it would extend the self-validation effect to a new and important variable—emotion—but also because it would suggest a relatively unexplored role for emotion in the persuasion process and account for anomalous prior research.

1.3 Methodology

In this research the link between personalization and emotions on customers' product attitude was investigated developing an experiment. Participants were exposed to some advertisements; some of them matched to the participants taste and some others didn't. Following, the attitude toward the advertised product, emotions and thoughts of the participants were investigated.

1.4 Outline of the dissertation

The rest of the dissertation is organized as follows. The second chapter presents the literature review of the topic. The Personalized Matching Literature is categorized according to the persuasion factor that produced the personalized match to the message recipient. Furthermore, this research focuses on social media advertizing and thus, it was mandatory to review also the web personalization. Of course, the literature and prior research concerning the customer's emotional status is well presented. In the third chapter, the research objectives are stated and the process that was followed in order to address the study's objectives is described. The data collection and analysis processes are detailed for the experiment. In chapter four the findings of the analysis of the data are outlined. In chapter five the conclusion of the analyses is provided. The useful results of the study are presented, along with a discussion regarding the emerged insights. In the final chapter of the dissertation, chapter six, the implications, limitations and future study directions are provided. The academic and managerial implications are also presented briefly. All tables, charts and supporting information are then presented in the appendix.



2. Literature review

2.1 Personalization

In order to organize the review of the Personalized Matching literature, the relevant work was categorized according to the persuasion factor that produced the personalized match to the message recipient: the content of the message, the source and the context in which the message was delivered. In addition, this research focuses on social media advertizing and thus, it was mandatory to review also the web personalization. Web personalization analysis is based on the taste matching, need matching and location matching approaches.

Before starting with the review, it is important to provide some definitions for personalization to understand the concept of it. Below there are some of them compiled by Vankalo (2003):

“Customizing some feature of a product or service so that the customer enjoys more convenience, lower cost, or some other benefit.” Peppers and Rogers (1997)

“A specialized form of product differentiation, in which a solution is tailored for a specific individual.” (p. 450) Hanson (2000).

Company-driven individualization of customer web experience. (p. 32–33) Allen, Kania, and Yaeckel (2001).

“Personalization is the ability of a company to recognize and treat its customers as individuals through personal messaging, targeted banner ads, special offers on bills, or other personal transactions.” (p. 467) Imhoff, Loftis and Geiger (2001).

Changes in a product or service to better match customer needs. These changes can be initiated by the customer (e.g., customizing the look and contents of a web page) or by the firm (e.g., individualized offering, greeting customer by name, etc.). (p. 15) Wind and Rangaswamy (2001).

Personalization is performed by the company and is based on a match of categorized content to profiled users. Cöner (2003).



“The process of preparing an individualized communication for a specific person based on stated or implied preferences.” (p. 462) Roberts (2003).

2.1.1 Message – Recipient Match

The most common type of personalization in the literature occurs between the message content and its recipient, where, some aspect of the message itself is tailored to align with an aspect of the consumer to increase an appeal’s persuasiveness. These matches can be simple as using consumer’s name in the address of the appeal (Howard & Kerin, 2011; Sahni, Wheeler, & Chintagunta, 2018) or describing relevant behaviors in which the consumer has previously engaged (Kreuter & Wray, 2003). In addition, there is a wide array of variables within a recipient to which a message can be personalized. In this research, these consumer characteristics are organized into the following psychological categories: consumers’ affective and cognitive states, their goals and motivational orientations, their attitude bases and functions, their identities and their culture.

A. Matching to Affective and Cognitive States

According to the literature, when an appeal is matched to one or more customer’s visceral drives (e.g., hunger, thirst, sleep; Loewenstein, 1996), it can enhance the effectiveness of the appeal (Bermeitinger et al., 2009; Karremans et al., 2006; Risen & Critcher, 2011). Moreover, consumers’ complex affective states, described through the combination of the consumer’s extant arousal and emotive valence (cf., Russell, 2009), have been proven successful targets for personalized appeals. In the same context, messages promoting products that are matched to consumers’ arousal levels (e.g., energy drinks for high-arousal consumers) produce similar outcomes (Di Muro & Murray, 2012). At this point, it should be mentioned that there are two types of arousal, energetic and tense (Teeny, Deng & Unnava, 2019) and persuasive attempts for products matched to the motivational drive associated with each enhance attitude change (Fan, Chang, Wegener, 2015).

Other researchers have proven that matching the message’s context to the positive or negative valence of consumers can similarly enhance persuasion of the message (Cho & Choi, 2010; Wegener,

Petty, & Klein, 1994). However, targeting the specific emotion elicited by the combination of the consumer's valence and arousal can produce even more targeted appeals. Whether the consumer is feeling romantic or fearful (Griskevicius et al., 2009), sad or angry (DeSteno et al., 2004), or cheerful or tranquil (Bosmans & Baumgartner, 2005), using messages that address the consumer's specific emotional state can enhance their persuasiveness.

At the same time, matching the content or language of the message to consumers salient cognitive states, their thinking style for example, can also enhance persuasion (Yang, Ringberg, Mao, & Peracchio, 2011, (Dubois, Rucker, & Galinsky, 2016). Additionally, using metaphors that match consumers' cognitive representation of the advocated topic is associated with enhanced persuasion (Keefer, Landau, Sullivan, & Rothschild, 2014; Landau, Amdt, & Cameron, 2018).

The Psychological construal, which refers to the extent to which a consumer is in an abstract mindset versus a concrete mindset (Liberman, Trope, & Wakslak, 2007), is one of the most robust cognitive states studied in work on matching techniques. This means that receiving a message focused on the abstract desirability (vs. the concrete feasibility) of a product can produce outcomes that are more positive for consumers in an abstract (vs. concrete) mindset (Fujita et al., 2008; Hansen & Wanke, 2010).

B. Matching to Goals and Motivational Orientations

Consumers' goals and motivations can serve as effective targets for personally matched appeal. One major variable in this category is consumers' purchasing goal. Studies have shown that those with hedonic purchasing goals respond more favorably to advertisements promoting more the hedonic benefits, on the contrast to those with utilitarian purchase goals who respond more favorably to advertisements emphasizing utilitarian benefits (Chitturi, Raghunathan, & Mahajan, 2008; Klein & Melnyk, 2014). Other researchers have also shown how specific types of content, such as assertive claims for hedonic shoppers and non-assertive claims for utilitarian shoppers (Kronrod, Grinstein, & Wathieu, 2011) can also utilize personalized matching.

In addition, other work has shown that some consumers tend to be more situationally or chronically approach oriented or avoidance oriented. The ones who are approach oriented respond mostly to incentives and signal of rewards and, in the contrast, those who are avoidance oriented tend to respond to threats and signals of punishment (Carver & White, 1994). Consequently, it is not just consumer's currently activated goal but also their broader motivational orientation to which the messages can be matched, enhancing the persuasion (Gerend & Shepherd, 2007; Jeong & Jang, 2011; Mann, Sherman, & Updegraff, 2004).

Later theoretical work has argued that consumers vary on how they approach good outcomes and avoid bad ones— what has been called regulatory focus (Higgins, 2000; Higgins et al., 2003). They support that consumers can be more prevention-focused (attuned to avoiding losses and approaching non-losses) or more promotion-focused (attuned to approaching gains and avoiding non-gains) (Cesario, Corker, & Jelinek, 2013). In either case, research clearly shows that matching the content of a message to this aspect of the consumer tends to produce positive persuasion outcomes (i.e., what is described as regulatory fit; Aaker & Lee, 2001; Cesario et al., 2013; Fransem, Reinders, Bartels, & Maassen, 2010; Kim, 2006; Motyka et al., 2014).

C. Matching to Attitude Bases and Functions

The more positive a consumer is toward a specific issue, the more positively they will respond to a matched message (Clark & Wegener, 2013). To understand it, imagine a message encouraging consumers to protect environment. Its' persuasion effectiveness is stronger when it addresses to someone who supports protecting the environment than to someone who is not environmental conscious (Abrahamse, Steg, Vlek, & Rothengatter, 2007; Bostrom, Böhm, & O'Connor, 2013).

In general, consumers vary in the degree to which any given attitude is based primarily on affect or cognition. However, certain domains tend to elicit one basis over the other (e.g., experiential-domains vs. knowledge-domains, respectively; Breckler & Wiggins, 1989). Regardless of the specific attitude, affective messages (e.g., appeals that feature emotion-evoking images or affective anecdotes) tend to be more persuasive for consumers with affectively based attitudes, whereas

cognitive messages (e.g., appeals that feature graphs or information) tend to be more persuasive for those with cognitive attitudes (e.g., Edwards, 1990; Fabrigar & Petty, 1999).

According to literature, people tend to vary dispositionally across their attitudes in these bases. Some people tend to have more affectively based attitudes, those with high need of affect (Maio & Esses, 2001), toward a wide variety of attitude objects, whereas others tend to have more cognitively based attitudes, those with high need for cognition (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). Matching messages to these individual differences has also been shown to enhance persuasion (Haddock, Maio, Arnold, & Huskinson, 2008).

Another influential attribute is the extent to which consumers perceive that their attitudes are based on morality (e.g., Luttrell, Teeny, & Petty, 2019; Skitka & Bauman, 2008). Like the matching studies on affective/cognitive bases, when persuasive appeals match these forms (e.g., a message emphasizes the moral consequences of an appeal for consumers whose attitude is based on morality), it results in greater persuasion (Luttrell, Philipp-Muller, & Petty, 2019).

