**School of Marketing**

# Measuring the Effectiveness of Guilt Appeals in the Promotion of Certified Products

**Jun-Huan Teah**

**This thesis is presented for the Degree of**
**Master of Philosophy (Marketing)**
**of**
**Curtin University**

**September 2017**

**Declaration**

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

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

*(Include where applicable)*
**Human Ethics** (For projects involving human participants/tissue, etc) The research presented and reported in this thesis was conducted in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) – updated March 2014. The proposed research study received human research ethics approval from the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (EC00262), Approval Number # HRE2017-0134

Signature: .......

Date: 12 Sep. 17

# Acknowledgements

Like every clichéd Oscar-winning speech, I'll start off by thanking my parents. Not because most thank you speeches start this way, but really, I wouldn't have gotten this far without them. The financial and emotional support provided unconditionally over the past 30-odd years is a debt that will take me many lifetimes to repay. Although we don't speak very often, I am thankful for the occasional grunt of approval. I am also compelled to thank my younger sister.

I'll like to also thank my in-laws for entrusting their daughter's fate to me. You were hesitant at first, and rightly so. Thank you for being so understanding and supportive during this time. Sorry I wasn't there during your last moments. Rest in peace, father in-law.

Tubsy and the missus. I know both of you were overjoyed to know I won't be around for a year but I think you secretly miss me. My absence was perhaps the hardest on both of you. Apart from the incessant whining, both of you did very well handling this situation. Thank you for sticking around.

A shout out to my main ballahs Izzy and Ike straight from the underground! You guys the real OG. Thank you for helping out this old clown settle in. My co-supervisor, Michael. Thank you for your patience. I can hear you rip your hair out every Thursday at 5 as I leave your room after our meetings.

Shimul, my fellow dad friend. Your dad jokes can only be rivalled by Sean, who has yet to be a dad. Guess that makes him a faux pa (badumtss). Doc Bill, Elaine (we can hear you), Luke (the son I never had), Wesley, Aaron, and B-money thank all of you for being so warm and helpful. Emma and Siobhan, my sisters from another mother. Thank you for laughing at my lame jokes. I can tell the laughter was forced, but thank you for trying anyway. I'll also like to thank MLG Josh, Vanessa, Graham (the true punmaster).

Cinderella had one fairy godmother. I had two, Min and Ian. Arguably, I required more help with my academic abilities than a scullery maid with a step-mother and step-sisters hell-bent on her misery. So thank you for working your miracles and waving that magic wand. Bibbidi Bobbidi Boo.

I should probably stop here. I know there are many people I have not thanked. But any longer, this acknowledgement section will start to eclipse the rest of the thesis.

Fun times,

Kevin

This study is a collaboration with industry partner, Bahen & Co. The frame of this study was carefully considered and tailored for the needs of the partner.

Preliminary versions of this paper have been presented at the following conferences:

1. Teah, K., Lwin, M., & Phau, I. (2016, November). EXPLORING GUILT APPEALS IN FAIRTRADE. In *2016 Korean Scholars of Marketing Science in Seoul*.
2. Teah, K., Lwin, M., & Phau, I. (2016, November). EXPLORING THE ROLE OF SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE KNOWLEDGE ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF GUILT MESSAGES. In *2016 Korean Scholars of Marketing Science in Seoul*.
3. Teah, K., & Phau, I. (2016, December). THE USE OF GUILT APPEALS IN SUSTAINABLE CONSUMPTION. In *2016 Australian & New Zealand Marketing Academy in Christchurch*.
4. Teah, K., Lwin, M., & Phau, I. (2017, May). THE EFFECTIVENESS OF LOGOS IN FAIRTRADE PRODUCTS. In *2017 Mystique of Luxury Brands at Seoul*.
5. Teah, K., Lwin, M., & Phau, I. (2017, July). THE EFFECTIVENESS OF GUILT STATEMENTS IN FAIRTRADE PRODUCTS. In *2017 Global Fashion Management Conference at Vienna* (pp. 19-19).

# Abstract

The purpose of the research aims to examine the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt appeals on Fairtrade certified products. Fairtrade is a label certification aimed at helping farmers in marginalised countries (Méndez et al., 2010). Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) explained that 'informative statements' can help evoke guilt and these statements are used on the packaging to investigate consumers' perceptions of ad credibility, inferences of manipulative intent, anticipatory guilt arousal, attitudes towards the ad, and willingness to pay more for Fairtrade certified products.

The research design will adopt a quantitative approach and is in line with the positivist research paradigm. A 2 ("logo" + "no logo") x 2 ("statement" + "no statement") factorial design comprised of four cells is adopted. Four conditions were tested; [Statement], [Logo], [Statement + Logo], and [Control]. The surveys were administered via consumer panel. 951 responses were collected over a two-week period.

The results show that consumers are willing to pay more for Fairtrade certified products when aroused by anticipatory guilt. The results have also shown the importance of varying the levels of perceived inferences of manipulative intent to the desired levels of guilt arousal. Self-efficacy has been shown to moderate the relationship between anticipatory guilt arousal and willingness to pay more. Some mediating relationships have also emerged from the study.

This study extends the knowledge of guilt by examining how, specifically, anticipatory guilt statements on the packaging of Fairtrade products can influence consumers' willingness to pay more. The results of this study will help managers and social policy makers develop strategies to promote Fairtrade products and have applications to other charitable co-branding schemes.

# Table of Contents

# 1  Introduction

## 1.1  Overview

This chapter provides a summary of the subsequent chapters in this study. The chapter starts off with the background of Fairtrade, highlighting key industry figures, prevalent promotional practices, current developments, and the future of the industry. The review of Fairtrade is important because it is the premise of this study. This is followed by other pieces of key literature, leading to the purpose and research objectives of the study. Next, overarching and supporting theories and the application in the proposed hypotheses are outlined. Lastly, the significance, limitations, contributions as well as the method of analysis employed will be briefly covered.

```
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│    The Fairtrade Industry   │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│   Fairtrade and Advertising │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│         Guilt Appeals       │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│  Fairtrade Product Purchase │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│       Purpose of Study      │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│      Research Questions     │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│         Key Theories        │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│         Significance        │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│    Delimitations and Scope  │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│       Research Design       │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│       Thesis Structure      │
└─────────────────────────────┘
```

## 1.2   The Fairtrade Industry

Fairtrade is a certification body certifying products that represent the values of the 'fair trade' movement by having producers pay what is deemed 'fair' for certain commodities produced by farmers in marginalised countries (Fairtrade International, 2016; Moore, 2004; Witkowski, 2015). Fairtrade has plans to be a stepping stone to end world hunger by engaging in fair trading and to empower rather than to enslave, giving farmers in marginalised countries a fair exchange for their goods, which in turn can be used to build infrastructure and schools (Chkanikova & Lehner, 2015; Olson, 2016).

The choice to incorporate Fairtrade into the study stems from rise in ethical consumerism (Adams & Raisborough, 2010; Nicholls, 2002). Ethical consumerism has propelled Fairtrade to worldwide recognition, particularly in the United Kingdom and the United States. Other developing countries such as Taiwan are following suit. President Tsai, Ying-Weng in her speech to parliament in the second quarter of 2017 said "In the Agenda 2030 of the United Nations, there are many sustainable development indicators which could be advanced through Fairtrade. These include poverty eradication, gender equality, employment and economic growth, inequality improvement and so on. In particular, the indicator on 'responsible consumption and production' is directly related to fair trade". Also, during the 2016 Olympics, Rio de Janeiro declared the Olympic city a Fairtrade town with many other localities aspiring to do the same (Buchanan, 2017; Voinea, 2016). The UK is among the top countries with the highest penetration of Fairtrade. However, Australia, a country with similar cultures, values and demographics, is far behind. This may be caused by the low

recognition and familiarity of the Fairtrade logo as only one in two Australians recognise the Fairtrade logo.

## 1.2.1 Fairtrade and Advertising

Current Fairtrade certified products have Fairtrade logos on them but lack any sort of systematic processing cue such as statements. While labels have been shown to increase credibility in products (Janssen & Hamm, 2012; Nilsson, Tuncer, & Thidell, 2004), empirical studies have shown that consumers find certain types of labels or claims to be deceptive or fake (Carlson, Grove, & Kangun, 1993; Tucker, Rifon, Lee, & Reece, 2012). According to Carlson et al. (1993), claims and labels that are product-oriented, image-enhancing or vague tend to be regarded as deceptive. The lack of statements on Fairtrade certified products prevent consumers from further understanding Fairtrade and its activities. In countries such as the UK, where proliferation of Fairtrade is high, heuristic cues such as logos can be effective. In Australia, where recognition of Fairtrade is not as high, systematic cues may be more effective. Therefore, this study aspires to shed some light for managers trying to make informed marketing decisions with regards to Fairtrade promotion.

## 1.2.2 Guilt Appeals in Advertising

Emotion in marketing can create permanently loyal customers (Robinette, Brand, & Lenz, 2001). Its appeal can attract and shape consumers' reaction as well as affect attitudes toward a brand (Aaker, Stayman, & Hagerty, 1986; Edell & Burke, 1987; Olney, Holbrook, & Batra, 1991). Guilt is a form of emotion and there are three types. In this study, anticipatory guilt is used.

Rawlings (1970) defines anticipatory guilt as the contemplation of the potential violation of an individual's standards; thinking about doing something wrong or thinking of not doing something right. Anticipatory guilt appeals is most commonly used in advertising, making up of nearly 62% of all guilt ads (Huhmann & Brotherton, 1997). Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) also suggests that statements of fact were most commonly used in anticipatory guilt appeals. Previous studies observed anticipatory guilt appeals as of low-medium intensity and is short-lived (Giner-Sorolla, 2001). Furthermore, Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) claims that statements and facts elicit a more positive response. Additionally, guilt appeals in advertisements have been linked to affect attitudes towards the ad and subsequently affecting purchase intentions (Coulter & Pinto, 1995; Lwin & Phau, 2008b).

The literature shows guilt intensity can range from low-level to high-level and this has an influence on ad effectiveness (Coulter & Pinto, 1995). Advertisers can use cues to create and control for guilt intensity in the ad (Campbell, 1995). According to Coulter and Pinto (1995), increasing guilt intensity past a certain point will yield negative results. High intensity guilt can lead to feelings of anger and irritation and low levels of guilt simply does not evoke the intensity of emotions required. Therefore medium-level guilt intensity is most effective. High intensity guilt may also lead to feelings of discomfort and manipulation. Inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) is defined as individuals resisting the source of the message when the message is perceived as inappropriate, unfair or manipulative (Cotte, Coulter, & Moore, 2005). When consumers feel IMI, they do not feel the intended emotion but will feel anxiety and form negative attitudes toward the ad (Cotte et al., 2005). IMI is found to lower

advertising effectiveness which can be measured by brand and ad attitudes as well as purchase intention (Campbell, 1995).

### 1.2.3 The Purchase of Fairtrade Certified Products

Willingness to pay more (WTPM) is defined as the amount a customer is willing to pay for his/her preferred brand over comparable/lesser brands of the same package size/quantity (Aaker, 1992) . In addition, WTPM occurs when the value of the product exceeds the consumers' perceived value towards the product (Dean, Raats, & Shepherd, 2012; Keh & Xie, 2009). Economists, psychologists, and marketing researchers rely on measures of consumers' willingness to pay more (WTPM) in estimating demand for private and public goods and in determining optimal price points (Wertenbroch, 2002). Other studies have used WTPM to measure the strength of consumers' emotional attachment (Thomson, MacInnis, & Whan Park, 2005).

Studies have shown that consumers are WTPM for a brand that promises contributions to a charity (Strahilevitz, 1999). However, Bird and Hughes (1997) claimed that the WTPM for goods based on ethical credentials is limited to a minority of shoppers. This suggests inconsistencies between attitudes towards ethical consumption and actual behaviour (Pelsmacker, Driesen, & Rayp, 2005).

While studies have shown that consumer attitudes influence behaviour, other studies have shown that attitudes alone are generally poor predictors of purchase intent (Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, & Donthu, 1995). The discrepancy between attitudes and ethical buying behaviour can explained by the lack of availability of ethical products, disbelief of ethical claims,

feelings of manipulation, and lack of information (Campbell & Kirmani, 2000; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Pelsmacker et al., 2005).

The discrepancy between attitudes and ethical buying behaviour can be stemmed from the lack of ability to pursue this behaviour. In the realm of social science, self-efficacy measures accessibility, confidence of procurement, and likelihood of purchase (Basil, Ridgway, & Basil, 2008; Sherer et al., 1982). Acknowledging the relationship of self-efficacy in the context of Fairtrade is important. Fairtrade certified products come at a price premium because of labelling costs and costs increase the quality of life for farmers in marginalised countries (D'Souza, Taghian, Lamb, & Peretiatko, 2007; Low & Davenport, 2005). Furthermore, Mukhopadhyay and Johar (2005) suggests that self-efficacy may have an influence on purchase intention. Therefore, it is possible that consumers may feel the lack of accessibility in Fairtrade certified products as a barrier preventing purchase despite willingness to do so.

## 1.3 Purpose

This research aims to examine the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt in the promotion of Fairtrade certified products. A revalidation of the research model based on research done by Cotte et al. (2005) as well as Lwin and Phau (2008b) factors in ad credibility, attitudes towards the ad and inferences of manipulative intent to guilt arousal. Further to this, the outcomes of anticipatory guilt arousal is measured by consumers' willingness to pay more which is hypothesized to be moderated by self-efficacy. The research model also includes mediation tests between ad credibility, attitudes towards the ad, and inferences of manipulative intent to validate previous research conducted on the subject. To better understand the effects of statements on anticipatory guilt arousal as suggested by Huhmann and Brotherton (1997), four conditions, [Statement], [Logo], [Statement + Logo], and a [Control] will be tested to determine which condition is the most effective.

## 1.4 Research Questions

This study aims to use anticipatory guilt appeals to promote Fairtrade certified products. In order to do so, these research questions will be answered:

1. How does anticipatory guilt arousal affect consumer attitudes and behaviour towards Fairtrade products (H1 to H7)?

2. How does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between consumers' anticipatory guilt arousal and willingness to pay more for Fairtrade certified products (H8)?

3. What is the mediating role of attitudes towards the ad and inferences of manipulative intent on the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt arousal on Fairtrade certified products (H9)?

## 1.5   Key Theories

Several key theories justify the research model and the hypotheses. These theories are separated into overarching and supporting theories. The overarching theories underpin the research model while supporting theories rationalise hypotheses presented.

### 1.5.1   Overarching Theories

#### 1.5.1.1   Cognitive Dissonance

Cognitive dissonance is the phenomenon used to describe the incompatibility between two cognitions, which can be defined as any element of knowledge, including attitude, emotion, belief, or behaviour (Festinger, 1957). According to Harmon-Jones and Mills (1999), cognitive dissonance theory postulates that a sane person cannot hold two conflicting thoughts in the mind at the same time. These conflicting thoughts cause uncomfortable tension. These contradicting thoughts motivate individuals to resolve this dissonance by inventing new thoughts or beliefs, or to modify existing beliefs, to reduce the amount of dissonance between these thoughts. Fairtrade is positioned to reduce the human, ecological, and environmental impacts of consumption. Consumers who have cognitions of ethical consumption will prefer their actions to reflect their thoughts. Once consumers are aware of the plight faced by farmers in marginalised countries, the guilt evoked may cause consumers to reduce the unpleasantness. For example, if their actions are not ethical, such as not supporting Fairtrade, dissonance will occur and consumers may seek to reduce this dissonance by supporting Fairtrade.

#### 1.5.1.2   Heuristic-Systematic Model

The Heuristic-Systematic Model (HSM) is a communication model commonly used to assess persuasive messages. The HSM comprises of two parts, heuristic processing uses judgmental

rules known as knowledge structures that are learned and stored in memory (Chen, Duckworth, & Chaiken, 1999). Systematic processing involves comprehensive and analytic, cognitive processing of judgment-relevant information (Chen et al., 1999). Fairtrade certified products are currently promoted using heuristic processing cues such as logos. While Fairtrade advertisements on billboards and print media have systematic cues, guilt has been shown to be a short-lived emotion (Huhmann & Brotherton, 1997; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978; Tangney, Miller, Flicker, & Barlow, 1996). Because of guilt is a short-lived emotion, guilt appeals are likely to be more effective at point-of-purchase, locking in the sale before the emotion "wears out".

### 1.5.2 Supporting Theories

#### 1.5.2.1 Cognitive Response Theory

The Cognitive Response Theory (CRT) of persuasion locates the most direct cause of persuasion in the intrapersonal communication (self-talk) of the persuasion target, rather than the content of the message (Kenrick, Neuberg, & Cialdini, 2009). CRT shows how people acquire and change their attitude in response to persuasive communication. Research supporting the model shows that persuasion is powerfully affected by the amount of self-talk that occurs in response to a message (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993b). Based on the literature, attitude towards the ad ($A_{ad}$) is measured by support arguments, counter arguments and source degradation (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993b).