In addition, a topic can also differ in the type of morality underlying the attitude. According to Graham, Haidt, & Nosek, (2009), an attitude's moral basis can derive from one of five intuitions: care/harm, fairness/cheating, loyalty/betrayal, authority/subversion, and sanctity/degradation. That means that even if consumers share a common moral attitude, the level of persuasion of a message may be differential targeting different moral foundations. It is noticeable, that these moral foundations can vary as a function of the specific attitude, or consumers can more generally vary in their endorsement of a subset of moral foundations (Graham et al., 2009). These specific moral foundations are emphasized in messages to those who endorse the matched foundations, it has increased the message's persuasiveness (Day, Fiske, Downing, & Trail, 2014; Kidwell, Farmer, & Hardesty, 2013).

Similar to the variety of bases underlying consumers' attitudes, their attitudes also vary in the function they serve for the consumer (Katz, 1960). Specifically, research has outlined a number of different attitude functions, such as a knowledge function, a value-expressive function, a social-

adjusted function, and others. Of relevance to the current review, matching a message's content to one of these attitude functions can be an effective way to enhance an appeal's persuasiveness (Clary et al., 1998; Hullett, 2002; LeBoeuf & Simmons, 2010; Petty & Wegener, 1998; Shavitt, 1989, 1990; Spivey, Munson, & Locander, 1983; Snyder & DeBono, 1989; for reviews, see Carpenter, 2012; Petty et al., 2000).

Self-monitoring is one of the most studied consumer-level individual differences in attitude function (Snyder, 1974; 1979). This study supports that high self-monitors are concerned about their social image, adapting their attitudes and behavior to fit their current interpersonal circumstance, whereas low self-monitors, on the other hand, pay little mind to their social image and are instead concerned about expressing congruence between their internal beliefs and outward attitudes and behaviors. Consequently, the first category experience a match when advertisements highlight the social image benefits of a purchase and the second category experience a personalized match when advertisements highlight the performance or quality of the product.

D. Matching to Identities

Identities include a multitude of dimensions of the self-concept; from those that are more social (i.e., they are connected to a social role or group), to those that are more personal (i.e., they represent aspects or dimensions of the individual self). Broadly, if the consumer possesses an awareness of either a social or personal self-relevant dimension (i.e., if the consumer is able to describe it on self-report measures), it can represent a potential identity for which to personalize an appeal, even if the consumer does not objectively possess the relevant trait (Li, 2016). Thus, in this section, possible consumer identities are analyzed, for which previous research has demonstrated matching effects.

When it comes to consumers' social identities, framing a message as particularly beneficial or relevant to that social group can enhance the persuasiveness of the message. For example, matching consumers' ethnic identity (Forehand, Deshpandé, & Reed, 2002) or gender identity (Fleming & Petty, 2000; Meyers-Levy & Sternthal, 1991) has produced more positive persuasion outcomes. In

addition to consumers' social identities, messages can also match consumers' personal identities to the same effect. For example, consumers who perceived themselves as more sophisticated or more outdoorsy reported greater purchase intentions after receiving a message that emphasized the appeal's relevance for the specific identity (Summers, Smith, & Reczek, 2016).

Another example includes consumers' need for cognition (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982), where advertising a product as relevant for high (vs. low) thinkers enhances the appeal for those high (vs. low) on need for cognition (Bakker, 1999; See, Petty, & Evans, 2009). Other research has observed similar effects for consumers' dominance-orientation, sensation seeking, future-orientation and many other identities (e.g., Bailis, Fleming, & Segall, 2004; Coe et al., 2017; Williams-Piehota et al., 2004, for a review, see Dijkstra, 2008). Even consumers' self-esteem has been targeted to similar effect: advertising non-idealized (vs. idealized) content is more effective for consumers who view themselves favorably rather than unfavorably (Bian & Wang, 2015). However, one personal identity that has received a significant amount of attention is consumers' perceptions of themselves on the Big Five factors of personality (Goldberg, 1990).

Across all of the identities and self-descriptions we've discussed, advances in technology and the access to consumers' online activity have allowed for greater identification of both consumers' social and personal identities (Barberá et al., 2015; Kteily, Rocklage, McClanahan, & Ho, 2019), expanding the possibilities for segmenting and targeting consumers based on the variety of ways in which consumers perceive themselves.

E. Matching to Culture

To complete the list of consumer characteristics to which messages have been matched, the culture should be mentioned. Culture can shape consumers' thinking styles. In Western cultures, people tend to emphasize thinking analytically and in Eastern cultures, they tend to emphasize thinking holistically (Nisbett, Peng, Choi, & Norenzayan, 2001). Thus, when a message matches a consumer's culturally - determined thinking style (e.g., a product is portrayed in isolation for analytical thinkers

vs. as part of a broader context for holistic thinkers), it tends to elicit more positive persuasive outcomes (Liang, Runyan, & Fu, 2011; Monga & John, 2006; 2010).

The most studied cultural dimension in personalized matching, however, is a consumer's independent versus interdependent self-construal. Consumers with an independent self-construal view themselves as separate and unique from others, whereas consumers with an interdependent self-construal view themselves as connected and related to others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Beyond these more direct methods for matching the message to one's cultural self-construal, other research has identified several less apparent variables that can produce similar outcomes. For example, promotion (vs. prevention) focused messages for independent (vs. interdependent) self-construal (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Lee et al., 2000; Sherman, Uskul, & Updegraff, 2011; Sung & Choi, 2012), individual (vs. collective) focused appeals for independent (vs. interdependent) self-construal (Chai, Zhao, & Zhang, 2011; Han & Shavitt, 1994; Zhang & Gelb, 1996), as well as temporally distant (vs. proximal) benefits for independent (vs. interdependent) self-construal (Pounders, Lee, & Mackert, 2015; Spassova & Lee, 2013) have all been shown to produce enhanced persuasive effects, because these kinds of messages are more compatible with the person's culturally-bestowed self-construal.

2.1.2 Source to Recipient Match

Broadly, any form of similarity between the source of the message and the message recipient tends to enhance the persuasive impact of the appeal (e.g., overall lifestyle, cultural background, appearance, basic values, etc.; Lu, 2013; Phua, 2016). These matches generally take the same form as the ones involving message content, where an aspect of the recipient matches the affective or cognitive state, goal or motivational orientation, attitude basis or function, identity, or culture of the source. Below, we detail some specific examples of these source characteristics that have produced personalized matching effects.

Sources which personally align with the affective or cognitive state of the consumer tend to enhance the persuasiveness of the appeal. For example, emotionally intense recipients tend to be more persuaded by more (vs. less) emotionally intense sources (Aune & Kikuchi, 1993), and consumers high (vs. low) in power tend to be more persuaded by sources high (vs. low) in power themselves (Dubois et al., 2016). Other work has shown how the source can match the consumers' relevant attitude function, too. For example, consumers whose attitude function is knowledge based (vs. social-adjustive based) are more persuaded by sources who serve a matched function :expert sources for knowledge functions and attractive sources for social-adjustive functions(e.g., Evans & Clark, 2012; Ziegler, von Schwichow, & Diehl, 2005). Moreover, because sources' identities (both personal and social) are a salient factor for message recipients, this dimension, too, has reliably produced matching effects. For example, recipients who share the source's political identity (e.g., a liberal source advocating to a liberal recipient) tend to exhibit greater persuasion (Hartman & Weber, 2009; Nelson &Garst, 2006), even if the content of the message does not align with the recipient's stance on the specific issue (Bochner, 1989). Additionally, when a source's culture – which can be signaled with as little as an accent – aligns with the recipient, this too can enhance persuasion (Ivanic, Bates, & Somasundaram, 2014; Tsalikis, DeShields, & LaTour, 1992).

One of the unique characteristics of source-to-recipient matches (as well as setting-to-recipient matches) is that they can occur through more physical cues (Guyer, Briñol, Petty, & Horcajo, 2019). For example, consumers are more persuaded by sources who physically resemble (vs. do not resemble) the consumer's in-group (e.g., Olivola, Tingley, & Todorov, 2018). Similarly, when other physical traits of the source, such as the dominance of the source's face (Laustsen & Petersen, 2016) or the pitch of the source's voice (Banai, Laustsen, Banai, & Bovan, 2018), signal and thus align with traits personally matched to the recipient, it can enhance persuasion.

2.1.3 Setting to Recipient Match

Setting-to-recipient matches entail that a characteristic of the setting aligns with an already established characteristic of the recipient – in contrast to a recipient's setting activating a personal characteristic that then matches an appeal's message or source. In general, the personalized matching literature has conducted less research on setting-to-recipient matches, potentially due to the relative difficulty in manipulating the consumers' setting or the reduced ability to target a specific segment (as the setting applies to all consumers who enter it). Nonetheless, if an aspect of the consumer's setting matches a characteristic of the consumer (e.g., delivering a message in a quieter room for introverts vs. a louder room for extraverts), it can produce personalized matching effects in the same way as other variables.

Much of the work on setting-to-recipient matches has examined how consumers' motivations interact with persuasion. Whereas hedonic shoppers (i.e., "recreational shoppers", who enjoy the shopping experience itself) report greater in-store purchase intentions, when stores elicit greater arousal (i.e., stores with red walls and more cluttered floorplans), utilitarian shoppers (i.e., "economic shoppers", who merely want to obtain their product) report greater purchase intentions when stores elicit lower arousal (i.e., stores with blue walls and more spacious floorplans (Van Rompay, Tanja-Tijckstra, Verhoeven, & van Es, 2012).

With online shopping becoming the increasingly dominant form of shopping, marketers can also utilize the atmospherics of the digital environment to create personally matched appeals (for a review of relevant atmospherics, see Wan, Nan, & Smith, 2009). For example, whereas online hedonic shoppers respond more favorably to immersive and experiential website atmospherics, online utilitarian shoppers find these aspects negative and distracting (Hunter & Mukerji, 2011). In contrast, utilitarian shoppers respond more favorably to task-oriented features, such as the website's navigability and search functions (Gounaris, Koritos, & Vassilikopoulou, 2010; see also Bridges & Florsheim, 2007). Other research demonstrates the value of considering less controllable atmospherics in these online settings, such as the time of day when a persuasive message is read. For

example, consumers categorized as morning-types (vs. evening-types) exhibited greater attitude change following a message with strong arguments delivered during the morning (vs. the evening; Martin & Marrington, 2005).

2.1.4 The meaning of the match

In the prior sections, a wide range of consumer dimensions upon which personalized matching has enhanced message effectiveness was covered. As mentioned briefly, however, this is not always the case: sometimes personally matched messages can actually reduce persuasion. In order to understand why (and when) this would be, one factor that is useful to consider is the meaning that the match generates for consumers. With any matched message, consumers can interpret the experience of it either positively or negatively (i.e., its meaning). Moreover, these interpretations can occur outside of awareness (e.g., the match induces processing fluency) or more explicitly (e.g., the match is perceived as an attempt at manipulation). Regardless of the specific meaning or how it manifests, to understand how a match influences persuasion, it is helpful to determine whether the match generates positive or negative meanings for the consumer.

As mention before, personalization has been shown to produce positive meanings for consumers. This positivity can stem from several sources such as the increased self-relevance of the matched message (DeBono& Packer, 1991; Petty & Wegener, 1998). People feel positively toward themselves, thus anything linked to the self can also take on that positivity (Gawronski, Bodenhausen, & Becker, 2007;Horcajo,Briñol, & Petty, 2010). In addition, matched messages can generate greater feelings of rightness or fit (Cesario et al., 2004; Feinberg & Willer, 2015; Higgins, 2005;), greater feelings of familiarity or fluency (Labroo & Lee, 2006; Lee & Aaker, 2004; Thompson & Hamilton, 2006), heightened perceptions of self-efficacy in attaining the advocated outcome (Han et al., 2016; Sherman, Mann, & Updegraff, 2006), and greater feelings of authenticity (Denissen et al., 2017; Bleidorn et al., 2016; Harms et al., 2006; Edwards et al., 1998).



Unfortunately, there had been significantly less work identifying the potential negative meanings that a personalized message can generate. Four primary meanings have been established. That is, a blatant match can be seen as an attempt at manipulation (Briñol, Rucker, & Petty, 2015; David et al., 2012; Reinhart, Marshall, Feeley, & Tutzauer, 2007), an invasion of privacy (Aguirre, et al., 2015; Van Doorn & Hoekstra, 2013; White, Zahay, Thorbjørnsen, & Shavitt, 2008), reflecting an unfair or stereotypic judgment (Derricks & Earl, 2019; Kim, Barasz, Hon, & Norton, 2019; White & Argo, 2009), or presenting an expected oral ready known content (Hastie, 1984; Maheswaran & Chaiken, 1991; Clark, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 2008).

Finally, positive meanings (e.g., self-relevance) invariably produce positive outcomes, whereas negative meanings (e.g., manipulation) invariably produce negative outcomes. But this is not always the case. The outcome of a message is, depending on the specific mechanism by which the match influences attitudes, even positive meanings can sometimes produce negative outcomes, and negative meanings can sometimes produce positive outcomes. It all depends on the underlying psychological process involved. Thus, in this section we turn to elucidating the multiple mechanisms by which personalized matching can affect attitudes. To do so, a well-established general theory of persuasion, the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) is used.

2.2 Elaboration Likelihood Model

ELM describes and models the underlying processes of attitude change (Petty & Briñol, 2012; Petty & Wegener, 1998). In the model, a finite number of attitude change processes emerge as a function of consumers' levels of elaboration, which is determined by their overall level of motivation and ability to think about the persuasive advocacy. That is, in any given advertising context, consumers can range from relatively low to high in their extent of thinking, and depending on where the consumer falls along this continuum, personalized matching is argued to influence consumers' attitudes and behaviors through different psychological processes (Teeny, Briñol, & Petty, 2016). In order to understand when and how personalized matching will influence persuasion, it's necessary to

consider the positive or negative meaning it generates and the psychological process through which it operates. The literature review will continue with the examination of the processes responsible for personalized matching effect.

2.2.1 Influencing the amount of Elaboration

The analysis starts with the description of matching's effect on the amount of thinking. The extent to which customers elaborate on a message is influenced by two factors: their motivation and their ability to think about the message. The motivation can be affected by situational factors such as the likelihood that consumer will be able to buy a product (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983), or dispositional factors, like one's general preference to engage in critical thinking (Cacioppo, Petty, & Morris, 1983). Similarly, one's ability to process a message can be affected by situational factors, like the speed at which a spoken message is delivered (Smith & Schaffer, 1995), or dispositional factors like a consumer's intelligence (Wood, Rhodes, & Biek, 1995). When these various situational and dispositional variables do not constrain the extent of thinking to be very high or low, then personalized matching can affect the extent of thinking.

Personalization can increase and decrease elaboration. By definition, personalized matching makes the appeal more personally relevant to the consumer, thus when consumers recognize this self-relevance, the match is likely to increase thinking about the message (Petty & Cacioppo, 1979a; 1979b; 1990). In addition to affecting the motivation to process a message, personalized matching can also increase elaboration through its effect on consumer's ability to think. A message that is easier to process tends to elicit increased elaboration (Wood et al., 1995; Wu & Shaffer, 1987), when an aspect of the persuasion context personally matches an aspect of the consumer; it can facilitate greater elaboration through more fluent processing (See et al., 2008; Thompson & Hamilton, 2006). On the contrary, there are also some cases when it has been shown to have the opposite effect. For example, if the personalized match generates a negative meaning, it could reduce elaboration due to consumers' motivation to ignore the appeal (Xu, 2015). The most common instance of when

matching decreases elaboration is when a message matches the expectancies that consumers have about the message content (Smith and Petty 1996).

Serving as a cue

Prior studies have shown that when thinking was unconstrained (DeBono & Harnish, 1988), consumers in a low elaboration state reported more positive attitudes toward a matched message even when no actual arguments were presented (DeBono, 1987), thus, the match served as a simple positive cue for one's evaluation. Other research has shown similar effects for consumers unlikely to be elaborating: the matched message simply influences attitudes as a function of the meaning it generates (Avnet, Laufer, & Higgins, 2013; Kidwell et al., 2013; Lammers & Baldwin, 2018; Ryffel & Wirth, 2016; Shavitt, Swan, Lowery, & Wanke, 1994).

Biasing thoughts

Matching, like other persuasion variables, can bias the valence of the thoughts a consumer generates (Petty, Schumann, Richman, & Strathman, 1993). Under high elaboration, the more positive thoughts a consumer generates in response to an appeal, the more attitude change he or she exhibits. Accordingly, when a personalized match generates a positive meaning for consumers who are motivated and able to think, it tends to elicit a greater number of favorable thoughts in support of the appeal (DeBono & Telesca, 1990). In related work, researchers have found that matching can influence recipients' attitudes by biasing their perceived likelihood that a desired outcome will be obtained. In one study (Wegener, Petty, & Klein, 1994), among recipients engaged in high amounts of thinking (i.e., those high in need for cognition), induced happiness increased the persuasiveness of a message focused on the positive consequences of adopting a recommended policy (vs. the negative consequences of not adopting the policy). When the positive appeal matched these participants' positive affective state, it biased them to judge these consequences as more likely than those in the mismatched message, thereby increasing the relative persuasiveness of the matched message.

Validating thoughts



The ELM, research suggests that personalized matching can also affect consumers' secondary (i.e., metacognitive) thoughts as well. When consumers are engaged in high elaboration, these secondary cognitions can have significant influence on attitudes (Briñol & DeMarree, 2012; Dunlosky & Metcalfe, 2009). According to the self-validation hypothesis (Petty, Briñol, & Tormala, 2002), the more consumers have confidence in or liking for their primary cognitions, the more influence those cognitions have on their attitudes and behavior. Subsequent research has revealed that personalized matching can affect these thought validation processes. For example, in one study (Evans & Clark, 2012), highly elaborating participants first read a message that contained strong or weak arguments, before they learned that the message came from a source that either matched their level of self-monitoring (i.e., an attractive source for high self-monitors and an expert source for low self-monitors) or mismatched it. In the matched condition, thought confidence was increased, which resulted in more attitude change when the arguments were strong because the participants' favorable thoughts to those arguments were validated. In contrast, the match produced reduced attitude change when the arguments were weak because the participants' unfavorable thoughts to these arguments were validated. Other matching research has shown similar effects. For example, participants induced to experience a match (vs. mismatch) between their current affective state and the activated evaluative concepts of the appeal perceived greater validity in their message-relevant thoughts. In turn, they exhibited greater attitude change when the arguments were strong but less change when the arguments were weak (Huntsinger, 2013).

Correcting for bias

According to the Flexible Correction Model (Petty & Wegener, 1993; Wegener & Petty, 1995), when consumers perceive a biasing influence on their thoughts, they will try to estimate both the direction and the magnitude of the perceived bias and attempt to subtract that bias from their overall evaluation. Thus, if consumers perceive the personalization in an appeal is an unwanted biasing factor, they may try to metacognitively correct for its influence. Importantly, the perceived bias from matching can either be positive (e.g., "I am likely too favorable toward this message because it

matches me”) or negative (e.g., “I am likely too negative toward this message because it targeted a stigmatized identity”). In order to correct for personalized matching effects, a consumer must be motivated to detect biasing factors, possess a lay theory about that biasing factor’s influence, and, importantly, believe such an influence is inappropriate (Wegener & Petty, 1997).

Over the previous sections, we have outlined how different forms of personalized matching can influence persuasion through different psychological processes. So far, the ways on how personalized matching can influence consumers’ primary thoughts: it can affect the extent of thinking when it is not otherwise constrained, how it serves as a simple positive or negative cue when thinking is low, or, when thinking is high, how it can bias the nature of the thoughts generated, how it serves as a persuasive argument and corrector for bias and how it validates consumer’s thoughts are discussed.