#### 1.5.2.2 Attribution Theory

In a persuasion literature, effectiveness of the persuasion attempt is measured by the respondent's acceptance of the content (Greenwald, Albert, Cullen, Love, & Have, 1968). Attribution theory evaluates how people perceive the behaviour of themselves and of other

people by attributing feelings, beliefs, and intentions to them. For example, a person who is met with success may attribute the success internally and believe the success was caused by his hard work and diligence while the same person may attribute failure externally and blame external forces for his failure. Therefore, attribution theory is concerned with how individuals interpret events, which will then lead to thinking and behaviour (Jones, 1972; Weiner, 1974).

### 1.5.2.3 Persuasion Knowledge Model

The Persuasion Knowledge Model (PKM) states that both consumers and marketing agents have access to three categories of knowledge: knowledge of the topic, knowledge of persuasion, and knowledge of the agent. Consumers use their sets of knowledge to maintain control over the outcome and achieve goals (Friestad & Wright, 1994). Marketing agents, in turn, have knowledge of the topic, knowledge of persuasion and knowledge of the target consumer. The marketing agents rely on their knowledge to develop a persuasion attempt. Consumers, employing their sets of knowledge, counteract with a persuasion-coping response. When consumers identify a persuasion attempt, their sets of knowledge enable them to allocate their own cognitive resources among the three knowledge structures (persuasion, topic and agent) to process the stimulus efficiently according to their goal priorities.

### 1.5.2.4 Reactance Theory

Reactance theory (RT) is a way in which a person thinks or behaves when perceiving a threat to his or her freedom (Brehm, 1966). Reactance occurs as a result of a person's drive to protect their perceived personal freedom. When consumers are forced to take an option that they otherwise felt they have control over deciding themselves, they feel resentful and

act against the 'forced' option, even if the option forced on the consumer is one he or she would have likely selected (Brehm, 1966; Wortman & Brehm, 1975). In the context of Fairtrade, if supporting Fairtrade was made compulsory, it is likely Fairtrade will suffer consumer backlash. While the act of giving creates emotion of pleasure, having forced to give is akin to having something taken away, which is generally not a pleasurable experience.

### 1.5.2.5   Negative State Relief Model

The Negative State Relief (NSR) model attempts to describe how one's situational factor relates to the willingness to help others. The theory also states that humans have an innate drive to reduce negative moods. The NSR model simply states that when an individual is placed in a negative state, the individual will be motivated to leave that state. Similarly, once an individual is in a positive state, the individual strives to remain in that state. In the context of Fairtrade, not supporting farmers in marginalised countries may cause certain respondents to feel guilt, which is a negative state (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999; Batson et al., 1989; Tangney et al., 1996). As such, respondents are motivated to leave that negative state, perhaps by purchasing Fairtrade certified products.

## 1.6   Research Design

To ensure a thorough representation of the population, the survey instrument was administered via a consumer panel. Data will be collected over two weeks in four separate batches. A 2 ("logo" + "no logo") x 2 ("statement" + "no statement") factorial design comprised of four cells is adopted. Therefore, there will be four separate conditions, [Statement], [Logo], [Statement + Logo], and [Control].

This study will collaborate with an industry partner, Bahen & Co. Bahen & Co. is a boutique chocolatier focussed on using vintage equipment and traditional chocolate manufacturing process to produce artisan chocolates from bean to bar. Bahen & Co. is looking to measure the effectiveness of Fairtrade logos and statements on consumer perception using various advertising appeals. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) have shown that non-durable products, such as chocolate, are more susceptible to guilt appeals.

## 1.7  Delimitations and Scope

This study is delimited by three parameters. These parameters form the frame of the study. Studies with more resources may want to extend these boundaries.

1. This study looks at Australian consumers. Compared to countries with more established Fairtrade presence such as the UK or the US, Australian consumers may differ in terms of Fairtrade knowledge, ethical consumerism, and spending ability.

2. This study looks at one type of guilt, anticipatory guilt. Future studies may want to look at the effectiveness of other guilt types such as reactive or existential guilt in the context of Fairtrade (Hibbert, Smith, Davies, & Ireland, 2007; Huhmann & Brotherton, 1997; Lwin & Phau, 2008a).

3. This study looks at only one product category – chocolate. Although chocolate is the largest Fairtrade product category in Australia, forming 55% of all Fairtrade product categories, coffee comes in at a close second at 34% (Fairtrade Australia, 2010-2015; Fairtrade International, 2016).

## 1.8 Significance

### 1.8.1 Conceptual and Methodological Significance

1. This study will provide empirical evidence if anticipatory guilt appeals affect Fairtrade certified products. Previous studies have looked at guilt as a unified construct (Lwin & Phau, 2014; McDonald & Ho, 2002). However, guilt has three very distinct types. It is predicted that Fairtrade ads, when controlled for inferences of manipulative intent, will have a significant effect on anticipatory guilt arousal. Furthermore, anticipatory guilt arousal may have some effect on consumers' willingness to pay more. Fairtrade certified products are currently promoted without the use of guilt. The results of this study may suggest the possibility of using anticipatory guilt arousal with moderate effectiveness when promoting Fairtrade certified products. Further, the antecedents of anticipatory guilt in a Fairtrade context will be validated.

2. Fairtrade certified products are currently promoted without the use of systematic cues especially at point-of-purchase. This study will provide empirical evidence on the effects of guilt statements (which are processed systematically) and logos (which are processed heuristically) in Fairtrade certified products. Previous studies observed anticipatory guilt appeals as of low-medium intensity and is short-lived (Giner-Sorolla, 2001) making guilt appeals used point-of-purchase more effective. Lewis (2000) and Lascu (1991) states guilt as a motivating, action-oriented emotion making guilt a choice emotional appeal at eliciting behaviour. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) also suggests that statements of fact were most commonly used in anticipatory guilt appeals. Furthermore, Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) claims that statements and facts elicit a more positive response. This study will add to current

guilt literature by using anticipatory guilt in the promotion of Fairtrade certified
products.

3. Fairtrade is growing in Australia and new marketing initiatives should be introduced
   if Australia were to reach the level of Fairtrade penetration seen in the UK and the
   US. Respondents of the survey will be potential or actual users of Fairtrade certified
   products. The survey will help consumers gain knowledge of Fairtrade's activities and
   Fairtrade will gain recognition from respondents through completion of the survey.
   Therefore, this study has current industry relevance; its results can be used to shed
   light on future marketing initiatives Fairtrade may use, thus contributing ecological
   validity.

4. This study took further steps to validate the anticipatory guilt arousal scale. It is
   clearly a unidimensional scale as proposed in the original study by Lwin and Phau
   (2008a). All the other scales used in this study are established. But studies have
   separated guilt into three separate constructs (Burnett & Lunsford, 1994; Huhmann
   & Brotherton, 1997; Rawlings, 1970; Renner, Lindenmeier, Tscheulin, & Drevs, 2013).
   Until recently, few studies have validated the three separate constructs of guilt
   (Lwin, 2010; Lwin & Phau, 2014; Wonneberger, 2017).

### 1.8.2 Managerial Significance

1. Fairtrade is currently promoted without the use of guilt elements (Boudewyns,
   Turner, & Paquin, 2013; Chang, 2014; Lwin & Phau, 2015; Renner et al., 2013; Van
   Trijp, 2013). Fairtrade certified products held by brands such as Ben & Jerry's have
   used appeals focussed on positive mental states such as crowd appeals (Adler, 2016;
   Fallon, 2014). It is suggested that Fairtrade may want to look at using guilt to further

the proliferation of Fairtrade products and recognition of the Fairtrade logo as well as the activities of Fairtrade in Australia. This can be achieved by using different conditions highlighted in this study for different strategies. For example, Fairtrade may want to use [Statement + Logo] conditions when recognition of the Fairtrade Mark is low to build recognition and association. The logo will build association to the statements which will increase awareness of Fairtrade's activities. In turn, the association with Fairtrade's activities to the logo will build recognition (Landa, 2016; Månsson & Björling, 2017). When Fairtrade's logo reaches higher levels of recognition, using only logos can save precious real-estate on packaging as logos take less surface area than lengthy statements (Kelly et al., 2009; Mejean, Macouillard, Péneau, Hercberg, & Castetbon, 2013). When consumers are able to process the purchase of Fairtrade certified products through logo recognition, consumers can process Fairtrade certified products faster; once they see the logo on supermarket shelves, they may choose products with the logo without further thought. This study will potentially provide useful information for advertisers to enhance their understanding of anticipatory guilt appeals. However, they are not limited to Fairtrade. With the help of these findings, marketers, strategists, business planners, advertisers, brand managers and product managers could determine the steps to undertake to promote a healthy advertising campaign.

2. Pricing forms an integral role in Fairtrade certified products. Prices have to be high enough in order for funds to benefit the livelihoods of farmers in marginalised countries but prices must also be competitive (Dragusanu, Giovannucci, & Nunn, 2014; Howard & Allen, 2008; Krystallis & Chryssohoidis, 2005). However, supermarkets sell Fairtrade certified products at a lower price than non-Fairtrade

certified products even if those products are generic in nature and are not well-known brands. It is predicted that this study will show consumers are willing to pay more for Fairtrade certified products. Therefore, lowering the prices of Fairtrade certified products seems counterintuitive. In addition, competing with lower price-point products that are generic should be considered as selling Fairtrade products short. Furthermore, it is in Fairtrade's best interests to maintain premium prices on certified products as larger margins could mean more resources go toward the benefit of farmers in marginalised countries (Strahilevitz, 1999; Young, Hwang, McDonald, & Oates, 2009). Tying back to attribution theory, reducing the price of Fairtrade certified products prevents willing consumers from making an impact with their purchases, making purchases feel less rewarding in the sense of self-satisfaction when helping out others in need (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Aronson, 1992; Davis & Jones, 1960; Lwin & Phau, 2014). It is predicted that the results obtained from this study will benefit Fairtrade and companies engaged in Fairtrade such as Bahen & Co. by revisiting their pricing strategy and position Fairtrade certified products in a more premium space instead of competing with lower-priced products, watering down the value of what Fairtrade can do for farmers in marginalised countries.

3. Fairtrade certified products have a Fairtrade logo on their products as a label signifying ethical sourcing of raw materials. For consumers who do not recognise the logo, the lack of systematic processing cues like facts of Fairtrade as well as communities benefiting from Fairtrade product purchase prevents these consumers from further understanding and recognising the Fairtrade logo. Using statements on Fairtrade certified products will help increase recognition and the activities of

Fairtrade as well as the Fairtrade logo. In addition, for companies like Bahen & Co., where packaging design is an attraction for consumers, focusing the attention of front-of-pack information on Fairtrade by using elements of contrast to make Fairtrade-related motifs stand out and enhance Fairtrade's messages more prominently (Feunekes, Gortemaker, Willems, Lion, & Van Den Kommer, 2008; Siegrist, Leins-Hess, & Keller, 2015). Therefore, it is predicted that the results from this study will contribute by highlighting the importance of using systematic processing cues in the promotion of Fairtrade certified products, especially when recognition of the Fairtrade Mark is low among the target population.

4. Among the four conditions, it is predicted that [Statement] may be the most effective strategy for promoting Fairtrade products. This works by making sure the anticipatory guilt arousal experienced in not too intense as compared to [Statement + Logo] and it allows guilt statements to affect customers at point-of-purchase. Although having both statements and logos on Fairtrade certified products will allow both consumers who know about Fairtrade to process product purchase heuristically, perhaps placing statements and logos separately on the product packing may dampen the effects of inferences of manipulative intent.

5. Tying this back to the ad credibility and attitudes towards the ad constructs, the results in this study may show that ad credibility has more significance at evoking anticipatory guilt arousal than attitudes towards the ad. Since ad credibility has shown to have more importance than attitudes towards the ad, Fairtrade may want to look at increasing the credibility of their ads. Methods to do so may be to engage representatives of progressive organisations such as the United Nations or other congruent parties to endorse Fairtrade activities and messages. Other possibilities

include media personalities and celebrities. Simply put, statements on packaging may not be sufficiently credible. In this case, endorsement from prominent personalities may increase credibility, which is predicted in this study to show a larger significant effect at evoking anticipatory guilt arousal.

6. Self-efficacy in this study refers to the people who have the ability, resources, and accessibility to purchase Fairtrade certified products. It is predicted that self-efficacy positively moderates a respondent's willingness to pay more for Fairtrade certified products. From a Fairtrade standpoint, the cohort of consumers with the ability to purchase Fairtrade certified products will be the target market of Fairtrade and its partners. It is clear, from marketing strategies and segmentations, Fairtrade should target this cohort as the primary market. Furthermore, the collaborator, Bahen & Co., is looking at expanding to international markets. The research from this study may suggest that Bahen & Co. target this cohort for better success. In addition, because self-efficacy is so important in the promotion of Fairtrade certified products, Fairtrade and its collaborators may want to look to increase accessibility to these products; perhaps towards online offerings and increased retail destinations.

## 1.9   Thesis Structure

The structure of this research paper is as follows. Chapter 1 provides key points and a summary of the contents of the study. Chapter 2 delves deeper into the literature on labelling, Fairtrade, guilt, as well as the constructs and their interactions. Chapter 3 highlights the gaps from the literature review and turns the gaps into research objectives. The overarching and supporting theories are presented, tied into the context of Fairtrade and the hypotheses linked to the theories are introduced. The research model is also derived from these theories and hypotheses and presented in this chapter. Chapter 4 highlights research methodology, research design, scales, sampling, and the points of difference between the conditions. Chapter 5 presents the demographics of the respondents, the dataset is analysed as four separate conditions and the findings are discussed. Chapter 6 presents contributions, limitations, and future research directions.

## 1.10 Chapter Conclusion

Chapter 1 provides and introduction and quick summary to the entire thesis starting off with an overview of the Fairtrade Industry. Key industry statistics were highlighted followed by current and prevalent Fairtrade advertising campaigns. The purpose of this study is presented, then based on the literature, research questions are developed. Key theories are introduced and briefly explained, followed by the significance of the study, the scope, the research design and finally the thesis structure. In the next chapter, relevant literature pertaining to Fairtrade will be more elaborately covered.

# 2 Chapter 2: Relevant Literature

## 2.1 Overview

This chapter provides a comprehensive review of the literature relevant to the study. Starting off with labelling, the intricacies of labelling such as label credibility and the cluttered front-of-pack advertising space is reviewed. Next, the distinction between Fairtrade, the certifying company, and Fair Trade, the social movement as well as the Fairtrade industry and consumer perceptions will be covered in detail. This is followed by attitudes and credibility towards advertising which are mediated by inferences of manipulative intent. These factors will then affect the success of respondents feeling guilt, namely anticipatory guilt. Lastly, this study will look at how successful evocation of guilt translates into willingness to pay more which is moderated by self-efficacy. Drawing from this critical review of the relevant literature, this chapter concludes with the identification and justification of research gaps. This chapter forms the skeleton of the proposed research model and hypotheses later in Chapter 3.
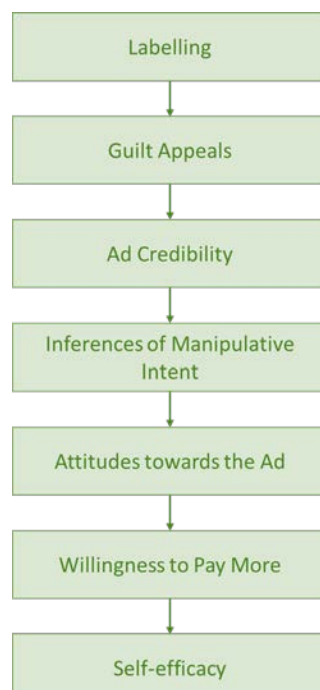
## 2.2 Labelling in the Advertising of Fairtrade

Labels on a food package tell consumers the contents of the box (Silayoi & Speece, 2007). Due to the information asymmetry of environmentally friendly products, labelling is required to assist in identifying food products (Sammer & Wüstenhagen, 2006). Apart from logistic purposes, labels are also used as a communication tool between sellers and buyers (Nancarrow, Tiu Wright, & Brace, 1998). Janssen and Hamm (2012) explains that companies should focus on labels because it helps increase awareness and creates positive attitudes towards the product.

Marketers use labels as a form of advertising appeal to convey information, build consumer confidence, and attract attention in order to elicit purchase (Furlow, 2009; Nancarrow et al., 1998). Labels used as communication tools from an advertising perspective are studied extensively in terms of its effectiveness at eliciting product purchase (D'Souza et al., 2007; Janssen & Hamm, 2012; Kelly et al., 2009). However, apart from labels, statements are also used as advertising appeals in the eco-labelling space (Ibanez & Grolleau, 2007). **Despite this, no study has looked at how statements or a mixture of statements and logos can increase the effectiveness at eliciting purchase behaviour.** In order for labels to attract attention, Kelly et al. (2009) have looked at front-of-pack food labelling, which Fairtrade uses to attract consumer attention in supermarkets. Koszewska (2011) has shown that consumers regard labels as a means of communication and product differentiation.

*Figure 2-1: Health Star Ratings*



*Figure 2-2: Labels to Measure Power Consumption*



*Figure 2-3: Are Chips Healthier than Yoghurt?*



*Figure 2-4: Country of Origin Labels*

The Australian government strives to regulate labels in packaging intensively (foodstandards.gov.au). Some countries such as Australia have a government-endorsed label that consumers can rely upon (Case, 2004). Governments can also steer a society's consumption patterns via the use of government-endorsed labels (D'Souza et al., 2007). Government-endorsed labels can come in the form of health labels such as the health star ratings (see Figure 2-1) or non-health related labels such as Country of Origin labels (see Figure 2-4) or labels on electronics to measure power consumption (see Figure 2-2). Furthermore, labelling can encourage environmentally friendly consumption patterns by aiding policy-makers to increase the environmental standards of the products and services in the economy (Galarraga Gallastegui, 2002). However, unscrupulous merchants can find loopholes within some poorly-defined government-endorsed labels and abuse these loopholes (Nestle, 2010). Like in the case of beer batter steakhouse chips (Figure 2.1) have a rating of four stars under the Federal Government ranking system, while Greek-style yoghurt attracted a rating of 1.5 stars (see Figure 2-3) (Cheer, 2015).



*Figure 2-5: The Marketplace is Bombarded with Labels*

Caswell and Padberg (1992) have looked at information overload, where consumers are bombarded by claims and labels of varying credibility (see Figure 2-5). Wandel (1997) claims

most consumers read labels before purchases. However, because of the trend of eco-labels in food being used to boost consumer confidence and ultimately boost sales , an abundance of labels, varying in degree of credibility, have surfaced (Caswell & Padberg, 1992; Nilsson et al., 2004). Furthermore, the majority of consumers simply do not have the time and information-processing ability to handle the bombardment of information directed at them for low-involvement purchases (Caswell & Padberg, 1992). In addition, consumers find the contributions of eco-labels to be poorly communicated (Caswell & Padberg, 1992) with the majority of consumers unsure of the labels' ecological impact and compliance (van Amstel, Driessen, & Glasbergen, 2008). Consumers feel that the lack of transparency erodes credibility in labelling systems, reducing consumer confidence and the likelihood of product purchase (Koszewska, 2011).



*Figure 2-6: The Fairtrade Mark*



*Figure 2-7: Nestlé's Own Certification*

Albersmeier, Schulze, Jahn, and Spiller (2009) have looked at private labels versus third-party labels. Labels can be differentiated as self-declared, private, in-house certifications, or independent, third-party certifications (Dekhili & Akli Achabou, 2014; Rashid, 2009). Studies have discovered that consumers feel self-declarations are less credible compared to third-party certifications because of the absence of an impartial guarantee from an external body (Albersmeier et al., 2009; D'Souza et al., 2007). Instead of certification, some opportunistic companies have exploited the ill-structured criteria of ecological definitions and may use adjectives such as 'organic' or 'environmentally friendly' on their packaging to lure consumers (Saha & Darnton, 2005). Therefore, based on the information collected from various studies, labels have varying degrees of credibility (see Figure 2-8). Nespresso AAA is an example of Nestlé's private, in-house certification used to certify sustainable supply chains in Nestlé's coffee product lines (see Figure 2-7). Fairtrade is an example of a third-party label (see Figure 2-6).

**Merchant Claims**

Examples:
1. "Organic"
2. "Free Range"
3. "Premium Quality"

**Third-party**

Examples:
1. Fairtrade
2. Rainforest Alliance

Less Credible

More Credible

**Private in-house**

Examples:
1. Nespresso AAA
2. KFC Freshly Prepared

**Government-endorsed**

Examples:
1. Energy Consumption
2. Country of Origin
3. USDA Organic
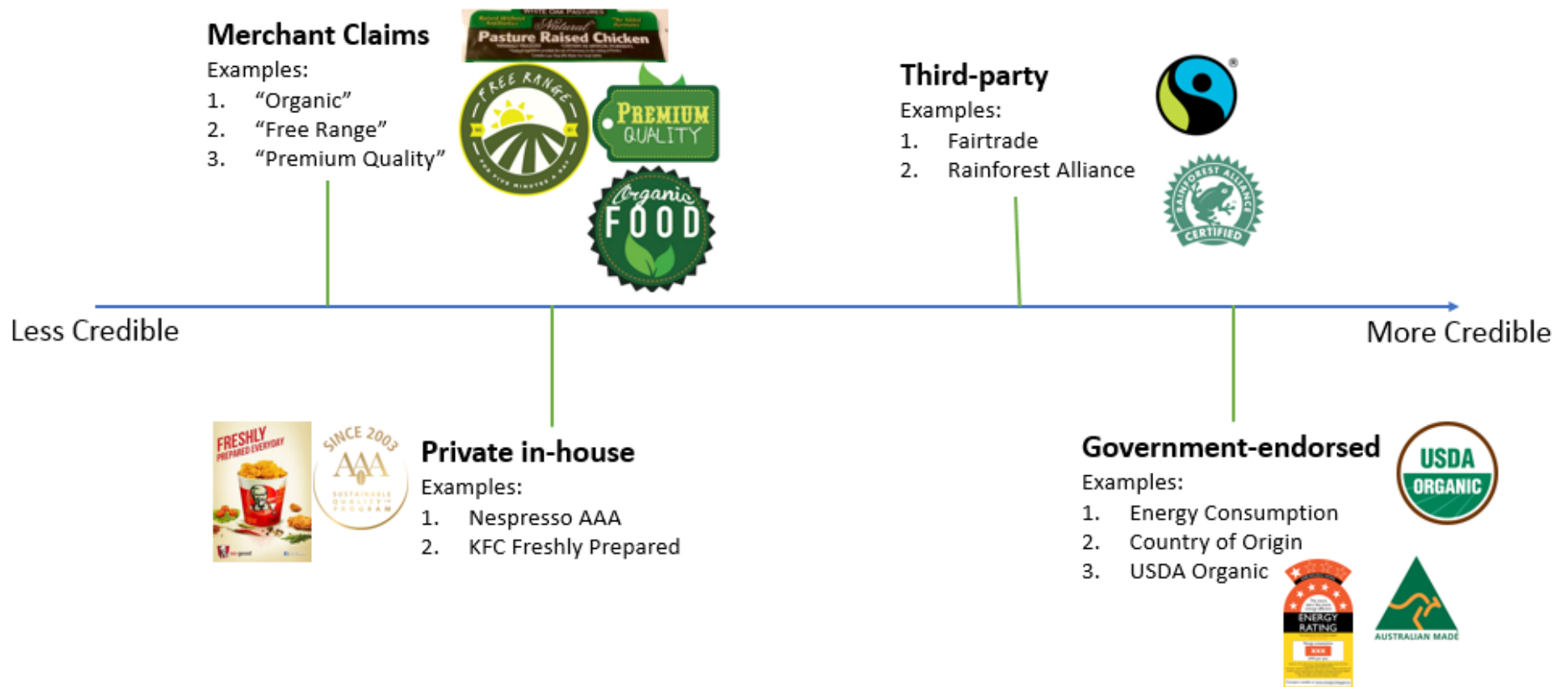
*Figure 2-8: Varying Levels of Perceived Credibility*

## 2.3   Fairtrade



*Figure 2-9: Fairtrade Retail Sales in AUD Millions*
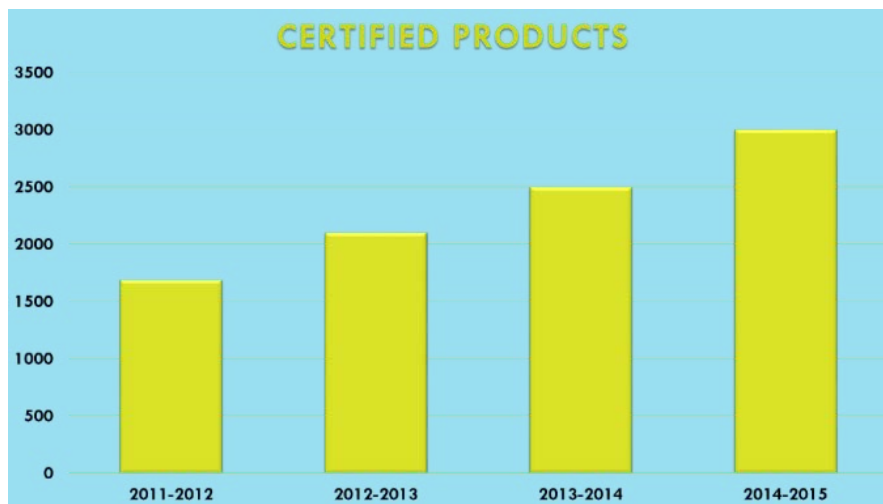


*Figure 2-10: Number of Fairtrade Certified Products in Australia*

'Fair trade' is a movement aimed at helping producers in developing countries achieve 'fair'

trading relationships and sustainable farming (Low & Davenport, 2006; Moore, 2004;

Witkowski, 2015). Producers can claim their products to be 'fair trade' but these claims may

not be backed by certification of a credible body. Fairtrade is a certification body certifying

products that represent the values of the 'fair trade' movement by having producers pay

what is deemed 'fair' for certain commodities produced by farmers in marginalised

countries (Fairtrade International, 2016). Based on 2015 figures, Fairtrade Australia has

close to AUD$350M in retail sales (see Figure 2-9) with over 3,000 certified products (see Figure 2-10), among which, 34% are coffee-related products and 55% are chocolate-related products (see Figure 2-11). With the funds, Fairtrade aims to improve the quality of life for these farmers (Fairtrade International, 2016). Products that are Fairtrade certified can label their products which may appeal to ethical consumerism (Doherty, Davies, & Tranchell, 2013).
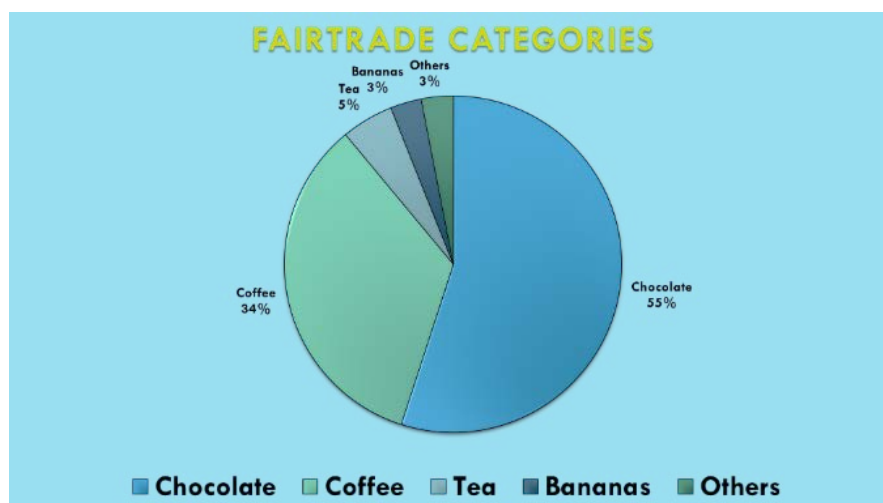


*Figure 2-11: Fairtrade Product Categories in Australia*

The choice to incorporate Fairtrade into the study stems from rise in ethical consumerism (Nicholls, 2002). Consumers are looking for ways to increase ethical consumption through everyday purchases (Young et al., 2009). The growth of Fairtrade consumption may also be due to the mainstreaming of Fairtrade products to the masses (Doherty et al., 2013; Low & Davenport, 2005; Low & Davenport, 2006; Moore, Gibbon, & Slack, 2006). The majority of Fairtrade products, such as bananas, chocolates, and coffee, are processed **heuristically** by consumers (Adams & Raisborough, 2010).
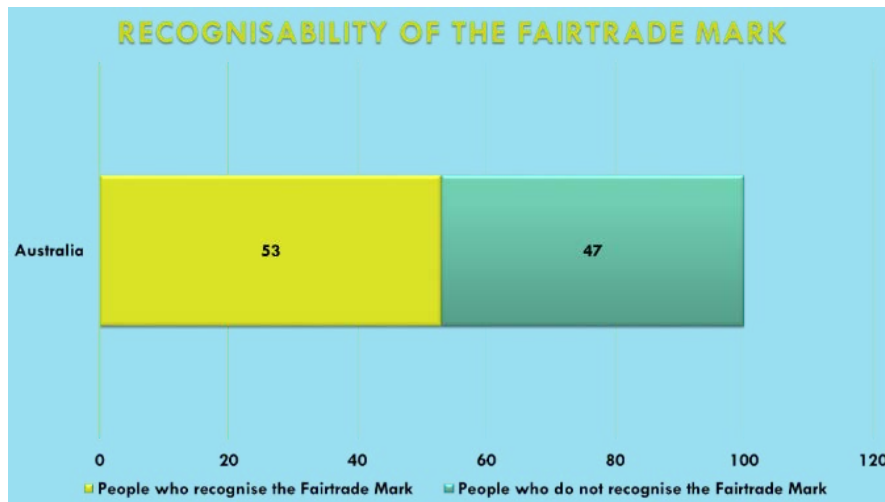
*Figure 2-12: Only Half of Australians Recognise the Fairtrade Mark*

Companies are also looking at increasing their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) profile because they want to be seen as ethical (Nicholls, 2002). Furthermore, Fairtrade Australia has doubled in retail sales and product categories over the past five years. Despite this, only one in two Australians recognise the Fairtrade Mark and this figure has been stagnant for the past five years (Fairtrade Australia, 2010-2015) (see Figure 2-12). New marketing techniques should be looked at to maintain momentum.

Fairtrade has been shown to be beneficial to farmers in marginalised countries (Arnould, Plastina, & Ball, 2009; Bacon, 2005). The artificial price floor for produce and the support farmers get for being part of a cooperative, reduces the farmers' livelihood vulnerability (Bacon, 2005). Farmers engaged in Fairtrade feel that their economic situation is more resilient and have shown to partake in environmentally friendly practices (Dragusanu et al., 2014). Fairtrade then helps the communities by providing rural development and conservation processes (Méndez et al., 2010). Farmers under Fairtrade are also more likely to exhibit positive changes in organisation, input use, wealth and attitudes towards risk

(Baron & Kenny, 1986). Arnould et al. (2009) evidenced Fairtrade's delivering on their promised core values of income, educational attainment, and health.

On the other hand, a few studies challenge the feasibility of Fairtrade. Dragusanu et al. (2014) state the goal of Fairtrade to alleviate poverty amongst farmers in marginalised countries is ineffective because of its small scale compared to the national economy. Méndez et al. (2010) argue that although farmers are offered higher prices, farmer household livelihoods have limited improvements. Two studies from Ruben, Fort, and Zúñiga-Arias (2009) and Ruben and Fort (2012) found only modest income and production gains. Another study by Valkila (2009) has shown that Fairtrade has failed to help the poorest of farmers out of poverty because of the initial premium outlay and low-intensity farming. Doherty et al. (2013)have also stated that some retailers are looking at dealing directly with farmers in marginalised countries, reducing the need for a middleman.

There are limited studies attempting to understand the market for Fairtrade. Doran (2008) argues **demographics** do not play a role in determining a profile of a Fairtrade consumer. However, other literature indicates a relationship between **education** and ethical consumption (Blend & Ravenswaay, 1999; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Littrell & Dickson, 2006). Furthermore, Littrell and Dickson (2006) have concluded significant differences between **age groups** and Fairtrade consumption. Howard and Allen (2008) claimed that Caucasian **women** with higher education are more likely to purchase Fairtrade.

There is a lack of consensus in the current literature on consumer purchasing behaviour of Fairtrade certified products. However, literature has shown that general consumers have a positive attitude towards the Fairtrade movement (Conner & Mabaya, 2006; Littrell & Dickson, 2006; Pelsmacker et al., 2005). Despite the positive attitudes displayed by general consumers, multiple studies show only a small percentage of consumers are willing to pay more for Fairtrade certified products (Basu & Hicks, 2008; Didier & Lucie, 2008; Littrell & Dickson, 2006; Pelsmacker et al., 2005). This indicates a gap between consumer attitudes and purchase intentions.