2.2.2 Can matching produce strong attitudes?

As mentioned already, the ELM holds that the psychological processes responsible for persuasion can be extremely important in affecting whether the attitude change produced by a match (or any other factor) is consequential or not. By consequential, is meant whether the attitudes resulting from matched persuasion are strong or weak (Petty & Krosnick, 1995). Stronger attitudes are those that persist longer over time, are more resistant to change in the face of an attack, and guide behavior to a greater extent than weaker attitudes (Krosnick & Petty, 1995). According to the ELM, attitude changes brought about by high thought processes tend to be stronger than those brought about by low thought processes. For example, a message matched to one’s identity could produce “3 units of change” either by serving as a cue under low thinking conditions or by biasing thoughts under high thinking conditions. Although the extent of change is the same in both cases, the attitude change produced by high thinking is likely to be more consequential (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983).

Despite considerable research supporting this postulate of the ELM for many different variables, there is relatively little work examining it in the context of personalized matching. In one example, Pierro and al. (2012) provided either brief or lengthy messages to consumers who were either

motivated or not motivated to elaborate. They then measured attitudes immediately and then again three weeks later. Whereas greater persuasion occurred for immediate attitudes in both of the matched conditions (i.e., those in the lengthy message, high elaboration condition and the brief message, low elaboration condition) in comparison to the mismatched ones, only the greater attitude change of the high-thought match persisted three weeks later. This work suggests that instantiating matches when consumers are elaborating more (vs. less) will produce more impactful influence, though much more work on this topic is needed.

With this review, we aimed to provide a comprehensive framework for evaluating and implementing matching effects. Specifically, we distinguished between two types of matching. We focused on personalized (rather than non-personalized) matching and the factors in the persuasion context through which it can manifest (i.e., a match between the recipient of the message and the message content, source, or setting). We then detailed a host of variables that have exhibited effective personalized matching effects and documented the occasions when it can backfire. Finally, we provided a theoretical account of when and how matching can affect persuasion, detailing the psychological processes through which it can operate. As described, understanding the mechanisms underlying matching is a critical consideration because it has consequences for short and long-term persuasion.

2.3 Digital Personalization

According to the literature, personalization is invoked as an important element in marketing strategy, especially when it comes for interaction (Blattberg and Deighton 1991). From the one hand, the concept of knowing the consumer's spontaneous preference is a core principal for personalization. From the other hand, using technology to help identify and satisfy customer's needs is at the core of any marketing strategy. In the following subsections, two context awareness strategies in digital environment will be discussed: taste matching, need matching and location matching.



Reviewing the literature of personalization, we understand that the concept of taste is a cornerstone. Taste reflects customer's individual personal and cultural patterns of likes and dislikes. This means that an individual's judgments of taste involve low cognitive processes (Gronow 1997; Kant 2009). Moreover, taste matching goal is to offer a product to meet customer's aesthetic taste (Benlian 2015). Since taste is a subjective assessment, in taste-matching, there is no single set of objective criteria that captures all aspects of an individual's taste and ranks individual products in a given product category (Adomavicius et al. 2013). Collaborative filtering and data mining of customer transactions are typical methods to understand and model an individual's taste. Prior research has often chosen hedonic products to study taste matching, for instance, music in (Benlian 2015, Ghoshal et al. 2015 and Oestreicher-Singer and Zalmanson 2013), movies and DVDs in (Ghoshal et al. 2015 and Zhang et al. 2011), and TV shows and jokes in (Adomavicius et al. 2013).

Need is a personal circumstance in which something is required rather than just desirable. It is synonymous with requirement. Compared with taste, need is a more complex construct because an individual possesses many kinds of need. Prior research on personalization has examined task need (Adomavicius et al. 2011; Kohler et al. 2011; Qiu and Benbasat 2009; Wang and Benbasat 2007, 2009), emotional need (Benlian et al. 2012; Qiu and Benbasat 2009), motivational need (Benlian et al. 2012), information need (Benlian et al. 2012), and physiological and psychological needs (Kohler et al. 2011).

Location matching is more ambiguous than the other types of matching. Literature suggest that location-matching offers a product recommendation that is available in close proximity to consumers' current geographical place or position (Wattal et al. 2009; Xu et al. 2012; Zou and Huang 2015). Prior research reveals that consumers are more likely to accept location matched recommendations than unmatched recommendations (Constantiou et al. 2014; Ho 2012).

2.4 Emotions

In this research a mechanism by which emotion can affect attitude on the basis of the self-validation hypothesis (R. E. Petty, P. Briñol, & Z. L. Tormala, 2002) is used. According to the literature emotion can influence evaluative judgments by affecting the confidence people have in their thoughts to a persuasive message (R. E. Petty, P. Briñol, J. Barden 2007).

The main question this survey searches is whereas emotion may affect our attitude as customers. Emotion can influence attitude change by affecting thought confidence (R. E. Petty, P. Briñol, J. Barden 2007). Literature suggests that emotional states have a complex relationship with persuasion whereby the presence of positive states led to increase attitude change compared with negative states and other multiple effects via multiple processes (Petty, Schumann, Richman, & Strathman, 1993). Petty & Cacioppo (1986) have published a general framework to organize the mechanism by which emotion impacts persuasion developing their theory of the Elaboration Likelihood Model.

According to the ELM, attitude change occurs through different processes depending on the extent of elaboration the individual engages in regarding the message. When the elaboration of the message is low (low motivation and ability to think) then persuasion relevant variables such as emotion can have an impact in attitudes through relatively low effort peripheral processes (Petty et al., 1993). In addition, when people are not constrained to either high or low elaboration, emotional state it has been shown to impact persuasion by influencing the extent of processing that a message receives. Most studies compare happiness with sadness. From the one hand, happiness interferes with cognitive capacity in comparison to a neutral state, resulting in a decrease in elaborative processing (Mackie and Worth 1989). From the other hand, sadness is typically associated with less confidence than happiness, leading to more thinking in an effort to reduce uncertainty.

Finally, when elaboration is constrained to be high, the impact of emotion works by different, more cognitively effortful processes. First, one's emotions can be scrutinized as a piece of evidence relevant to the merits of an attitude object (e.g., Martin, 2000). Second, according to associative network theories of memory, emotions can facilitate the retrieval of emotionally congruent

information and inhibit the retrieval of emotionally incongruent information (Blaney, 1986; Bower, 1981; Clark & Isen, 1982; Parrot & Sabini, 1990). Because of this, under high thinking conditions emotions have been shown to bias the thoughts that come to mind about a persuasive message (Petty et al., 1993) and have increased the perceived likelihood of emotionally congruent versus emotionally incongruent consequences (DeSteno, Petty, Rucker, Wegener, & Braverman, 2004; Wegener, Petty, and Klein, 1994).

The purpose of the current investigation is to examine a new role for emotional states under personalization point that has not been considered previously in persuasion research. In particular, we examine whether the personalization status of a message together with induced emotions can affect attitudes. The notion that variables can affect attitudes by affecting thought confidence is called the self-validation hypothesis.

2.4.1 The self validation hypothesis

The self-validation hypothesis suggests that it is important to consider thought confidence. According to the self-validation idea, any variable that increases confidence in thoughts is likely to increase reliance on those thoughts in determining attitudes (R. E. Petty, P. Briñol, & Z. L. Tormala 2007). Increased confidence in positive thoughts should result in more favorable attitudes, whereas increased confidence in negative thoughts should result in less favorable attitudes. On the other hand, any variable that instills doubt in thoughts is likely to decrease reliance on those thoughts in determining attitudes. Thus, increasing doubt in positive thoughts results in less favorable attitudes, whereas increasing doubt in negative thoughts results in more favorable attitudes.

Several studies have provided support for the role of thought confidence in persuasion, thereby providing evidence for the self validation hypothesis (e.g., Briñol & Petty, 2003; Briñol, Petty, & Tormala, 2004; Tormala, Briñol, & Petty, 2006). In one experiment, for instance, participants were exposed to a message containing strong or weak arguments before completing a typical thought



listing task (Cacioppo & Petty, 1981). Then, in a purportedly separate task Petty et al. (2002) asked participants to think about situations in which they had felt confidence or doubt in their thinking.

The self-validation hypothesis provides a new mechanism by which classic persuasion variables can have an impact on attitudes. That is, in addition to serving as cues or arguments, or affecting the number and valence of thoughts that come to mind (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), variables can also influence the confidence people have in their thoughts and thus whether they rely on their thoughts in forming attitudes. In line with this logic, the present research argues and provides evidence for the idea that emotions can influence attitude change. As explained before, happiness increases confidence relative to sadness, and thus people in a happy state should be more reliant on their thoughts than people in a sad state. As a consequence, the self-validation notion predicts that happy versus sad states can increase or decrease persuasion depending on the direction of the thoughts generated in response to the message.

2.4.2 Emotion and Confidence

The research hypothesis is based on the assumption that emotions can be associated with confidence. Theories of emotions hold that emotions can be differentiated beyond their positive and negative valence and that cognitive concomitant of emotion can have important consequences for subsequent judgments (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Emotions such as happiness, anger and disgust are associated with a sense of certainty, whereas the emotions of sadness, hope and surprise are associated with a sense of uncertainty (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Roseman, 1984; Scherer, 1984; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Tiedens & Linton, 2001). The current work relies on the notion that happiness is associated with increased confidence, whereas sadness is associated with decreased confidence (e.g., Gleicher & Weary, 1991).