Limited studies have found barriers limiting the purchase of Fairtrade certified products (Blend & Ravenswaay, 1999; Bray, Johns, & Kilburn, 2010; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001). For instance, some consumers who did not purchase Fairtrade certified products because they felt the labels failed to evoke any form of ethical consideration (Bray et al., 2010). Therefore, it is clear that negative emotions such as guilt could play a role in consumer decision making because consumers affected by the negative state will want to leave said state (Van Trijp, 2013). Some refused because of ethical constraints while some felt that Fairtrade certified products were inferior in quality (Bray et al., 2010). There were consumers deterred by cynicism, sceptical that their purchase would make any difference to the society (Bray et al., 2010). Hence, the literature indicates that marketers and advertisers need to control for the message and source credibility. This leads to the discussion of using guilt appeals to evoke the ethical consideration needed to facilitate a purchase.

## 2.4  Guilt Appeals

Emotion in marketing can create permanently loyal customers (Robinette et al., 2001). Its appeal can attract and shape consumers' reaction as well as affect attitudes toward a brand (Aaker et al., 1986; Edell & Burke, 1987; Olney et al., 1991). Plutchik (2001) distinguishes eight types of emotions. Guilt is classified as a feeling of sadness and shame (Parrott, 2001; Plutchik, 2001).

Guilt has been identified as a negative emotion (Parrott, 2001; Plutchik, 2001). According to the Negative State Relief Model, upon successful evocation of guilt, individuals will seek to reduce that negative emotion (Batson et al., 1989; Cialdini & Kenrick, 1976). Pearlin and Schooler (1978) have identified individuals seeking to relief the state of guilt as a coping mechanism. Furthermore, research suggests that individuals having to endure situations not of their choosing are more compelled to react (Wortman & Brehm, 1975). The intensity of guilt may differ from situation and type but the feeling of guilt does not last very long (Batson et al., 1989; Cialdini & Kenrick, 1976). Because of this, guilt appeals in Fairtrade ads may be less effective at evoking purchase. Thus, it might be more effective to evoke guilt at the point-of-purchase.

The discovery of guilt in psychology originates from a study conducted by Rawlings (1970). The experiment involved having a respondent jolting a subject with electricity but was hesitant to do so (Cialdini, Darby, & Vincent, 1973; Rawlings, 1970). More recently, Lewis (2000) and Lascu (1991) define guilt as a motivating, action-oriented emotion experienced upon either contemplating or actually committing a transgression. The literature classifies

guilt into 3 types: reactive, existential, and anticipatory (Izard, 2013; Rawlings, 1970).

However, researches usually look at guilt as a unified construct (Basil et al., 2008; Hibbert et

al., 2007; LaBarge & Godek, 2006; Lindsey, 2005). In the realm of advertising appeals, guilt

appeals are among the under-researched when compared to fear or sex appeals (Roach,

Laidlaw, Gillanders, & Quinn, 2013).


Literature defines reactive guilt as a response to the past and over an act of having violated

those standards; when an individual has done something wrong or failed to do something

right (Burnett & Lunsford, 1994; Rawlings, 1970). Existential guilt is experienced as a result

of the awareness of a discrepancy between one's well-being and the well-being of others

(Huhmann & Brotherton, 1997; Lwin & Phau, 2014); experienced when one feels better off,

or more fortunate than others, resulting in feelings of empathy and encourages action to

bring the two closer together (Hibbert et al., 2007; Lwin & Phau, 2008b).


Rawlings (1970) defines anticipatory guilt as the contemplation of the potential violation of

an individual's standards; thinking about doing something wrong or thinking of not doing

something right. Anticipatory guilt appeals is most commonly used in advertising, making up

of nearly 62% of all guilt ads (Huhmann & Brotherton, 1997). Huhmann and Brotherton

(1997) also suggests that statements of fact were most commonly used in anticipatory guilt

appeals. Previous studies observed anticipatory guilt appeals as of low-medium intensity

and is short-lived (Giner-Sorolla, 2001). Furthermore, Huhmann and Brotherton (1997)

claims that statements and facts elicit a more positive response. Additionally, guilt appeals

in advertisements have been linked to affect attitudes towards the ad and subsequently

affecting purchase intentions (Coulter & Pinto, 1995; Lwin & Phau, 2008b). Thus, this study will use statements of fact to evoke anticipatory guilt through an advertisement.

## Interim Summary

Building from the preceding discussion, gaps have been identified in the literature. It is clear that more empirical studies of guilt in a Fairtrade context is required (Antonetti & Maklan, 2014; Gregory-Smith, Smith, & Winklhofer, 2013; Howard & Allen, 2008; Pelsmacker et al., 2005). In advertising appeals, research done in other appeals such as fear, sex, and humour far outweigh the amount of research done in guilt (Cotte & Ritchie, 2005; Coulter & Pinto, 1995; Prayag & Soscia, 2016). However, guilt is an effective marketing tool for products centred around ethical consumption (Bray et al., 2010; Peloza, White, & Shang, 2013). Therefore, Van Trijp (2013) has called for more research in guilt appeals for fair trade products.

## 2.5 Ad Credibility

Ad credibility ($A_{cr}$) is defined as the "extent to which the consumer perceives claims made about the brand in the ad to be truthful and believable" (Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989). Petty and Cacioppo (1986) states that positive ad credibility is more likely to result in favourable attitudes towards the ad. Positive ad credibility will also likely lead to positive reactions to guilt appeals (Cotte et al., 2005; Coulter, Cotte, & Moore, 1999). Consumers may experience the guilt intended by the advertiser when consumers feel that the ad is believable and is not ill-intentioned (Cotte et al., 2005). Pelsmacker et al. (2005) states the Fairtrade label needs to be efficiently monitored in order to become credible.

While, labels have been shown to increase credibility in products (Janssen & Hamm, 2012; Nilsson et al., 2004), empirical studies have shown that consumers find certain types of labels or claims to be deceptive or fake (Carlson et al., 1993; Tucker et al., 2012). According to Carlson et al. (1993), claims and labels that are product-oriented, image-enhancing or vague tend to be regarded as deceptive.

Mackenzie and Lutz (1989) found that $A_{cr}$ has a direct influence on attitude towards the ad ($A_{ad}$) because the ad is a source of credible information, if the source is believed, the ad can operate as a peripheral cue (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Moreover, studies show consumers respond negatively when they find ads to be manipulative or deceptive (Cotte et al., 2005; Tucker et al., 2012). This suggests that because advertising appeals can be responded to positively or negatively, Inferences of Manipulative Intent (IMI) can mediate the relationship between $A_{ad}$ and $A_{cr}$.

## Interim Summary

Drawing from the previous discussion, gaps have been identified from the literature. Previous scholars have looked at the relationship between ad credibility and guilt arousal as a unified construct (Lwin & Phau, 2015; Renner et al., 2013; Wonneberger, 2017). However, few studies have looked at the effects of ad credibility on individual types of guilt- reactive, anticipatory, and existential (Boudewyns et al., 2013; Chang, 2014; Cotte et al., 2005). Therefore, this study looks at the relationship between ad credibility and anticipatory guilt arousal.

## 2.6   Inferences of Manipulative Intent

Inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) is defined as individuals resisting the source of the message when the message is perceived as inappropriate, unfair or manipulative (Cotte et al., 2005). When consumers feel IMI, they do not feel the intended emotion but will feel anxiety and form negative attitudes toward the ad (Cotte et al., 2005). IMI is found to lower advertising effectiveness which can be measured by brand and ad attitudes as well as purchase intention (Campbell, 1995).
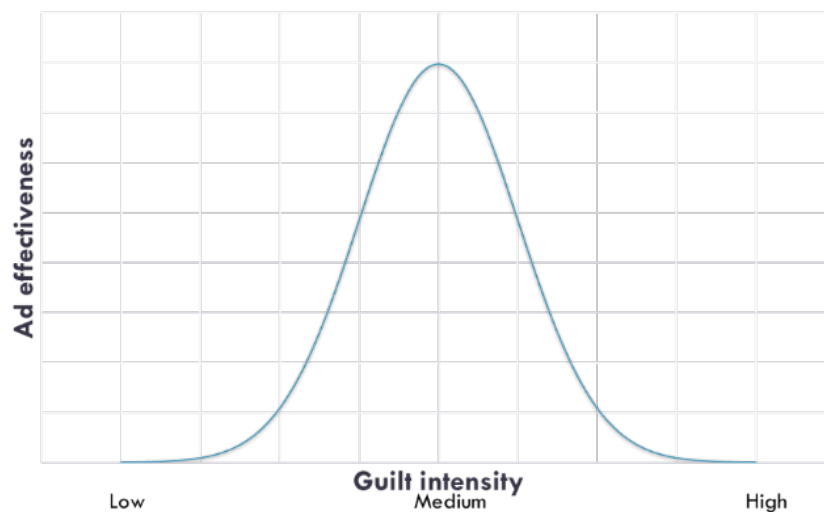
*Figure 2-13: Mid-level Guilt Intensity Most Effective for Ads*

The literature shows guilt intensity can range from low-level to high-level and this has an influence on ad effectiveness (Coulter & Pinto, 1995). Advertisers can use cues to create and control for guilt intensity in the ad (Campbell, 1995). For example, Figure 2-13 illustrates the relationship between guilt intensity and ad effectiveness. According to Coulter and Pinto (1995), increasing guilt intensity past a certain point will yield negative results. High intensity guilt can lead to feelings of anger and irritation and low levels of guilt simply does not evoke the intensity of emotions required. Therefore medium-level guilt intensity is most effective.

This is supported by the Reactance Theory, where messages that are overly intense will be reacted to negatively because of the perceived loss of freedom (Brehm, 1966). This means advertisers should use medium level of intensity to maximise the effectiveness of the ad. However, no studies have currently looked measuring the intensity of guilt.

## Interim Summary

Building from the prior discussion, gaps have been identified from the literature. Similar to ad credibility, many studies have looked at inferences of manipulative intent on guilt arousal as a unified construct (Kim et al., 2016; Wonneberger, 2017). However, few studies have looked at the effects of inferences of manipulative intent on individual types of guilt-reactive, anticipatory, and existential (Boudewyns et al., 2013; Chang, 2014; Cotte et al., 2005; Renner et al., 2013). Therefore, this study looks at the influences of inferences of manipulative intent and anticipatory guilt arousal.

## 2.7    Attitudes towards the Ad

Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) defines an attitude as "a learned predisposition of human beings". Kotler and Gertner (2002) supplemented that definition as an enduring evaluation, emotion, and behaviour toward some object or idea which may be favourable or unfavourable. Attitude towards the ad ($A_{ad}$) may contain emotional reactions; e.g. feelings of happiness, sadness, or guilt created by an ad, and evaluations of an ad's credibility. Ads can also create unfavourable feelings such as manipulation (Aaker et al., 1986; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Campbell & Kirmani, 2000). Furthermore, emotions caused by advertising have been shown to spill over to products and brands (Batra & Ray, 1986; Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989). Therefore, experiences, feelings and evaluations created by ads influence responses to an idea, or opinion, which, in turn, affects attitudes towards products and brands (Tsang, Ho, & Liang, 2004).


While studies have shown that consumer attitudes influence behaviour, other studies have shown that attitudes alone are generally poor predictors of purchase intent (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995). The discrepancy between attitudes and ethical buying behaviour can explained by the lack of availability of ethical products, disbelief of ethical claims, feelings of manipulation, and lack of information (Campbell & Kirmani, 2000; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Pelsmacker et al., 2005).

## Interim Summary

Drawing from the earlier discussion, gaps have been identified from the literature. In the advertising space, attitudes towards the ad and ad credibility measure the response of respondent perceptions of the ad and these perceptions are affected by inferences of

manipulative intent (Cotte et al., 2005; Thomas, Fowler, & Grimm, 2013). Because of this, these studies usually look at all three constructs together in research. These studies have looked at attitudes towards the ad on guilt arousal as a unified construct (Kim et al., 2016; Wonneberger, 2017). However, few studies have looked at the effects of attitudes towards the ad on individual types of guilt - reactive, anticipatory, and existential (Boudewyns et al., 2013; Chang, 2014; Cotte et al., 2005; Renner et al., 2013). Therefore, this study looks at attitudes towards the ad and anticipatory guilt arousal. Tying back to how ad credibility, attitudes towards the ad, and inferences of manipulative intent are commonly used together in research models, this study also explores the mediating effects of ad credibility, attitudes towards the ad, and inferences of manipulative intent on anticipatory guilt arousal.

## 2.8 Willingness to Pay More

Willingness to pay more (WTPM) is defined as "the amount a customer is willing to pay for his/her preferred brand over comparable/lesser brands of the same package size/quantity" (Aaker, 1992) . In addition, WTPM occurs when the value of the product exceeds the consumers' perceived value towards the product (Dean et al., 2012; Keh & Xie, 2009). Economists, psychologists, and marketing researchers rely on measures of consumers' willingness to pay more (WTPM) in estimating demand for private and public goods and in determining optimal price points (Wertenbroch, 2002). Other studies have used WTPM to measure the strength of consumers' emotional attachment (Thomson et al., 2005).

WTPM is used in literature with similar constructs such as willingness to pay a price premium (Netemeyer et al., 2004; Pelsmacker et al., 2005; Rashid, 2009; Strahilevitz, 1999; Thomson et al., 2005) and willingness to pay/purchase/buy (Dragusanu et al., 2014; Galarraga Gallastegui, 2002; Howard & Allen, 2008; Ibanez & Grolleau, 2007; Krystallis & Chryssohoidis, 2005). These constructs measure similar consumer intentions but differ in the scales used. Some papers use a dichotomous scale, a simple 'are you willing to pay more' when compared to another product (Barham & Weber, 2012; Howard & Allen, 2008). Other papers use an incrementing percentage scale, 10%-50% on top of a baseline price (Netemeyer et al., 2004). There are also papers using an open-ended measurement scale, where respondents are asked to decide how much more, or less, they are willing to pay for a product i.e. 'if this product costs X amount of dollars, how much more or less are you willing to pay if they are labelled/certified?' (Pelsmacker et al., 2005).

Studies have shown that consumers are WTPM for a brand that promises contributions to a charity (Strahilevitz, 1999). However, Bird and Hughes (1997) claimed that the WTPM for goods based on ethical credentials is limited to a minority of shoppers. This suggests inconsistencies between attitudes towards ethical consumption and actual behaviour (Pelsmacker et al., 2005).

The inconsistencies may be because people often give socially desirable answers. Ulrich and Sarasin (2012) claimed not to do any research and not to ask the public any question on subjects centred around ethical consumption because the answers are never reliable and often useless, if not misleading. Similarly, King and Bruner (2000) have highlighted that especially in situations where respondents want to make a good impression on the researcher or want to conform to social norms, WTPM measured tends to be more positive than actual behaviour. Respondents are not always able and willing to report their attitudes and convictions accurately, especially in the case of socially sensitive issues such as ethical consumption (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995; Maison, 2002). Existing market research techniques for measuring WTPM differ in whether they provide an incentive to consumers to reveal their true WTPM and in whether they simulate actual point-of-purchase contexts (Wertenbroch, 2002). Furthermore, consumers who have positive attitudes towards ethical consumption and are WTPM may be faced with the lack of self-efficacy in the actual purchase. This may explain products linked to ethical consumption having market shares of less than 1% (MacGillivray, 2000; Yamoah, Fearne, & Duffy, 2014).

Based on a qualitative study amongst ethical consumers in the United Kingdom, Shaw and Clarke (1999) concluded that Fairtrade was the most important issue of ethical concern in consumer behaviour. Fairtrade brands, or Fairtrade labelled products are reasonably available. However, the importance of a Fairtrade label as well as the reasons behind Fairtrade product purchase in measures such as WTPM amongst consumers have not yet been studied (Pelsmacker et al., 2005).

## Interim Summary

Drawing from the relevant literature in the preceding discussion, gaps in the literature have been identified. Consumers have shown to be willing to pay more for charitable goods and services (Sexton & Sexton, 2014; Strahilevitz, 1999). But few studies have looked at how the role of guilt, specifically, anticipatory guilt, can further enhance willingness to pay more for charitable organisations such as Fairtrade (Yamoah et al., 2014). Therefore, this study looks at how anticipatory guilt can enhance willingness to pay more for Fairtrade.