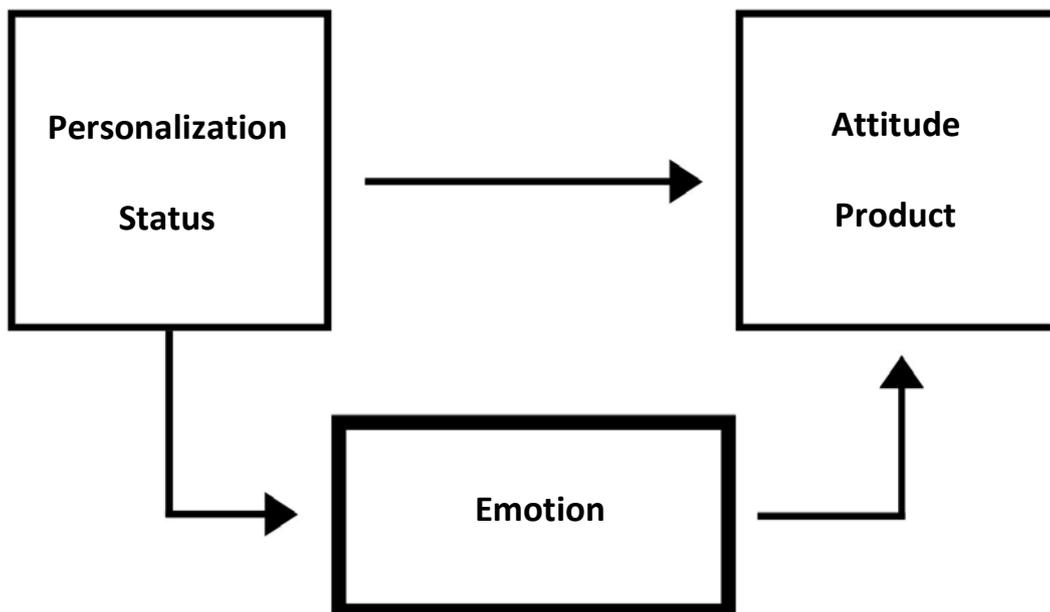
3. Conceptual framework

The academic literature is so rich about personalization and emotions, so in the current research the main goal was to test the effects of personalization on attitudes and at the same time to test how emotions interact with personalization in order to form customer's attitude towards a product.

3.1 Proposed Research Model

A conceptual framework is an analytical tool that is used to get a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon. It can be used in different fields of work and is most commonly used to visually explain the key concepts or variables and the relationships between them that need to be studied. .

In the present the following conceptual framework was tested:



The proposed model suggests that the personalization status of an advertised message affects customer's attitude and that the attitude can also be affected by emotions induced after the exposition to a personalized message.

3.2 Research hypothesis

The Personalization theory suggests that the persuasion of a message is increased when the message is created based on customer's personality. There are many ways to form a personalized message as, already, discussed in the Literature review. Hence, it was expected such messages generate a more positive attitude towards an advertised product.

H1: When people are exposed to a personalization message the more positive attitude they have towards the advertised product.

According to the self-validation hypothesis (Petty, Brinol, & Tormala, 2002) thought confidence is an important determinant of which thoughts predict attitudes. It suggests that any variable that increases confidence in thoughts is likely to increase reliance on those thoughts in determining attitudes. Increased confidence in positive thoughts should result in more favorable attitudes, whereas increased confidence in negative thoughts should result in less favorable attitudes.

H2: When people are exposed to a personalization message and are induced to positive thoughts they generate more positive attitude than those who are induced to negative thoughts.

4. Methodology

In this research the link between emotion and personalization in one's attitude towards an advertised product was studied. All participants were exposed to a food advertisement in the environment of Facebook platform composed of matching or mismatching message. Participants' emotion was then manipulated by asking them to remember and write down personal experiences in which they felt happy or sad. One hypothesis of this study is that personalized messages can generate more positive attitude than non personalized messages which generate less positive and in some cases even negative attitude. In addition, the main hypothesis of this study was that people in a happy state would be more influenced by the personalization than would those assigned to a sad condition. This was because happy emotions tend to validate one's thoughts while sad emotions have less positive and maybe negative outcomes in one's attitude. Finally, in order to check the emotional state of consumers, the self validation paradigm was used as a manipulation check on emotions during the description of an emotional event, on thoughts pleasure and on thoughts satisfaction.

4.1 Participants and Design

Participants were 48 undergraduate students at the Athens University of Economics and Business (Greece). These students were randomly assigned to the cells of a 2 (Personalization Status) Matching vs. Mismatching) X 2 (Emotion: Happiness vs. Sadness) between-subjects factorial design.

There are six advertisement types on Facebook: Image, Video, Slideshow, Carousel, Instant Experience and Collection. The one was used in this research is the page post link or newsfeed ad, which includes a bigger image with text and a link description.

4.2 Procedure

First, participants had to select their snack choice and then they were exposed randomly on a personalized or not personalized advertising message (matching VS mismatching condition) based on

their first selection of the snack. Next, participants were asked to write their thoughts about the advertised product and the advertisement they were exposed. Then they were asked to remember life events associated with the emotion of happiness or sadness. Then, they were asked to provide attitude ratings toward the advertised product. Finally, participants were asked to think back to the thoughts they listed about the advertisement and, as a control and memory measure, respond to several questions regarding the satisfaction and pleasure they had in those thoughts. Before leaving, they were then debriefed, thanked, and dismissed.

4.3 Independent Variables

Level of personalization. Participants were provided with a short task scenario describing an imaginary situation requiring them to select a type of snack (Shuk Ying Ho, David Bodoff, The effects of web personalization on user attitude and behavior: An integration of the elaboration likelihood model and consumer search theory, MIS Quarterly Vol. 38 No. 2, pp. 497-520/June 2014).

Participants were exposed to matching or mismatching advertising messages. The messages were designed to present a food product (snack) that was or wasn't participants' first choice. The goal was to vary the overall valence of the thoughts that were elicited as in the prior studies.

Emotion. Participants were asked to provide a vivid and detailed written report of either a happy or a sad event. Reporting happy events was intended to induce a relatively happy state, whereas focusing on experienced sad events was intended to induce a relatively sad one. Asking people to remember happy and sad episodes has been found to be a highly effective procedure to induce differential emotions in past research (e.g., see Schwarz & Clore, 1983).

4.4 Dependent variables

Attitude - product. Participants' attitudes toward the advertised product were assessed using a series of five 7-point (1–7) semantic differential scales (i.e., bad–good, in favour–against, like–dislike, harmful–beneficial on which they rated the likeliness of the product. Ratings on these items were highly intercorrelated (.94), so they were averaged to form one overall attitude index. Additionally

they were asked to fill the level of agreement or disagreement on a 7-point (1-7) semantic differential scale to the phrase: “Will you suggest this product to a friend of yours who is looking for the same category of product?”.

Manipulation check for Thoughts satisfaction. After the emotion induction task and after measuring attitudes toward the proposal, participants were asked to think back to the thoughts they listed about the product and to rate their overall satisfaction in those thoughts. Satisfaction was rated on a 7-point semantic differential scale anchored at 1 (not at all satisfied) and 7 (extremely satisfied).

Manipulation check for Thoughts pleasure. After the emotion induction task and after measuring attitudes toward the proposal, participants were asked to think back to the thoughts they listed about the product and to rate their overall pleasure in those thoughts. Pleasure was rated on a 7-point semantic differential scale anchored at 1 (not at all pleased) and 7 (extremely pleased).

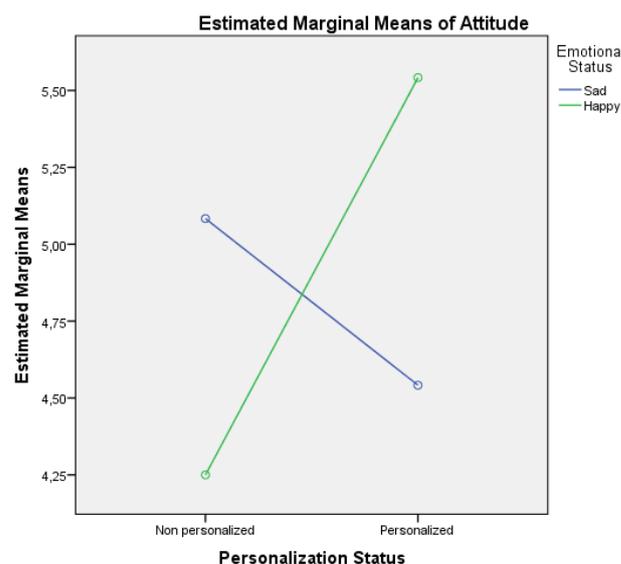
Manipulation check for Emotion. After measuring thoughts satisfaction and pleasure, participants completed a manipulation check for the emotion induction. They were asked about the feelings they had while they described the life events. Emotions, happiness and sadness, were rated on 7-point semantic differential scale anchored at 1(not at all happy/sad) and 7 (extremely happy/sad). Ratings on these items were highly intercorrelated ($\alpha=0,95$), so after reverse scoring negative items, they were averaged to form one overall emotion index.

5. Results

All dependent measures were submitted to 2 (emotion: happy, sad) X 2 (personalized message, non personalized message) ANOVAs.

Attitude. Results of the ANOVA on attitudes revealed a significant main effect of personalization ($p=0,000$), such that participants who received matching messages held more favorable attitudes toward the product ($M=5,04$, $SD=0,73$) than did those who received mismatching message ($M=3,96$, $SD=1,10$), $F(1,89)$. Crucial to our study and in accord with the self validation research paradigm, a significant Personalization status X Emotion interaction emerged, $F(1, 44) = 6,76$ ($p=0,013$) (See appendix table 1).

The 2X2 ANOVA analyses revealed a decomposition of the interaction, that the effect of personalization status on attitudes was greater for happy than for sad participants. That is, for happy participants, those who received the matching message reported significantly more favorable attitudes toward the product ($M=5,54$, $SD=0,78$) than did those who received the mismatching message ($M=4,25$, $SD=1,42$). Attitudes of sad participants, however, did not differ for the matching ($M=4,54$, $SD=0,86$) and the mismatching ($M=5,08$, $SD=1,6$) messages (See, also, appendix table 2).



Manipulation check for Thoughts satisfaction. As expected, a 2 X 2 ANOVA on this index revealed only a significant main effect of the personalization manipulation, $F(1, 44) = 3,67, p = 0,062$ (see appendix table 3), such that participants who received the personalized message reported significantly more satisfaction in their own thoughts ($M=5,33$ and $5,25, SD=1,23$ and $0,97$) than did participants who received the non personalized message ($M=4,58$ and $4,50, SD=1,44$ and $1,68$) (See appendix table 4).

Manipulation check for Thoughts pleasure. As expected, a 2 X 2 ANOVA on this index revealed only a significant main effect of the personalization manipulation, $F(1, 44) = 3,108, p=0,085$ (see appendix table 5), such that participants who received personalized message reported significantly more pleasure in their own thoughts ($M=5,50$ and $4,92, SD=1,38$ and $0,99$) than did participants who received non personalized message ($M=4,42$ and $4,62, SD=1,31$ and $1,49$) (see appendix table 6).

Emotion manipulation check. The 2X2 ANOVA on the emotion of happiness index revealed only a significant main effect of the emotion manipulation, $F(1, 44) = 68,15, p=0,000$ (see appendix table 7), such that happy participants reported feeling better ($M=5,17$ and $6,42, SD=1,85$ and $1,08$) than did sad participants ($M=2$ and $2,83, SD=1,21$ and $1,40$) (see appendix table 8).

At the same time, the 2X2 ANOVA on the emotion of sadness index revealed only a significant main effect of the emotion manipulation $F(1, 44) = 39,41, p=0,000$ (see appendix table 9) such that sad participants reported feeling worse ($M=4,83$ and $5, SD=2,13$ and $1,13$) than happy participant ($M=2,58$ and $1,33, SD=1,88$ and $0,88$), as expected (see appendix table 10).

6. Discussion, conclusion and implications

This chapter presents the conclusions, discussion and implications of the findings of this thesis. In the first section, of the chapter, conclusions and discussion of the hypotheses testing are presented. The implications of the findings, followed by the limitations of the study, are discussed next. Finally, the chapter concludes with suggestions for future research.

6.1 Conclusions

Consistent to the personalization literature this study showed that personalized messages affected the direction of participant's cognitive response. That means that personalized messages generate positive attitude towards a product than non personalized messages which tend to generate less positive attitude. In addition, according to the self-validation hypothesis the experiment proved that emotion can influence attitude by affecting thought confidence. Specifically, thought confidence induced via happiness led participants to rely on their thoughts more than when they were in a sad state. The end result was that personalization status had larger effect on attitude when people were placed in a happy than in a sad emotion following the message.

6.2 Discussion

The present research has demonstrated that personalization in advertising can enhance the level of persuasion in a message. In addition, the outcomes in attitudes of the combination of thoughts confidence with personalization were tested. Using specific measures and manipulations, it was proven that thoughts in response to personalized persuasive messages had a greater impact on evaluative responses (attitudes) when participants were happy rather than sad. To being happy after message processing increased the effect of personalization in persuasion compared with being sad or neutral. The thought confidence induced by emotion had a significant impact on attitudes. Under these circumstances, consistent with the self-validation hypothesis, we found that personalization had a larger impact on attitudes for happy than for sad participants. That is, the current research

reinforces the view that emotion can influence persuasion by several means in different situations (Briñol, Petty, & Rucker, 2006).

6.3 Implications

From an academic implications perspective the findings of the current research provide an important extension to prior work on self-validation processes. The present study extends the line of previous research by demonstrating that emotion can also control to a validation analysis, extending their utility in the mechanism of persuasion.

From a managerial implications perspective the findings of this study provide marketing managers with a greater understanding of what affects customers' attitude towards a product. The outcomes of this research can help them to develop and implement successful marketing strategies using the attributes of personalization together with emotions. Creating personalized advertising strategies is one of the pillar of the customer centric strategy. Knowing how the persuasive effects of the personalized messages can be increased is a key tool for the management.

6.4 Limitations

Although every effort was made to ensure the validity of the study, several limitations exist that should be taken into consideration when interpreting the findings of the study. The limitations of this thesis are discussed below.

First of all, the time of this thesis was limited and thus the number of the participants collected is not big enough (48) in order to deliver generalized results and conclusions. Secondly, the data used in this thesis came from a convenience sample, which apparently limits the generalizability of the findings. Specifically, there is a high portion of younger population in the sample, and the ratio between men and women is not balanced. Also, the sample comes only from people who are students of the University of Economics and Business of Athens. Consequently, cause and effect relationships cannot be established.



6.5 Future research

Several limitations are mentioned in the previous section. Thus, there is a lot of space for future research. Future research could be conducted in order to achieve what the present study failed or was not able to achieve due to several reasons. Firstly, future research could invest more effort and time to collect a bigger number of participants. Ideally, a random sampling should be used in order for the results to be representative for the whole population. Secondly, future studies regarding this topic should gather data using induction of different emotions. Then, the results could be compared with the results obtained using different emotions in order to pinpoint differences or similarities.

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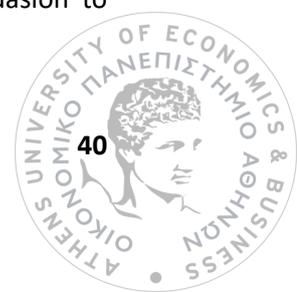
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8. Appendix

8.1 The questionnaire

Start of Block: Introduction

Διαφημίσεις και συναισθήματα στο περιβάλλον των κοινωνικών δικτύων

Αγαπητέ/ή συμμετέχοντα/ουσα,

Η έρευνα στην οποία συμμετέχετε πραγματοποιείται από το Τμήμα Μάρκετινγκ και Επικοινωνίας του Οικονομικού πανεπιστημίου Αθηνών. Οι απαντήσεις σας είναι εντελώς ανώνυμες και δεν χρειάζεται να συμπληρώσετε πουθενά το όνομά σας. Για αυτό το λόγο, παρακαλώ να απαντήσετε με όσο το δυνατόν μεγαλύτερη ειλικρίνεια και ακρίβεια, σε όλες τις ερωτήσεις. Δεν υπάρχουν σωστές και λάθος απαντήσεις - αυτό που μας ενδιαφέρει είναι οι πραγματικές σας σκέψεις, απόψεις και συναισθήματα.

Παρακαλώ να διαβάζετε προσεκτικά και να ακολουθείτε πιστά τις οδηγίες κάθε ενότητας καθ' όλη τη διάρκεια της έρευνας. Παρόλα αυτά, σε περίπτωση που έχετε οποιαδήποτε αμφιβολία, μη διστάσετε να ρωτήσετε τον ερευνητή.

Ευχαριστώ πολύ για τη συνεργασία σας,

Αντωνία Παππά

antoniapappa24@gmail.com



End of Block: Introduction

Start of Block: Mismatching



Έχετε λογαριασμό στο Facebook?

Ναι (1)

Όχι (2)

Skip To: End of Survey If Έχετε λογαριασμό στο Facebook? = Όχι

Page Break

Επιλέξτε ποιο από τα δύο προϊόντα προτιμάτε όταν θέλετε να καταναλώσετε ένα σνακ:

Σάντουιτς (1)

Ντόνατ (2)

Skip To: Q4 If Επιλέξτε ποιο από τα δύο προϊόντα προτιμάτε όταν θέλετε να καταναλώσετε ένα σνακ:... = Σάντουιτς

Skip To: Q5 If Επιλέξτε ποιο από τα δύο προϊόντα προτιμάτε όταν θέλετε να καταναλώσετε ένα σνακ:... = Ντόνατ

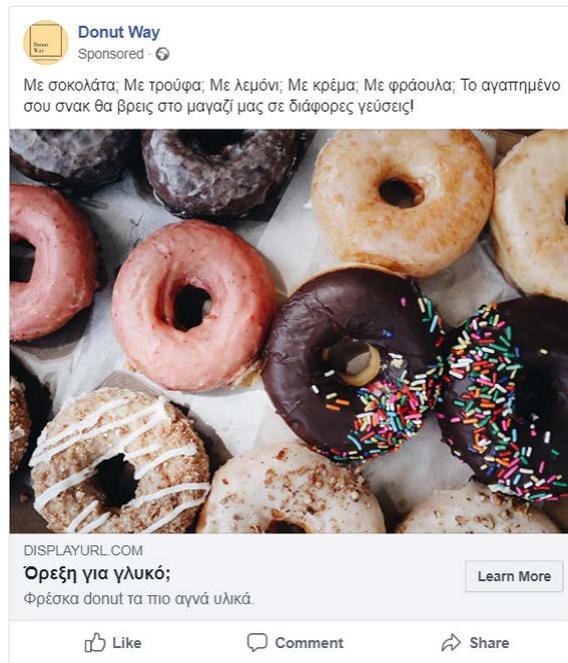
Page Break

Display This Question:

If Επιλέξετε ποιο από τα δύο προϊόντα προτιμάτε όταν θέλετε να καταναλώσετε ένα σνακ:... = Σάντουιτς

Φανταστείτε ότι σκρολάρετε στη σελίδα FacebookNewsFeed και βλέπετε την ακόλουθη διαφήμιση:

(Πατήστε επόμενο για να συνεχίσετε)



DisplayThisQuestion:

If Επιλέξετε ποιο από τα δύο προϊόντα προτιμάτε όταν θέλετε να καταναλώσετε ένα σνακ:... = Ντόνατ

Φανταστείτε ότι σκρολάρετε στη σελίδα FacebookNewsFeed και βλέπετε την ακόλουθη διαφήμιση:

(Πατήστε επόμενο για να συνεχίσετε)



End of Block: Mismatching

Start of Block: Matching



Έχετε λογαριασμό στο Facebook?