## 2.9 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as the belief that one is able to succeed in a situation or accomplish a task (Bandura, 1977). The level of self-efficacy can determine goals, tasks, and challenges are approached (Sherer et al., 1982). It states that unless desired effects can be produced by one's actions, there is little incentive to persevere and deal with difficulties (Bandura, 2006). In the realm of social science, self-efficacy measures accessibility, confidence of procurement, and likelihood of purchase (Basil et al., 2008; Sherer et al., 1982). Acknowledging the relationship of self-efficacy in the context of Fairtrade is important. Fairtrade certified products come at a price premium because of labelling costs and costs increase the quality of life for farmers in marginalised countries (D'Souza et al., 2007; Low & Davenport, 2005). Furthermore, Mukhopadhyay and Johar (2005) suggests that self-efficacy may have an influence on purchase intention. Therefore, it is possible that consumers may feel the lack of accessibility in Fairtrade certified products as a barrier preventing purchase despite willingness to do so.

## Interim Summary

Building from the relevant literature in the above discussion, gaps in the literature have been identified. Many studies have looked at purchase intentions or constructs to that effect in the purchase of premium goods (Aaker, 1992; Lunardo & Mbengue, 2013; Lwin, 2010). However, Tate et al. (2015) states that the procurement of premium products is usually obstructed by lack of ability in doing so. Therefore, the procurement of Fairtrade certified products, which are seen to have a premium price tag attached (part of the retail price goes into helping farmers in need), is influenced by self-efficacy  (Berger & Corbin, 1992). This study looks at how self-efficacy moderates the relationship between anticipatory guilt arousal and willingness to pay more.

## 2.10 Gaps

Drawing from the gaps highlighted in the earlier discussion, the research gaps in this study are summarised and listed below:

1. Limited empirical studies of guilt in a Fairtrade context (Howard & Allen, 2008; Pelsmacker et al., 2005; Van Trijp, 2013).

2. Limited research looking at how ad credibility influences anticipatory guilt arousal (Cotte et al., 2005; Lwin & Phau, 2015; Renner et al., 2013; Wonneberger, 2017).

3. Few studies looking at how attitudes towards the ad influences anticipatory guilt arousal (Cotte et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 2013).

4. Limited research looking at how inferences of manipulative intent influences anticipatory guilt arousal (Cotte et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2016; Wonneberger, 2017).

5. Few empirical studies of guilt enhancing WTPM for Fairtrade (Yamoah et al., 2014).

6. Limited empirical studies of self-efficacy moderating the relationship between anticipatory guilt arousal willingness to pay more (Berger & Corbin, 1992).

7. Limited studies on attitudes towards the ad and its mediating effects between ad credibility and anticipatory guilt arousal (Cotte et al., 2005; Lwin & Phau, 2008b).

8. Few studies on attitudes towards the ad and its mediating effects between inferences of manipulative intent and anticipatory guilt arousal (Cotte et al., 2005; Coulter et al., 1999; Lwin & Phau, 2008b).

9. Limited studies on inferences of manipulative intent and its mediating effects between ad credibility and anticipatory guilt arousal (Cotte et al., 2005; Coulter et al., 1999).

## 2.11 Research Questions

Drawing from the gaps in the literature, three research questions are proposed.

1. Gaps 1 and 2 have highlighted the current lack of studies using guilt appeals to promote Fairtrade certified products. Previous literature have looked at guilt appeals as a unified construct but recent studies have divided guilt appeals into reactive, existential, and anticipatory (Cotte et al., 2005; Huhmann & Brotherton, 1997; Lwin, 2010). Gaps 3, and 4 highlights the lack of empirical studies at how guilt appeals as a unified construct compare to guilt appeals when separated into three distinct constructs. Filling these research gaps will also open up future studies that will determine the effectiveness of different types of guilt. Gap 5 highlights the lack of studies in consumer willingness to pay more for Fairtrade certified products. Willingness to pay more is an indication of the effectiveness of the guilt arousal (Bozinoff & Ghingold, 1983; Hibbert et al., 2007; Lwin & Phau, 2014). Therefore, based on gaps 1 to 5, research question one explores the consumer responses to anticipatory guilt arousal in the context of Fairtrade.

   RQ1: How does anticipatory guilt arousal affect consumer attitudes and behaviour towards Fairtrade products (Gaps 1 to 5)?

2. Gap 6 highlights the lack of studies on how self-efficacy may cause consumers with the desire to pay more for Fairtrade certified products but do not have the means to do so. These means can range from accessibility or financial difficulties. A number of studies in the past have looked at consumer willingness to pay more but do not control for self-efficacy (Berger & Corbin, 1992; Pelsmacker et al., 2005; Sherer et al., 1982). This practice resulted in skewed empirical results, where consumers are

willing to pay more but lacked the ability to do so. For example, Pearce and Turner (1990) have found despite measured positive attitudes and willingness to pay more for "green" products, respondents' results did not reflect actual behaviour. Therefore, research question two explores how self-efficacy can cause consumers to affect their purchasing decision based on their inherent ability to do so.

RQ2: How does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between consumers' anticipatory guilt arousal and willingness to pay more for Fairtrade certified products (Gap 6)?

3. Gaps 7, 8, and 9 highlight the lack of empirical studies surrounding anticipatory guilt. Previous studies have looked at how attitudes towards the ad and inferences of manipulative intent play mediating roles with ad credibility and guilt arousal as a unified construct but few studies have looked at anticipatory guilt arousal and how these mediating constructs interact (Lwin, 2010). Therefore, research question three will validate constructs such as ad credibility, attitudes towards the ad, and inferences of manipulative with anticipatory guilt arousal and how they compare to previous studies on guilt arousal as a unified construct.

RQ3: What is the mediating role of attitudes towards the ad and inferences of manipulative intent on the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt arousal on Fairtrade certified products (Gaps 7, 8, 9)?

## 2.12 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has highlighted the gaps within the literature of Fairtrade and guilt appeals. In addition, the constructs used in the proposed research model were introduced. The gaps of relevant literature were highlighted through the interim summaries. The research questions were developed drawing from these gaps. The research gaps highlighted provides the premise and rationale behind the justification of this study. In the next chapter, the framework of the study and theoretical underpinnings are presented followed by hypotheses development. The final research model and the justifications for the model will also be presented.

# 3 Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

## 3.1 Overview

In this section, gaps identified in the literature at listed. Hypotheses and research model are proposed to fulfil the research objectives of this study. The underpinning theories and supporting theories are highlighted and elaborated to provide insight and justification for the use of these theories within construction of the model.
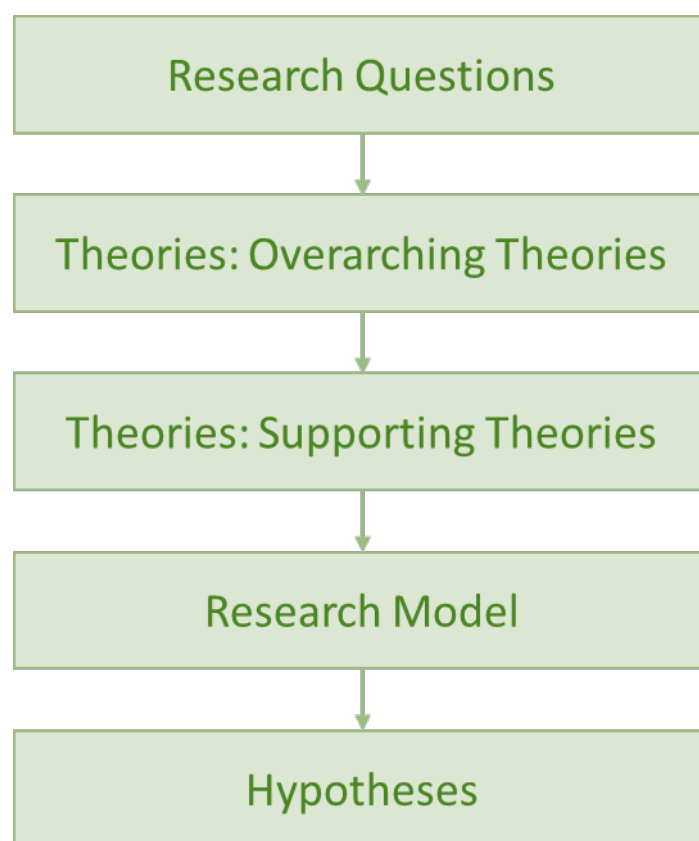
## 3.2   Research Questions

This study aims to use anticipatory guilt appeals to promote certified products. In order to do so, objectives from Chapter 2 with proposed hypotheses are attached in order to answer these research questions:

1. How does anticipatory guilt arousal affect consumer attitudes and behaviour towards Fairtrade products (H1 to H7)?

2. How does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between consumers' anticipatory guilt arousal and willingness to pay more for Fairtrade certified products (H8)?

3. What is the mediating role of attitudes towards the ad and inferences of manipulative intent on the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt arousal on Fairtrade certified products (H9)?

## 3.3 Theories: Overarching Theories

Overarching theories explain phenomena behind relationships and behaviours of actors in the society as well as make sense of the situation (Grin & Van de Graaf, 1996). In the context of this study, overarching theories will help understand questions such as "why do consumers partake in altruistic behaviour?" and "how do consumers process persuasion cues?" These overarching theories are explored and applied to the context of this study.

### 3.3.1 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Festinger (1957)

Cognitive dissonance is a phenomenon used to describe the incompatibility between two cognitions, which can be defined as any element of knowledge, including attitude, emotion, belief, or behaviour (Festinger, 1957). According to Harmon-Jones and Mills (1999), cognitive dissonance theory suggests that a sane person cannot hold two conflicting thoughts in the mind at the same time. These conflicting thoughts cause uncomfortable tension. The theory of cognitive dissonance states that these contradicting thoughts motivate individuals to resolve this dissonance by inventing new thoughts or beliefs, or to modify existing beliefs, to reduce the amount of dissonance between these thoughts.

#### 3.3.1.1   Reducing dissonance

If cognitive dissonance is experienced as an unpleasant state, the individual is motivated to reduce this unpleasantness (Aronson, 1992; Harmon-Jones & Mills, 1999). There are several ways to reduce this unpleasantness:

1. Changing cognitions. If there are discrepancies between two cognitions, one may simply change one to fit the other, or attempt to bring them both towards the middle.

2. Adding cognitions. If discrepancies between two cognitions cause a certain magnitude of dissonance, adding one or more consonant cognitions can reduce that magnitude. This suggests that the mind can weigh one cognition as more important than the other.

3. Altering importance. Since the discrepant and consonant cognitions must be weighted by importance, it may be advantageous to alter the importance of the various cognitions to an even larger degree. When the new, altered importance weightings are placed in the formula, the magnitude of dissonance will be decreased.

In summary, cognitive dissonance is the phenomenon used to describe the incompatibility between two cognitions, which can be defined as any element of knowledge, including attitude, emotion, belief, and behaviour or value system. When cognitions contradict each other, they are dissonant. Individuals are sensitive towards inconsistencies between actions and beliefs. A person who has experiences dissonance experiences the unpleasant sensation of dissonance as a psychological tension referred to as 'stress' (Aronson, 1992; Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959; Harmon-Jones & Mills, 1999). When experiencing dissonance, an individual is motivated to reduce this dissonance.

### 3.3.1.2   Cognitive Dissonance in this Study

Public awareness of the human, ecological, and environmental cost of consumption has increased over the past few decades (Fraj & Martinez, 2007). It has been closely

accompanied by the idea that consumers can improve matters through 'responsible' consumer choices (Adams & Raisborough, 2010). Fairtrade is positioned to reduce the human, ecological, and environmental impacts of consumption. Consumers who have cognitions of ethical consumption will prefer their actions to reflect their thoughts. Once consumers are aware of the plight faced by farmers in marginalised countries, the guilt evoked may cause consumers to undertake one of three aforementioned ways to reduce the unpleasantness. For example, if their actions are not ethical, such as not supporting Fairtrade, dissonance will occur and consumers may seek to reduce this dissonance by supporting Fairtrade.

### 3.3.2   Heuristic-Systematic Model

Chaiken (1980)

The Heuristic-Systematic Model (HSM) is a communication model commonly used to assess persuasive messages. The HSM comprises of two parts, heuristic processing uses judgmental rules known as knowledge structures that are learned and stored in memory (Chen et al., 1999). Systematic processing involves comprehensive and analytic, cognitive processing of judgment-relevant information (Chen et al., 1999).

Heuristic processing involves quick decision-making and may offer an economic advantage by requiring minimal cognitive effort when engaged in purchasing behaviour (Chaiken, 1980; Taillard, 2000). Heuristic processing is categorised into 3: availability, accessibility, and applicability. Availability refers to the knowledge structure, or heuristic, being stored in memory for future use. Accessibility of the heuristic applies to the ability to retrieve the memory for use. Applicability of the heuristic refers to the relevance of the memory for the

task (Chen et al., 1999). Individuals who process information heuristically are more likely to agree with messages delivered by 'experts' without fully processing the content of the message (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993a). In comparison to individuals who process information systematically, heuristic processing relies on the credibility of the source or other non-content cues, which are more persuasive to them than content-based persuasion. Heuristic processing ignores information processing that requires substantial cognitive effort and focuses on simple rules (Chaiken, 1980; Chaiken & Eagly, 1989).

Systematic processing involves the analysis and cognitive processing of relevant information (Chen et al., 1999). Systematic processing values message content, which may exert stronger impact on persuasion, when determining message validity (Chaiken, 1980). Judgments from systematic processing rely heavily on judgment-relevant information and respond accordingly to the content of the message (Chen et al., 1999). Developing attitudes from systematic processing requires more cognitive effort because it actively attempts to comprehend and evaluate the message's arguments. Systematic processing emphasizes on detailed processing of message content. While systematic processing rely heavily on message content, source credibility and other non-content may supplement assessment of validity in the message (Chaiken, 1980).

Figure 3-1: Heuristic Processing Cues



Figure 3-2: Systematic Processing Cues

In the ethical consumption space, labels signifying ethical characteristics of a product generally do not have lengthy processing cues in persuasion messages. While heuristic processing may offer economic advantages because of the minimal cognitive effort required in processing, systematic processing is likely to develop attitudes that are longer lasting (Chaiken, 1980; Chaiken & Eagly, 1989; Taillard, 2000). For example, Figure 3-1 shows a Fairtrade logo with no lengthy processing cues inclined to persuade via heuristic means. Figure 3-2 shows a lengthy processing cue in the promotion of Fairtrade inclined to appeal to systematic cognitive processes. In the context of this study, Fairtrade labels certified

products with the Fairtrade Mark but lack content focussed on systematic processing. Furthermore, no research has looked at measuring the difference in effectiveness between the two processing cues in the realm of ethical consumption and labelling.