Ναι (1)

Όχι (2)

Skip To: End of Survey If Έχετε λογαριασμό στο Facebook? = Όχι

Page Break

Επιλέξτε ποιο από τα δύο προϊόντα προτιμάτε όταν θέλετε να καταναλώσετε ένα σνακ:

Σάντουιτς (1)

Ντόνατς (2)

Skriptο: Q8 If Επιλέξτε ποιο από τα δύο προϊόντα προτιμάτε όταν θέλετε να καταναλώσετε ένα σνακ:... = Ντόνατς

Skriptο: Q9 If Επιλέξτε ποιο από τα δύο προϊόντα προτιμάτε όταν θέλετε να καταναλώσετε ένα σνακ:... = Σάντουιτς

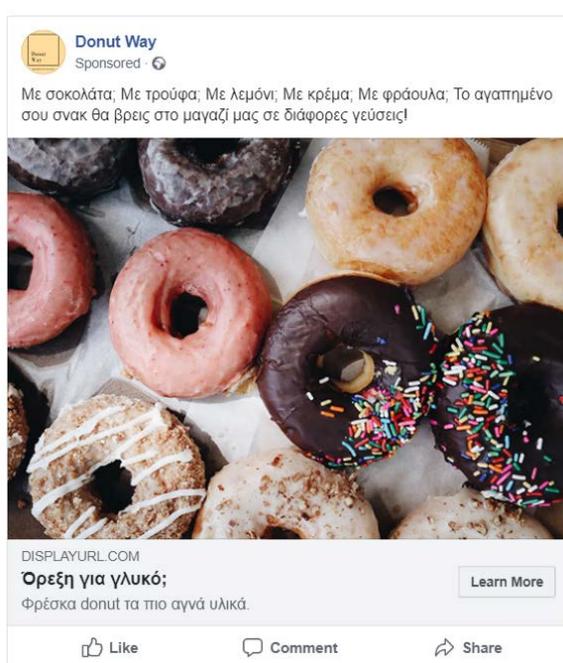
Page Break

Display This Question:

If Επιλέξτε ποιο από τα δύο προϊόντα προτιμάτε όταν θέλετε να καταναλώσετε ένα σνακ:... = Ντόνατς

Φανταστείτε ότι σκρολάρετε στη σελίδα FacebookNewsFeed και βλέπετε την ακόλουθη διαφήμιση:

(Πατήστε επόμενο για να συνεχίσετε)



Donut Way
Sponsored

Με σοκολάτα; Με τρούφα; Με λεμόνι; Με κρέμα; Με φράουλα; Το αγαπημένο σου σνακ θα βρεις στο μαγαζί μας σε διάφορες γεύσεις!

DISPLAYURL.COM
Όρεξη για γλυκό;
Φρέσκα donut τα πιο αγνά υλικά.

Like Comment Share

Page Break

Display This Question:

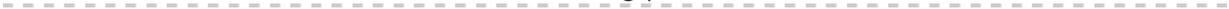
If Επιλέξετε ποιο από τα δύο προϊόντα προτιμάτε όταν θέλετε να καταναλώσετε ένα σνακ:... = Σάντουιτς

Φανταστείτε ότι σκρολάρετε στη σελίδα FacebookNewsFeed και βλέπετε την ακόλουθη διαφήμιση:

(Πατήστε επόμενο για να συνεχίσετε)



Page Break















EndofBlock: Thoughts

StartofBlock: Happiness

Σε αυτή την ενότητα, θα ήθελα να θυμηθείτε και να γράψετε ΕΝΑ περιστατικό που ζήσατε τα τελευταία χρόνια και που σας έκανε να νιώσετε ΧΑΡΟΥΜΕΝΟ/Η. Παρακαλώ περιγράψτε ακριβώς πώς νιώσατε, προσπαθώντας να είστε όσο το δυνατόν πιο ακριβείς, προσπαθώντας να θυμηθείτε ακριβώς πώς νιώσατε, τι συναισθήματα είχατε, τι κάνατε κτλ. Μην ανησυχείτε για τη γραμματική ή



την ορθογραφία, μας ενδιαφέρει μόνο να γράψετε το επεισόδιο προσπαθώντας να θυμηθείτε όσο το δυνατό περισσότερες λεπτομέρειες.

Page Break

End of Block: Happiness

Start of Block: Sadness

Σε αυτή την ενότητα, θα ήθελα να θυμηθείτε και να γράψετε ΕΝΑ περιστατικό που ζήσατε τα τελευταία χρόνια και που σας έκανε να νιώσετε ΛΥΠΗΜΕΝΟ/Η. Παρακαλούμε περιγράψτε ακριβώς πώς νιώσατε, προσπαθώντας να είστε όσο το δυνατόν πιο ακριβείς, προσπαθώντας να θυμηθείτε ακριβώς πώς νιώσατε, τι συναισθήματα είχατε, τι κάνατε κτλ. Μην ανησυχείτε για τη γραμματική ή την ορθογραφία, μας ενδιαφέρει μόνο να γράψετε το επεισόδιο προσπαθώντας να θυμηθείτε όσο το δυνατό περισσότερες λεπτομέρειες.



Page Break

End of Block: Sadness

Start of Block: Questions about Attitude



Ποια είναι η γνώμη σας για το διαφημιζόμενο προϊόν; Το προϊόν...

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Είναι κακό	<input type="radio"/>	Είναι καλό						
Δεν θα ήθελα να το δοκιμάσω	<input type="radio"/>	Θα ήθελα να το δοκιμάσω						
Είναι δυσάρεστο	<input type="radio"/>	Είναι ευχάριστο						
Δεν μου αρέσει	<input type="radio"/>	Μου αρέσει						
Είναι βλαβερό	<input type="radio"/>	Είναι ωφέλιμο						
Είναι απογοητευτικό	<input type="radio"/>	Είναι ικανοποιητικό						
Είναι ανεπιθύμητο	<input type="radio"/>	Είναι επιθυμητό						
Είναι κακής ποιότητας	<input type="radio"/>	Είναι καλής ποιότητας						
Είναι άγνωστο	<input type="radio"/>	Είναι οικείο						
Είναι ανθυγιεινό	<input type="radio"/>	Είναι υγιεινό						
Είναι μη	<input type="radio"/>	Είναι						

αποδεκτό

αποδεκτό

Ποιά είναι η γνώμη σας για το διαφημιζόμενο προϊόν;

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Πολύ

αρνητική

Πολύθετική

Πόσο νόστιμο νομίζετε ότι είναι το διαφημιζόμενο προϊόν;

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Καθόλου νόστιμο

Πολύ νόστιμο

Πόσο χορταστικό νομίζετε ότι είναι το διαφημιζόμενο προϊόν;

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Καθόλου χορταστικό

Πολύ χορταστικό

Θα πρότεινα σε έναν φίλο μου να αγοράσει το διαφημιζόμενο προϊόν.

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Διαφωνώ Συμφωνώ

Παρακαλώ πείτε μου πόσο διαφωνείτε ή συμφωνείτε με τις παρακάτω φράσεις:

Διαφω			Ούτεδιαφω			Συμφω
νώ	Διαφω	Μάλλονδιαφ	νώ,	Μάλλονσυμφ	Συμφω	νώ
απόλυτ	νώ (2)	ωνώ (3)	ούτεσυμφ	ωνώ (5)	νώ (6)	απόλυτ
α (1)			ωνώ (4)			α (7)

Εάν έψαχνα
αυτού του
είδους το
προϊόν, η
πιθανότητα
να αγοράσω
το
διαφημιζόμε
νο προϊόν
θα ήταν
μεγάλη. (1)

Αν ήταν να

αγοράσω
αυτού του
είδος το
προϊόν, η
πιθανότητα
να
σκεφτόμουν
το
διαφημιζόμε
νο προϊόν
θα ήταν
μεγάλη. (2)

Αν έπρεπε
να αγοράσω
κάποιο
προϊόν της
κατηγορίας
του

διαφημιζόμε
νου
προϊόντος, η
θέλησή να
αγοράσω το
διαφημιζόμε



νο προϊόν

θα ήταν

μεγάλη. (3)

Θα αγοράζα

το

διαφημιζόμε

νο προϊόν

(4)

Αν ένας

φίλος σας

έψαχνε

προϊόντα

σαν το

διαφημιζόμε

νο, θα τον

συμβούλευα

τε να το

αγοράσει;

(5)

End of Block: Questions about Attitudes

StartofBlock: Thoughtsevaluation



Ευχαριστούμε για τις απαντήσεις σας. Θα θέλαμε τώρα να επιστρέψετε πίσω στις σκέψεις για το διαφημιζόμενο προϊόν, που καταγράψατε στην αρχή του ερωτηματολογίου. Παρακαλείσθε να αξιολογήσετε κάθε μία σκέψη σας ξεχωριστά ως προς το πόσο ευχάριστη ήταν, πόσο ικανοποιημένος είστε από αυτή καθώς και ως προς το κατά πόσο είστε σίγουρος για την σκέψη που αναφέρατε.