## 3.4   Supporting Theories

In this section, the research model will be split into three parts (Figure 3-3). Part one of the model, in red, highlights the ad-related segments of the model. Part two, in green, deals with inferences of manipulative intent on the ad constructs. Finally, part three, in blue, measures the final part of the model, which are the outcomes of the study. Each part of the model will have theories supporting and rationalising their relationships.
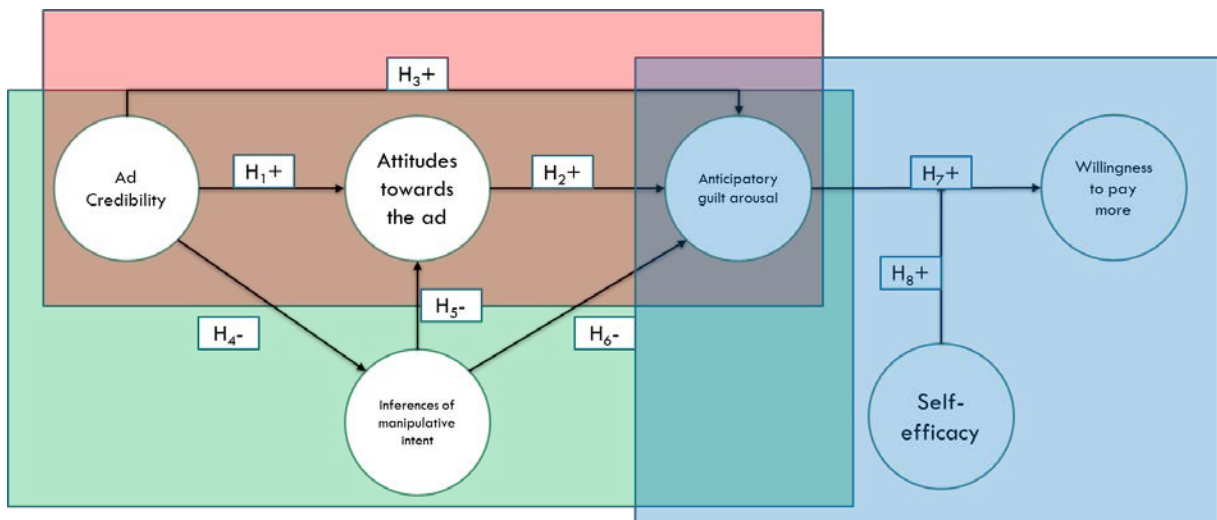


*Figure 3-3: Full Research Model Separated into Three Parts*

## 3.5   Research Model Part One

The first part of the model deals with the advertising elements of the model. The effects of ad credibility and attitudes towards the ad on anticipatory guilt arousal are measured.
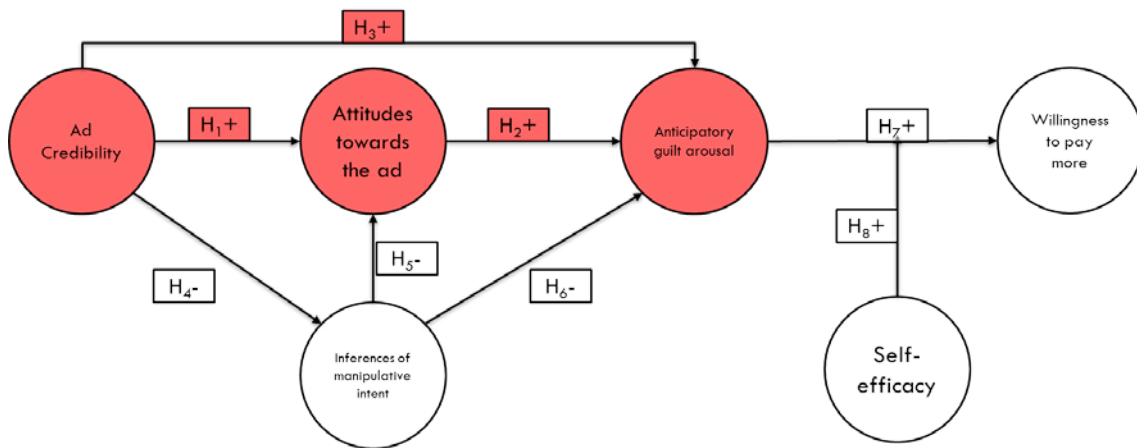


### 3.5.1   Cognitive Response Theory

Greenwald (1968)

The Cognitive Response Theory (CRT) of persuasion locates the most direct cause of persuasion in the intrapersonal communication (self-talk) of the persuasion target, rather than the content of the message (Kenrick et al., 2009). CRT shows how people acquire and change their attitude in response to persuasive communication. Research supporting the model shows that persuasion is powerfully affected by the amount of self-talk that occurs in response to a message (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993b). Based on the literature, $A_{ad}$ is measured by support arguments, counter arguments and source degradation (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993b). Therefore:

$$A_{ad} = \text{support argument} - \text{counter argument} - \text{source degradation}$$

Using this study as an example, $A_{ad}$ of Fairtrade ads is supported by supporting arguments such as 'Fairtrade helps farmers in marginalised countries by providing sustainable growth mechanisms to help these farmers increase their quality of life'. This supporting argument is reduced by a counter argument such as 'my contribution to Fairtrade is minimal and I doubt my contribution will make a difference'. This is then followed by source degradation, such as 'I think Fairtrade is doing good work in this space', or 'I think Fairtrade is not making a large enough impact as I would like'. If $A_{ad}$ is positive after a respondent's self-talk, it is likely they will provide a positive response towards the ad as evidenced by studies such as Barone, Norman, and Miyazaki (2007), Coulter et al. (1999), and Spears and Singh (2004).

Based on CRT, this study proposes H1:

H1: A higher **ad credibility** will lead to more favourable **attitude towards the ad**.
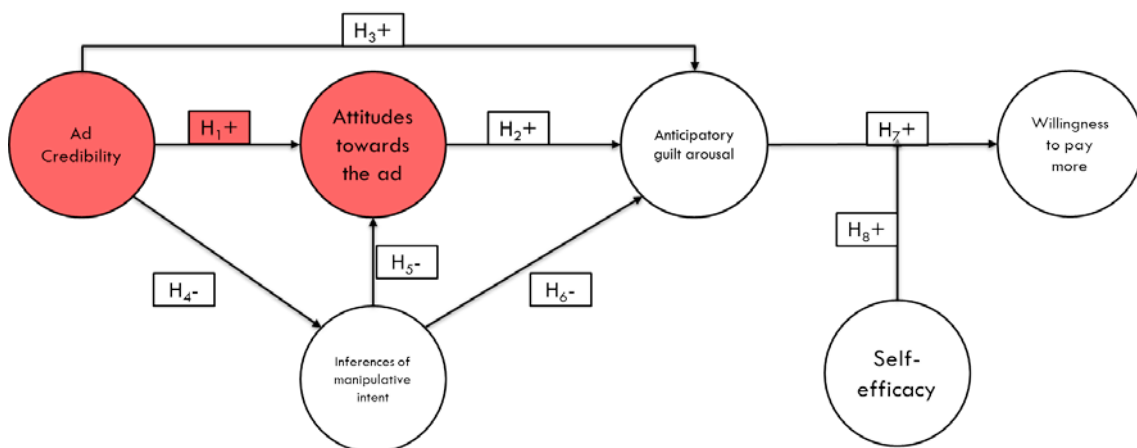


## 3.5.2   Attribution Theory

Heider (1958)

In a persuasion literature, effectiveness of the persuasion attempt is measured by the respondent's acceptance of the content (Greenwald et al., 1968). Attribution theory

evaluates how people perceive the behaviour of themselves and of other people by attributing feelings, beliefs, and intentions to them. For example, a person who is met with success may attribute the success internally and believe the success was caused by his hard work and diligence while the same person may attribute failure externally and blame external forces for his failure. Therefore, attribution theory is concerned with how individuals interpret events, which will then lead to thinking and behaviour (Jones, 1972; Weiner, 1974).

### 3.5.2.1 Attribution Theory in this Study

The theory explains that consumers believe Fairtrade can help farmers in marginalised countries by ensuring farmers are not abused. Therefore, by purchasing a Fairtrade certified product, consumers feel better about themselves. When Fairtrade achieves its goals, supporters of Fairtrade will attribute the success internally, attributing the success to their contribution and support.

Based on AT, this study proposes H2 and H3:

H2: A more favourable **attitude towards the ad** will lead to higher **anticipatory guilt arousal**.
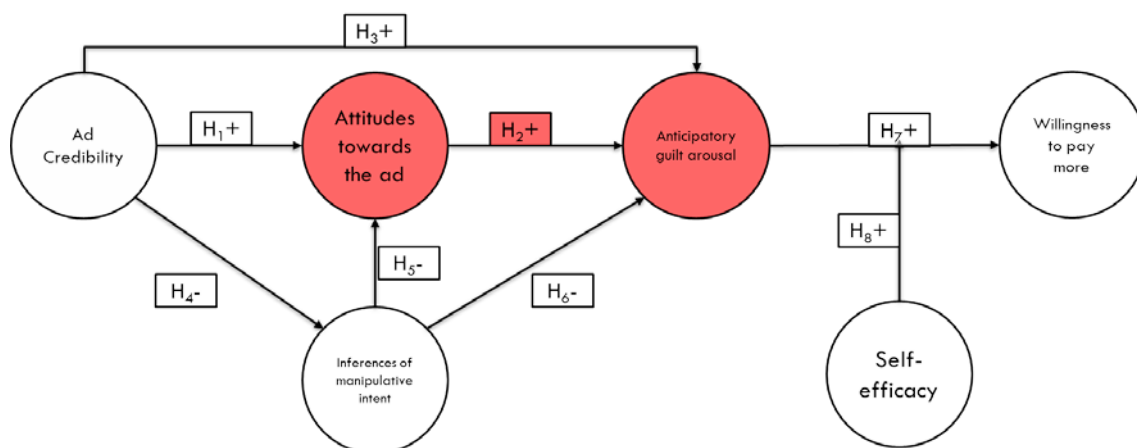
H3: A higher **ad credibility** will lead to higher **anticipatory guilt arousal**.
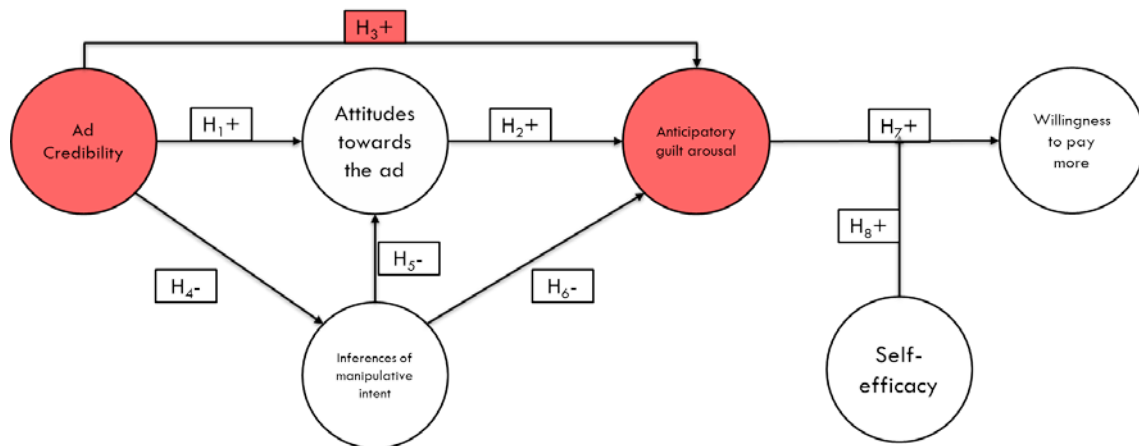
## 3.6 Research Model Part Two

The second part of the model deals with inferences of manipulative intent and its influence on ad credibility, attitudes towards the ad, and anticipatory guilt arousal.
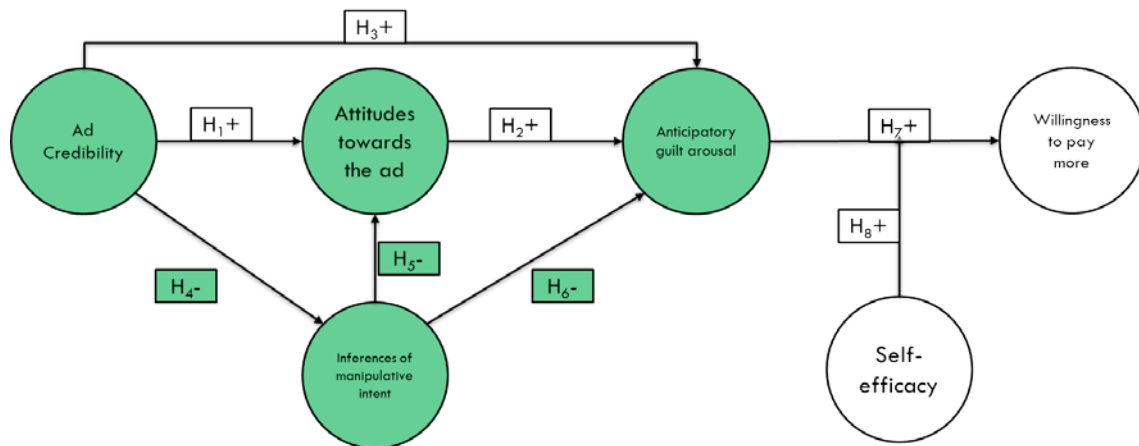


### 3.6.1 Persuasion Knowledge Model

Friestad and Wright (1994)

A person's knowledge of persuasion strategies influences his or her responses to persuasion attempts (Friestad & Wright, 1994). Friestad and Wright (1994) defined persuasion knowledge as the learning that consumers use to "interpret, evaluate and respond to influence attempts from advertisers and salespeople".

The Persuasion Knowledge Model (PKM) states that both consumers and marketing agents have access to three categories of knowledge: knowledge of the topic, knowledge of persuasion, and knowledge of the agent. Consumers use their sets of knowledge to maintain control over the outcome and achieve goals (Friestad & Wright, 1994). Marketing agents, in turn, have knowledge of the topic, knowledge of persuasion and knowledge of the target consumer. The marketing agents rely on their knowledge to develop a persuasion attempt.

Consumers, employing their sets of knowledge, counteract with a persuasion-coping response. When consumers identify a persuasion attempt, their sets of knowledge enable them to allocate their own cognitive resources among the three knowledge structures (persuasion, topic and agent) to process the stimulus efficiently according to their goal priorities.



*Figure 3-4: The Persuasion Knowledge Model*

An essential concern for agents is the adaptive nature of persuasion knowledge. The 'change of meaning principle' potentially occurs when a person begins conceiving of an agent's action as a persuasion tactic (Friestad & Wright, 1994). In other words, once the agent's persuasive intention has been recognised, a persuasive attempt will take on a different meaning for consumers. Consumers will tend to 'disengage' themselves from the context created by the persuasion attempt. (Friestad & Wright, 1994). Although the relationship between marketer and consumer is not always conflicting, consumers may choose to believe and purchase the product advertised, but it is suspected that the most

frequent coping response may be to disbelieve messages recognised as ads (Campbell, 1995; Campbell & Kirmani, 2000). Figure 3-4 illustrates this phenomenon.

### 3.6.1.1 *Persuasion Knowledge Model in this Study*

The current ethical marketing space is cluttered with merchants with exaggerated claims looking to cash in on consumers who are willing to pay more for these products (Saha & Darnton, 2005; Tucker et al., 2012; van Amstel et al., 2008). Because of this overexposure to questionable marketing schemes, the consumers have built strong knowledge of persuasive techniques to build a defensive mechanism to block out any inappropriate persuasive tactics. (Tucker et al., 2012; van Amstel et al., 2008). Therefore, consumers' perceptions of the credibility of these claims will impact their likelihood to perceive the deceptive or manipulative nature of the ad.

## 3.6.2 Reactance Theory

Brehm (1966)



*Figure 3-5: Restricting Freedoms May Lead to Undesirable Results*

Reactance theory (RT) is a way in which a person thinks or behaves when perceiving a threat to his or her freedom (Brehm, 1966). Reactance occurs as a result of a person's drive to protect their perceived personal freedom. When consumers are forced to take an option that they otherwise felt they have control over deciding themselves, they feel resentful and

act against the 'forced' option, even if the option forced on the consumer is one he or she would have likely selected (Brehm, 1966; Wortman & Brehm, 1975). For example, in Figure 3-5 a sign that clearly states not to throw stones at the sign is pelted with stones. Therefore, it is important to not restrict freedom of choice when in a persuasion attempt. However, because of the increase in advertising, more exaggeration and deception is beginning to take place. Hence, consumers seek to regain their lost freedom by going against what is suggested (Brehm, 1966; Koslow, 2000; Wortman & Brehm, 1975).

### 3.6.2.1   Reactance Theory in this Study



*Figure 3-6: Likely Consumer Backlash if Fairtrade was Forced*

Having freedoms taken away will generally result in negative emotions and responses. In the context of Fairtrade, if supporting Fairtrade was made compulsory (see Figure 3-6), it is likely Fairtrade will suffer consumer backlash. While the act of giving creates emotion of pleasure, having forced to give is akin to having something taken away, which is generally not a pleasurable experience.

Based on PKM and RT, this study proposes H4, H5 and H6:

H4: A lower **ad credibility** will lead to higher **inferences of manipulative intent**.
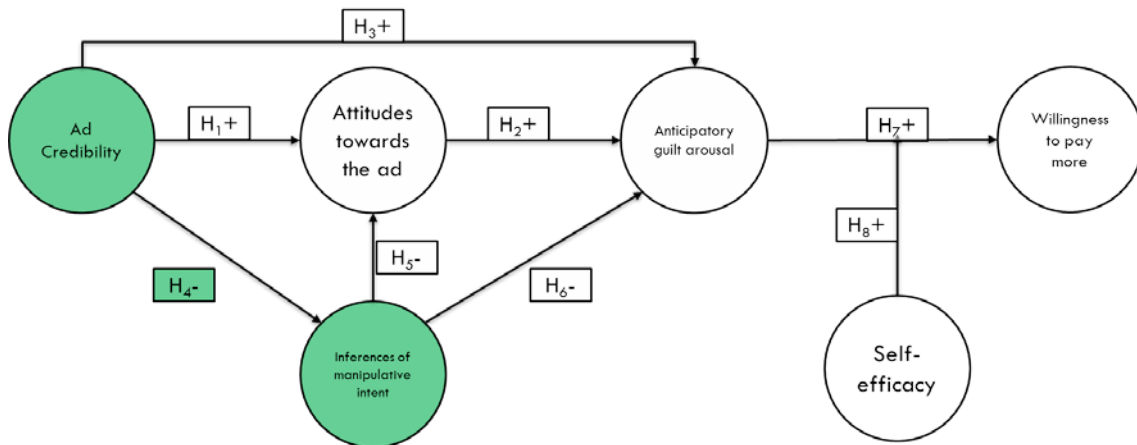
H5: A lower **inferences of manipulative intent** will lead to more favourable **attitude towards the ad**.
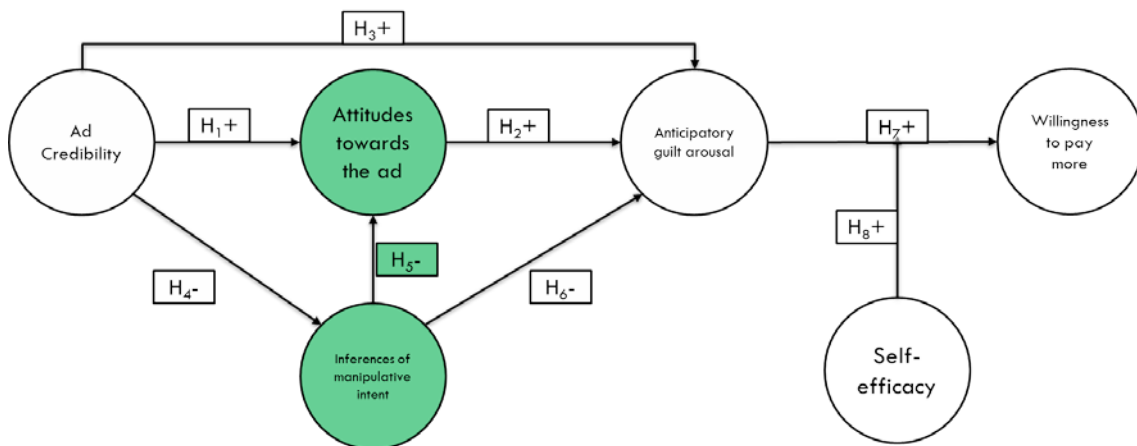


H6: A lower **inferences of manipulative intent** will lead to higher **anticipatory guilt arousal**.
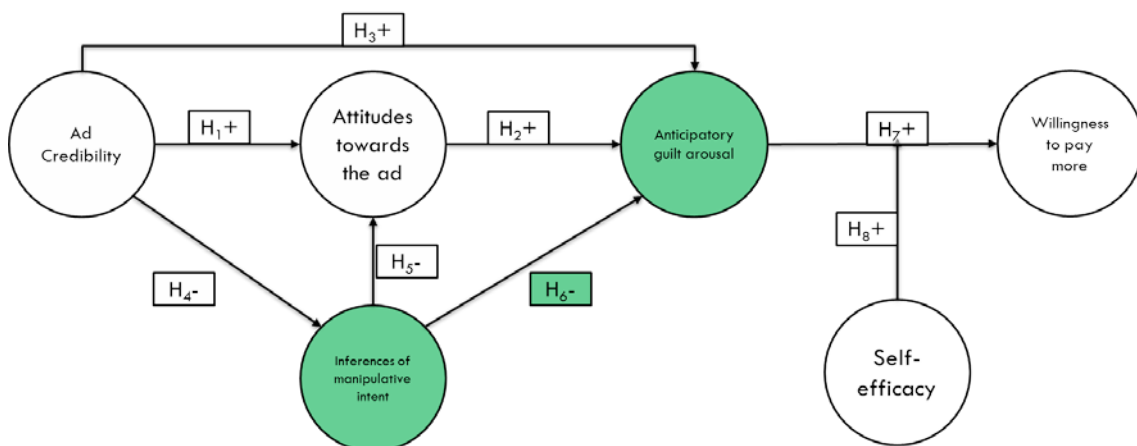
## 3.7 Research Model Part Three

The final part of the model deals with measurable outcomes of prior antecedents - ad credibility, attitudes towards the ad, and inferences of manipulative intent. The outcome variables are measured using anticipatory guilt arousal and willingness to pay more. The relationship between anticipatory guilt arousal and willingness to pay more is moderated by self-efficacy.
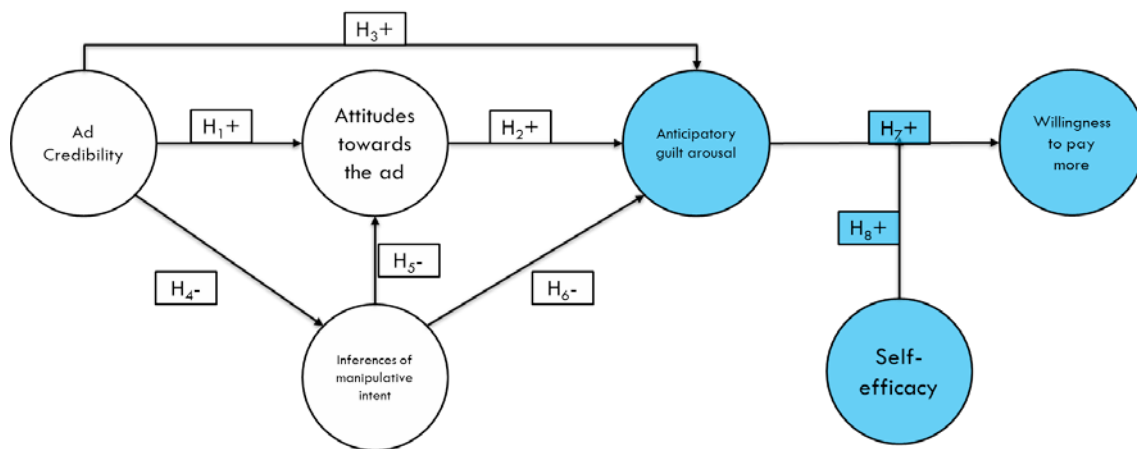


### 3.7.1 Negative State Relief Model

Cialdini et al. (1981)

The Negative State Relief (NSR) model attempts to describe how one's situational factor relates to the willingness to help others. The theory also states that humans have an innate drive to reduce negative moods. The NSR model simply states that when an individual is placed in a negative state, the individual will be motivated to leave that state. Similarly, once an individual is in a positive state, the individual strives to remain in that state.

#### 3.7.1.1 Negative State Relief Model in this Study

In the context of Fairtrade, not supporting farmers in marginalised countries may cause certain respondents to feel guilt, which is a negative state (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Batson et al.,

1989; Tangney et al., 1996). As such, respondents are motivated to leave that negative state, perhaps by purchasing Fairtrade certified products. Furthermore, guilt is documented to be an action-oriented emotion, leading to purchase behaviour (Huhmann & Brotherton, 1997; Lwin & Phau, 2014). Although studies have recorded guilt appeals influencing purchase intention, no studies have looked at how guilt appeals can affect WTPM.

Based on NSR model, this study proposes H7:

H7: A higher **anticipatory guilt arousal** will lead to higher **willingness to pay more**.
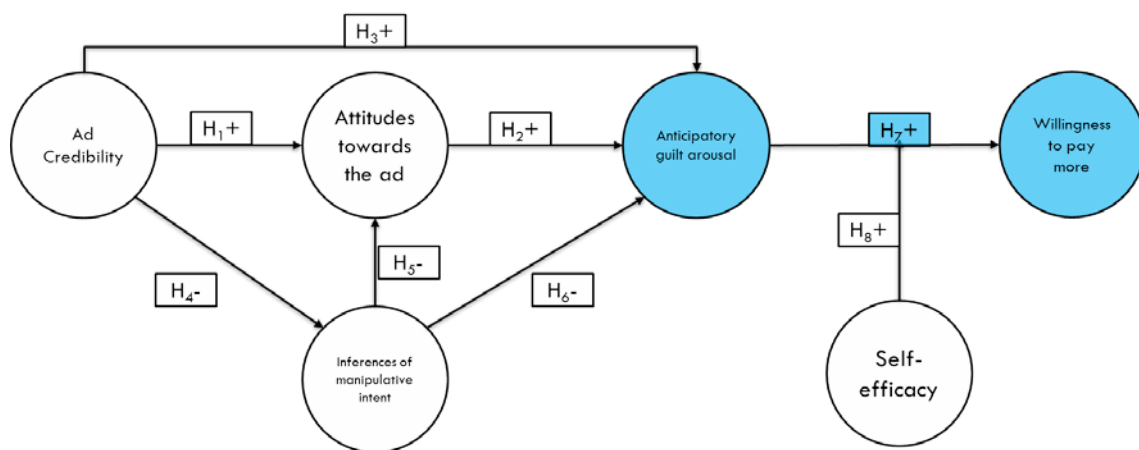
## 3.8    Research Model

Based on the abovementioned theories, this study reiterates the research model as depicted in Figure 3-7:
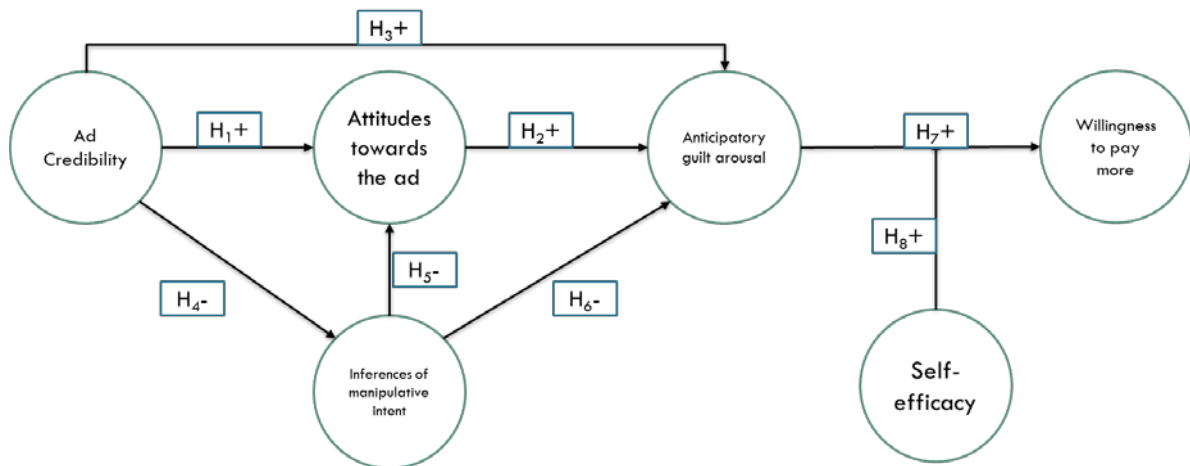


*Figure 3-7: Full Research Model*

Drawing from the preceding discussion, a summary of the seven primary hypotheses are listed in Table 3-1 and the supporting mediating and moderating hypotheses in Table 3-2:

*Table 3-1: Primary Hypotheses*

H1: A higher ad credibility will lead to more favourable attitude towards the ad.

H2: A more favourable attitude towards the ad will lead to higher anticipatory guilt arousal.

H3: A higher ad credibility will lead to higher anticipatory guilt arousal.

H4: A lower ad credibility will lead to higher inferences of manipulative intent.

H5: A lower inferences of manipulative intent will lead to more favourable attitude towards the ad.

H6: A lower inferences of manipulative intent will lead to higher anticipatory guilt arousal.

H7: A higher anticipatory guilt arousal will lead to higher willingness to pay more.

*Table 3-2: Moderating and Mediating Hypotheses*

H8: Self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between anticipatory guilt arousal and willingness to pay more.

H9a: Attitudes towards the ad will mediate the relationship between ad credibility and anticipatory guilt arousal.

H9b: Attitudes towards the ad will mediate the relationship between inferences of manipulative intent and anticipatory guilt arousal.

H9c: Inferences of manipulative intent will mediate the relationship between ad credibility and attitudes towards the ad.

H9d: Inferences of manipulative intent will mediate the relationship between ad credibility and anticipatory guilt arousal.

## 3.9   Chapter Conclusion

In this chapter, a model and hypotheses addressing the research questions of the study were presented. A theoretically driven research model was also constructed. The underpinning theories and supporting theories of the research model were then introduced and elaborated. Hypotheses were then built from these theories and finally the research model was justified and presented. In the next chapter, the method of conducting this study will be presented starting with the research design followed by scales, the visual stimuli, mode of data collection, and finally ethical considerations.

# 4   Chapter 4: Methodology

## 4.1   Overview

This chapter examines the methodology used in this study. First, the research design is explained followed by a breakdown of the scales and measurements used in the survey. The stimuli used were detailed as well as the points of difference, pre-test studies, sampling frame, mode of data collection and finally ethical considerations.

```
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│      Research Design         │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│       Survey Design          │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│   Scales and Measurements    │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│      Survey Instrument       │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│        Visual Stimuli        │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│     Points of Difference     │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│       Pre-test Study         │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│           Sample             │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│    Mode of Data Collection   │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ↓
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│    Ethical Considerations    │
└─────────────────────────────┘
```
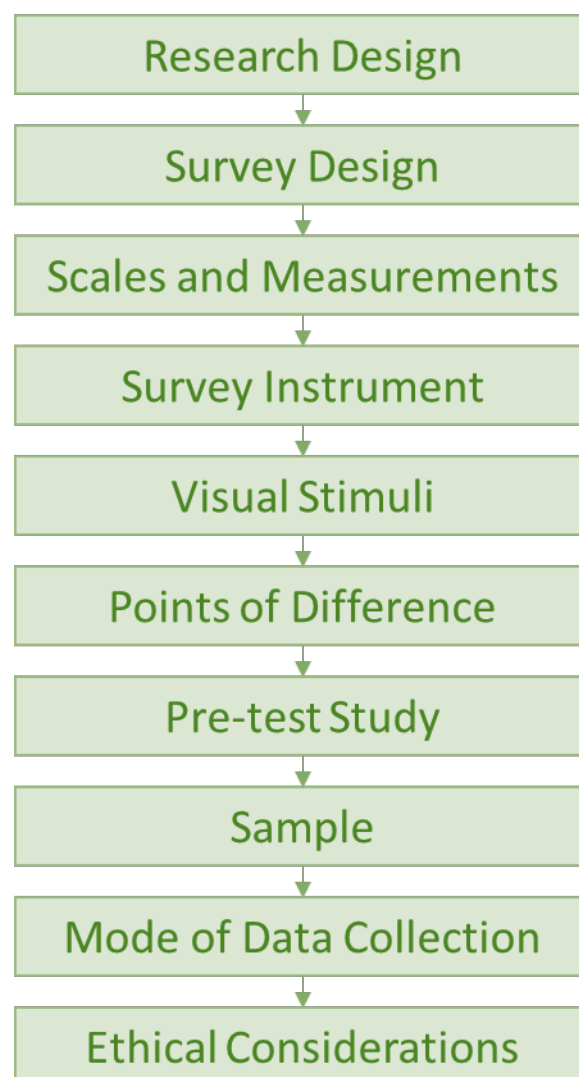
## 4.2   Research Design

There is no one best research philosophy in business and management research (Tsoukas & Knudsen, 2005), rather, a different perspective of organisational realities (Morgan, Gregory, & Roach, 1997). However, some researchers have determined realism as the apparent victor in the realm of social science (Easton, 2002; Halbert, 1965; Taylor, 1965). Easton (2002) states that a positivist paradigm in past research has demonstrated an effective means of understanding social sciences. Furthermore, the positivist paradigm is commonly used in the areas of social science research (Alasuutari, Bickman, & Brannen, 2008).

The positivist paradigm is derived from the ontological assumption about the nature of reality, stating that the truth can be ultimately obtained when there is enough research (Campbell, 1988; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016). Some studies have supported this paradigm from an axiological point of view, saying it allows the researcher to keep their research free of personal values by employing empirical methods (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006; Saunders et al., 2016). However, some scholars argue that it is not possible for researchers to be totally void of personal bias (Patton, 2002; Saunders et al., 2016). Some studies argue the nature of data collection in a positivist paradigm allows future studies to be easily expanded (Beverland & Lindgreen, 2010; Saunders et al., 2016). The research objective of this study is to look at the relationship between anticipatory guilt appeals and consumers' willingness to pay more for certified products. A quantitative approach will allow for extension in future studies looking at other guilt appeals, namely reactive and existential guilt appeals. In view of the objectives and potential future directions, this study has adopted a positivist paradigm.

| | | Statement | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Yes | No |
| Logo | Yes | Logo + Statement | Logo |
| | No | Statement | Control |

*Figure 4-1: 2 ("Logo" + "No Logo") X 2 ("Statement" + "No Statement") Factorial Design*



*Figure 4-2: Bahen & Co Chocolate Varieties*

The research design will adopt a quantitative approach and is in line with the positivist research paradigm. A 2 ("logo" + "no logo") x 2 ("statement" + "no statement") factorial design comprised of four cells is adopted (see Table 4-1). This study will collaborate with an industry partner, Bahen & Co (see Figure 4-2). Bahen & Co. is a boutique chocolatier focussed on using vintage equipment and traditional chocolate manufacturing process to produce artisan chocolates from bean to bar. Bahen & Co. is looking to measure the effectiveness of Fairtrade logos and statements on consumer perception using various advertising appeals. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) have shown that non-durable products, such as chocolate, are more susceptible to guilt appeals. Tying back to the literature, industry statistics published by Fairtrade International (2016) shows chocolate consisting of 55% of all Fairtrade certified products in the Australian market, followed by coffee at 34%.