{Q11/ChoiceTextEntryValue}

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστο/η

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (1)

Πόσο

ικανοποιητικό/ή

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (2)



§{Q12/ChoiceTextEntryValue}

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστο/η

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (1)

Πόσο

ικανοποιητικό/ή

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (2)

§{Q13/ChoiceTextEntryValue}

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστο/η

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (1)

Πόσο

ικανοποιητικό/ή



ήταν η σκέψη ή
το συναίσθημα
σας; (2)

Display This Question:

If If Text Response Is Not Empty

§{Q14/ChoiceTextEntryValue}

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστο/η

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα
σας; (1)

Πόσο

ικανοποιητικό/ή

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα
σας; (2)

Display This Question:

If If Text Response Is Not Empty



Q15/ChoiceTextEntryValue

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστο/η

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (1)

Πόσο

ικανοποιητικό/ή

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (2)



Display This Question:

If If Text Response Is Not Empty

ⓂQ16/ChoiceTextEntryValue

1 (1)

2 (2)

3 (3)

4 (4)

5 (5)

6 (6)

7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστο/η

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (1)

Πόσο

ικανοποιητικό/ή

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (2)

Display This Question:

If If Text Response Is Not Empty

⚡Q17/ChoiceTextEntryValue

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστο/η

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (1)

Πόσο

ικανοποιητικό/ή

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (2)

Display This Question:

If If Text Response Is Not Empty

⚡Q18/ChoiceTextEntryValue

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστο/η

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (1)



Πόσο

ικανοποιητικό/ή

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (2)

Display This Question:

If If Text Response Is Not Empty

{Q19/ChoiceTextEntryValue}

1 (1)

2 (2)

3 (3)

4 (4)

5 (5)

6 (6)

7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστο/η

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (1)

Πόσο

ικανοποιητικό/ή

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (2)



Display This Question:

If If Text Response Is Not Empty

ⓧ{Q20/ChoiceTextEntryValue}

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστο/η

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (1)

Πόσο

ικανοποιητικό/ή

ήταν η σκέψη ή

το συναίσθημα

σας; (2)

Τέλος παρακαλείσθε να αναφέρετε **συνολικά για το σύνολο των σκέψεων σας**

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Πόσο

ευχάριστα/ες

ήταν οι σκέψεις ή

τα συναισθήματα

σας; (1)



Πόσο

ικανοποιητικά/ές

ήταν οι σκέψεις ή

τα συναισθήματα

σας; (2)

End of Block: Thoughts evaluation

StartofBlock: Emotion evaluation during the description of life events

Στη συνέχεια, θα θέλαμε να απαντήσετε σε μερικές ερωτήσεις σχετικά με την ανάμνηση του προσωπικού γεγονότος που περιγράψατε. Παρακαλούμε, επιλέξτε αυτό χαρακτηρίζει καλύτερα το πώς νιώσατε καθώς περιγράφατε τα συγκεκριμένο περιστατικό.

Πώς νιώσατε καθώς περιγράφατε το γεγονός;

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Καθόλου

Πολύ

χαρούμενος/η

χαρούμενος/η

Καθόλου λυπημένος/η

Πολύ λυπημένος/η

EndofBlock: Emotion evaluation during the description of life events

StartofBlock: Emotion evaluation right now

Σε αυτό το σημείο θα ήθελα να απαντήσετε υποδεικνύοντας πώς αισθάνεστε αυτή τη στιγμή.

1 (1) 2 (2) 3 (3) 4 (4) 5 (5) 6 (6) 7 (7)

Καθόλου

Απόλυτα

χαρούμενος/η

χαρούμενος/η

Καθόλου λυπημένος/η

Απόλυτα

λυπημένος/η

EndofBlock: Emotion evaluation right now

StartofBlock: Demographics

Start of Block: Demographics

Φύλο

Άνδρας (1)

Γυναίκα (2)

Ηλικία

18> (1)

19-29 (2)

30-40 (3)

41-51 (4)

52 (5)

8.2 Tables

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: MeanAttThDirEmot

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	11,854 ^a	3	3,951	2,649	,061	,153	7,948	,608
Intercept	1131,021	1	1131,021	758,323	,000	,945	758,323	1,000
ThDir	1,687	1	1,687	1,131	,293	,025	1,131	,180
Emotion	,083	1	,083	,056	,814	,001	,056	,056
ThDir * Emotion	10,083	1	10,083	6,761	,013	,133	6,761	,720
Error	65,625	44	1,491					
Total	1208,500	48						
Corrected Total	77,479	47						

a. R Squared = ,153 (Adjusted R Squared = ,095)

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: MeanAttThDirEmot

Matching/Mismatching	Happiness-Sadness	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mismatching	Sad	5,0833	1,60728	12
	Happy	4,2500	1,42223	12
	Total	4,6667	1,54404	24
Matching	Sad	4,5417	,86493	12
	Happy	5,5417	,78214	12
	Total	5,0417	,95458	24
Total	Sad	4,8125	1,29222	24
	Happy	4,8958	1,30200	24
	Total	4,8542	1,28394	48

Table 2

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Τέλος παρακαλείσθε να αναφέρετε συνολικά για το σύνολο των σκέψεων σας - Πόσο ικανοποιητικά/ές ήταν οι σκέψεις ή τα συναισθήματα σας;

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Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	6,833 ^a	3	2,278	1,240	,307	,078	3,720	,309
Intercept	1160,333	1	1160,333	631,604	,000	,935	631,604	1,000
ThDir	6,750	1	6,750	3,674	,062	,077	3,674	,466
Emotion	,083	1	,083	,045	,832	,001	,045	,055
ThDir *	,000	1	,000	,000	1,000	,000	,000	,050
Emotion								
Error	80,833	44	1,837					
Total	1248,000	48						
Corrected Total	87,667	47						

a. R Squared = ,078 (Adjusted R Squared = ,015)

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Τέλος παρακαλείσθε να αναφέρετε συνολικά για το σύνολο των σκέψεων σας

- Πόσο ικανοποιητικά/ές ήταν οι σκέψεις ή τα συναισθήματα σας;

Matching/Mismatching	Happiness-Sadness	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mismatching	Sad	4,50	1,679	12
	Happy	4,58	1,443	12
	Total	4,54	1,532	24
Matching	Sad	5,25	,965	12
	Happy	5,33	1,231	12
	Total	5,29	1,083	24
Total	Sad	4,88	1,393	24
	Happy	4,96	1,367	24
	Total	4,92	1,366	48

Table 4

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Τέλος παρακαλείσθε να αναφέρετε συνολικά για το σύνολο των σκέψεων σας - Πόσο ευχάριστα/ες

ήταν οι σκέψεις ή τα συναισθήματα σας;

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	7,750 ^a	3	2,583	1,506	,226	,093	4,517	,370
Intercept	1140,750	1	1140,750	664,808	,000	,938	664,808	1,000
ThDir	5,333	1	5,333	3,108	,085	,066	3,108	,407

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Emotion	,333	1	,333	,194	,662	,004	,194	,072
ThDir *	2,083	1	2,083	1,214	,277	,027	1,214	,190
Error	75,500	44	1,716					
Total	1224,000	48						
Corrected	83,250	47						
Total								

a. R Squared = ,093 (Adjusted R Squared = ,031)

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Τέλος παρακαλείσθε να αναφέρετε συνολικά για το σύνολο των σκέψεων σας
- Πόσο ευχάριστα/ες ήταν οι σκέψεις ή τα συναισθήματα σας;

Matching/Mismatching	Happiness-Sadness	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mismatching	Sad	4,67	1,497	12
	Happy	4,42	1,311	12
	Total	4,54	1,382	24
Matching	Sad	4,92	,996	12
	Happy	5,50	1,382	12
	Total	5,21	1,215	24
Total	Sad	4,79	1,250	24
	Happy	4,96	1,429	24
	Total	4,88	1,331	48

Table 6

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Πώς νιώσατε καθώς περιγράφατε το γεγονός; - Καθόλου χαρούμενος/η: Πολύ χαρούμενος/η

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	150,229 ^a	3	50,076	24,967	,000	,630	74,902	1,000
Intercept	808,521	1	808,521	403,115	,000	,902	403,115	1,000
ThDir	13,021	1	13,021	6,492	,014	,129	6,492	,703
Emotion	136,688	1	136,688	68,150	,000	,608	68,150	1,000
ThDir *	,521	1	,521	,260	,613	,006	,260	,079
Error	88,250	44	2,006					
Total	1047,000	48						
Corrected Total	238,479	47						

a. R Squared = ,630 (Adjusted R Squared = ,605)

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Πώς νιώσατε καθώς περιγράφατε το γεγονός; - Καθόλου χαρούμενος/η:Πολύ χαρούμενος/η

Matching/Mismatching	Happiness-Sadness	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mismatching	Sad	2,00	1,206	12
	Happy	5,17	1,850	12
	Total	3,58	2,225	24
Matching	Sad	2,83	1,403	12
	Happy	6,42	1,084	12
	Total	4,63	2,203	24
Total	Sad	2,42	1,349	24
	Happy	5,79	1,615	24
	Total	4,10	2,253	48

Table 8

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Πώς νιώσατε καθώς περιγράφατε το γεγονός; - Καθόλου λυπημένος/η:Πολύ λυπημένος/η

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	114,562 ^a	3	38,187	14,330	,000	,494	42,991	1,000
Intercept	567,188	1	567,188	212,846	,000	,829	212,846	1,000
ThDir	3,521	1	3,521	1,321	,257	,029	1,321	,203
Emotion	105,021	1	105,021	39,411	,000	,472	39,411	1,000
ThDir * Emotion	6,021	1	6,021	2,259	,140	,049	2,259	,313
Error	117,250	44	2,665					
Total	799,000	48						
Corrected Total	231,812	47						

a. R Squared = ,494 (Adjusted R Squared = ,460)

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Πώς νιώσατε καθώς περιγράφατε το γεγονός; - Καθόλου λυπημένος/η:Πολύ λυπημένος/η

Matching/Mismatching	Happiness-Sadness	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mismatching	Sad	4,83	2,125	12
	Happy	2,58	1,881	12
	Total	3,71	2,274	24
Matching	Sad	5,00	1,348	12
	Happy	1,33	,888	12
	Total	3,17	2,180	24
Total	Sad	4,92	1,742	24
	Happy	1,96	1,574	24
	Total	3,44	2,221	48

Table 10