## 4.3   Survey Design

The survey comprises of four sections with five established scales and one relatively new scale. Section A consisted of manipulation checks Brand Familiarity (Machleit, Allen, & Madden, 1993) and Attitudes towards the Brand (Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989; Muehling, Sprott, & Sprott, 2004; Pascal, Sprott, & Muehling, 2002). Oppenheimer, Meyvis, and Davidenko (2009) states that having manipulation checks in survey design decreases noise and increases the validity of collected data as well as increase statistical power and reliability of a dataset.

Section B is a filler task consisting of a video ad with humour appeals and a modified Standard Emotional Profile (SEP) (Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Lwin, 2010). Filler tasks prevent respondents from discovering the purpose of the study which may skew their responses (Butler & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1994). Respondents were also presented a two-minute video ad with audio and visual cues, designed to stimulate guilt. Because guilt is an enduring emotion (Kugler & Jones, 1992; Lwin & Phau, 2014), the stimuli must be lengthier than normal ad stimuli in which case print advertisements may not involve the same sentiment or the same feel or affect (Lwin & Phau, 2014). A combination of audio and visual cues is also required to induce guilt (Kugler & Jones, 1992). Corresponding to the factorial design, four stimuli were created. Each respondent was exposed to only one ad stimulus to avoid the likelihood of revelation and confusion.

In Section C, respondents then recorded their reactions on the stimulus they were presented. The measures include $A_{cr}$ from Mackenzie and Lutz (1989), $A_{ad}$ scale (Mackenzie

& Lutz, 1989), IMI scale (Campbell, 1995), AGA (Bozinoff & Ghingold, 1983; Lwin, 2010), SE (Basil et al., 2008; Sherer et al., 1982), and WTPM (Netemeyer et al., 2004).

Finally, Section D captures demographic information. This includes age, gender, education level and income. These items were collected in ranges to prevent responses from being individually identified. The survey instrument and scales items are listed in the following section. A copy of the survey can be found in the Appendix.

## 4.4 Scales and Measurements

Five previously established scales were used for this study with only anticipatory guilt arousal as a relative new scale. Table 4-1 presents the sources of the scales, number of items in each scale and their reliability coefficients.

*Table 4-1: Scales, Items, Cronbach's Alphas, and Source of Constructs Used in this Study*

| Scale | Items | Cronbach's alpha (α) | Source |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ad credibility | 3 | 0.935 | Mackenzie & Lutz (1989), Pascal et al. (2002) |
| Inferences of manipulative intent | 6 | 0.83 | Campbell (1995) |
| Attitudes towards the ad | 4 | 0.87 - 0.93 | Lutz (1985), Olney et al. (1991) |
| Anticipatory guilt arousal | 7 | 0.932 | Bozinoff & Ghingold (1983), Lwin (2008) |
| Self-efficacy | 4 | 0.86 - 0.88 | Bandura (2006), Sherer (1982), Basil et al. (2008) |
| Willingness to pay more | 3 | 0.75 | Netemeyer et al. (2004) |

*All scales rated on a 7-point Likert scale

## 4.5   Survey Instrument

### 4.5.1   Scale: Ad Credibility ($A_{cr}$)

Respondents were asked to state the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with three statements measuring the credibility of the visual stimuli on a one-factor seven-point Likert scale where "1" represented "Strongly Disagree" and "7" "Strongly Agree". The items were adapted from Mackenzie and Lutz (1989). This scale is commonly used in the realm of social sciences and advertising.

### 4.5.2   Scale: Attitudes towards the ad ($A_{ad}$)

Respondents were asked to state the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with four statements regarding the levels of their likability of visual stimuli on a one-factor seven-point Likert scale where "1" represented "Strongly Disagree" and "7" "Strongly Agree". The items were adapted from Mackenzie and Lutz (1989). This scale is commonly used in advertising to determine favourable or unfavourable attitudes respondents may have towards an ad. One out of the four questions in this scale is reverse-coded.

### 4.5.3   Scale: IMI

Campbell (1995) devised a six-item IMI scale containing attribution statements with responses ranging from "1" "Strongly Disagree" to "7" "Strongly Agree" on a seven-point Likert scale. This scale was confirmed to be unidimensional using factor analysis (Campbell, 1995). This study adopts Campbell (1995) scale. The original scale has three reverse-coded questions but in this study, two of the reverse coded questions were recoded to a positive valance to prevent confusion that it may cause to time-strapped respondents (De Vaus, 2013; Weems & Onwuegbuzie, 2001). However, for analysis, the IMI scale is reverted to negative valance for easier comparison.

### 4.5.4   Scale:  Anticipatory Guilt Arousal

Bozinoff and Ghingold (1983) created a measure for Guilt Arousal but subsequently Lwin (2010) devised a scale for Anticipatory Guilt Arousal as a separate construct. This study adopts the scale from Lwin (2010). Respondents were asked to state the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with seven statements measuring AGA after the stimulus on a one-factor seven-point Likert scale where "1" represented "Strongly Disagree" and "7" "Strongly Agree".

### 4.5.5   Scale: Willingness to Pay More

This study adopts the scale from Netemeyer et al. (2004). Other variations that measure WTPM are used in the literature but they are not on a seven-point Likert scale. Respondents were asked to state the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with four statements measuring the WTPM for Fairtrade certified products on a one-factor seven-point Likert scale where "1" represented "Strongly Disagree" and "7" "Strongly Agree".

### 4.5.6   Scale: Self-efficacy

Bandura (1977) developed the scale for Self-efficacy. The scale in this study is adopted from Sherer et al. (1982) and Basil et al. (2008) to better reflect a social science context. Respondents were asked to state the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with four statements measuring the self-efficacy supporting Fairtrade certified products on a one-factor seven-point Likert scale where "1" represented "Strongly Disagree" and "7" "Strongly Agree".

## 4.6   Demographics

Section D gathers demographic information from the respondents: gender, age group, annual income level per annum in AUD as well as level of education. Demographic questions were designed to be in the last section because respondents that are already engaged in the survey tend to be more inclined to provide their personal details (De Vaus, 2013).

## 4.7   Visual Stimuli

Visual stimuli were created to induce anticipatory guilt. Four variations of the visual stimuli correspond to the four cells of the factorial design: [Statement], [Statement + Logo], [Logo], and [Control]. Hence, four different sets of surveys with varying stimuli were developed and distributed for data collection. Chocolate companies have different product ranges and packaging designs. For the sake of neutrality, a gender-neutral, monotonous package design is selected. All four visual stimuli can be found in Appendix.

## 4.8   Points of Difference

Figure 4-3 illustrates the differences between the four stimuli. The video with audio cues will run for roughly 1 minute 30 seconds before a 'call to action' page is presented. The rest of the stimulus will be similar across four of the stimuli while the differences between the 'call to action' pages will be as follows: The [Statement + Logo] stimuli will look as per Figure 4-3. [Statement] stimuli will be without the logos which are highlighted in red while the [Logo] stimuli will be without the statements which are highlighted in yellow. [Control] will neither have Fairtrade logos nor statements in the stimulus.



*Figure 4-3: Points of Difference*

## 4.9   Pre-Test Study

Burns and Bush (2004) recommend a pre-test study because it is extremely valuable to gain a perspective regarding the flow of the survey and to revise scale items prior to distribution. Therefore, two rounds of pre-test studies were conducted using convenience sampling. Convenience sampling provides a relatively homogeneous sample in terms of life stage and age and is representative of general consumers (Yavas, 1994). This sampling method was used for the pre-test study because it allowed information to be gathered quickly and efficiently. The pre-test study was used to ensure scale items were clear and easy to understand by the public and to delineate issues encountered by respondents (Zikmund, 2000). The first batch of pre-test consisted of 20 academics; a mix of Ph.D. students and senior University staff. The goal of the first pre-test was to allow experienced survey designers to suggest finer changes within the survey. The second pre-test consisted of 50 students in a University. The goal of the second pre-test was to determine the quality of the survey from a more general, less academic-savvy demographic which reflects closely to the demographics of the final collection. Some amendments were made to the survey based on the information and comments from the pre-test studies. Minor structural changes (to improve flow of survey) as well as typos where made to the survey before final distribution. Furthermore, previous studies have highlighted the benefits of pretesting to ensure any potential errors in the questionnaire are discovered (Hunt, Sparkman Jr, & Wilcox, 1982; Reynolds & Diamantopoulos, 1998; Saunders et al., 2016). In light of these benefits, this study aims to adopt pretesting and industry collaboration for data collection.

## 4.10 Sample

The sample consisted of female and male respondents aged between 21 and 65. The population under study are Australian consumers across all cultures. The total sample size was aimed at approximately 800 respondents, with each cell comprising of roughly 200 respondents. In non-probability sampling, with the exception of quota samples, determining sample size has no clearly-defined rules (Saunders et al., 2016; Uprichard, 2013). However, for modelling, 200 respondents for each cell is deemed sufficient by Wolf, Harrington, Clark, and Miller (2013) and Kenny (2014). Patton (2002) also states that in non-probability sampling, the sample size is based on research objectives and the availability of resources. Another factor in determining sample size is the homogeneity of the sample (Saunders et al., 2016). Because of the lack of clearly-defined rules when determining sample size, this study will adopt sample sizes from previous studies that are similar. In Lwin and Phau (2008c), the study had a similar objective and resource availability as well as the homogeneity of the cases. Furthermore, although not explicitly stated, the paper used a similar research paradigm determined by the research methods used. As such, this study will adopt the sample size from the paper and the recommendations of Wolf et al. (2013) and Kenny (2014).

The data will be collected using surveys created with items based on scales adopted by previous studies. The surveys will be conducted on Qualtrics, a consumer panel based in Australia.

## 4.11 Mode of Data Collection

To ensure a thorough representation of the population, the survey instrument was administered via a consumer panel. A consumer panel is a company that provides the service of administrating surveys and questionnaires to respondents who fit the demographic stipulation of the client. Data was collected over two weeks in four separate batches. In the first week, data collection is screened for any blatant oversight. An average of 200 responses were collected in each batch, totalling 800 responses, with a mean of 200 for each cell. As this study is industry-driven, collaboration with industry partners can allow a mutually beneficial relationship to foster (Alrubaiee & Al-Nazer, 2010; Lee, 2000). Industry partners may provide a critical understanding of market forces while academics can provide university research and discoveries (Hunt et al., 1982; Lee, 2000). Because of these benefits, this study aims to secure an industry partner to ensure that questions in the questionnaire are reliable, valid, and relevant.

## 4.12 Ethical Considerations

Throughout this research due care was taken to address all ethical issues associated with the collection of information based on attitudes and perceptions. Before the commencement of data collection, ethical approval was sought from the ethics committee of the Curtin Business School, Curtin University of Technology. The survey instruments were presented to the ethics committee and gained approval. The study was classified as minimal risk and it addressed all ethical requirements. The ethics form can be found in Appendix. Each survey instrument is accompanied by a cover letter that describes the purpose of the survey and is advised that all measures would be taken to enforce a high standard of ethical behaviour. The cover letter also emphasised the voluntary nature of the study and addressed the issues of confidentiality and privacy. Respondents' confidentiality is respected through an anonymous online response link to the survey. After the completion of data collection, the researcher remained contactable should the respondents feel the need for additional information or wanted to offer constructive criticism about the survey design. A copy of the cover letter and the surveys are attached in Appendix.

## 4.13 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has examined the methodology used in this study. First, the research design was explained followed by a breakdown of the scales and measurements used in the survey. The stimuli used were detailed as well as the points of difference, pre-test studies, sampling frame, mode of data collection and finally ethical considerations. In the next chapter, the data collected will be analysed through four separate conditions. The hypotheses are individually tested. Finally, these results are discussed, highlighting the meaning behind the numbers.

# 5 Chapter 5 - Data analysis, Results and Discussion

## 5.1 Overview

This chapter presents the data analysis, results of the analysis and discussion of the findings. The first part of this chapter is dedicated to examining the robustness of the data. There are four sets of data as presented by the 2 ("logo" + "no logo") x 2 ("statement" + "no statement") factorial design. Each data set will be analysed and be recorded respectively. An overall profile of the sample is also presented. This will be individually ensued by a composite descriptive analyses and factor analyses plus reliability analyses for all eight sets. Next, the data analysis, including correlations, mediation and moderation analyses is presented. This is followed by the results and discussion of the findings in conjunction with the hypotheses. All data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences™ (SPSS) version 24 and AMOS version 24.

Sample Profile

↓

Data Analysis

↓

Hypothesis Testing

↓

Discussion
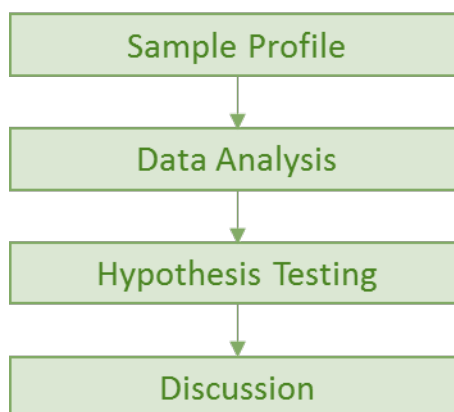
## 5.2 Sample Profile

### 5.2.1 Sample Size

951 total responses were collected from the consumer panel. However, 234 of the responses failed to pass screening tests and were rejected. There were three screening procedures:

1. Responses that have failed to pass manipulation checks: Respondents are often not diligent in reading survey questions as researchers would like. This increases noise and decreases the validity of collected data (Oppenheimer et al., 2009). Manipulation checks such as reverse-coded questions are used throughout the survey to increase statistical power and reliability of the dataset.

2. Responses showcasing a lack of commitment in answering questions: Some respondents show lack of interest or are simply not engaged when conducting a survey. Tell-tale signs such as straight lining are signs of disinterest (Cole, McCormick, & Gonyea, 2012). These responses are filtered out of the dataset.

3. Reponses that were not within a reasonable timeframe: The video stimulus and filler tasks takes roughly 2.5 minutes to run. The questions will require roughly 4 minutes speed read. Any response below 6 minutes will likely not reflect a quality response. Furthermore, this study is on guilt appeals, the emotion evoked by the stimulus in this study would have dissipated after such a long period of time, reducing the validity of the constructs in the study (Kugler & Jones, 1992; Tangney et al., 1996). Therefore, responses not between 6 minutes and 2 hours were removed.

The highlighted survey screening strategies are common when utilising a consumer panel as respondents have varying levels of commitment and understanding of the survey. Out of the

951 responses, 717 responses were used for analysis. Of the 717 responses, there were 210

responses for the [Statement] condition, 185 for [Logo], 168 for [Statement + Logo], and 154

for [Control] (see Table 5-1).



*Figure 5-1: Condition Breakdown*

## 5.3   Demographics
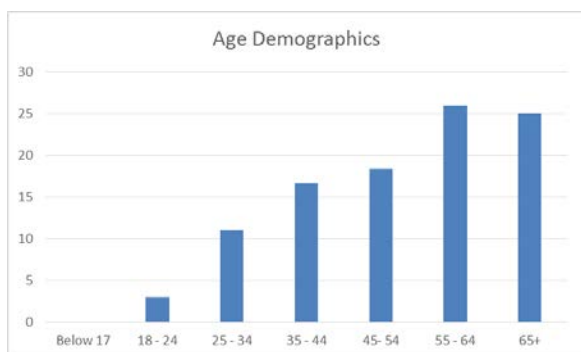


Figure 5-4: Age Demographics
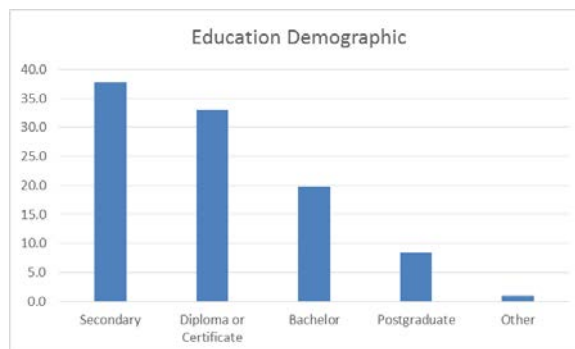


Figure 5-5: Education Demographics
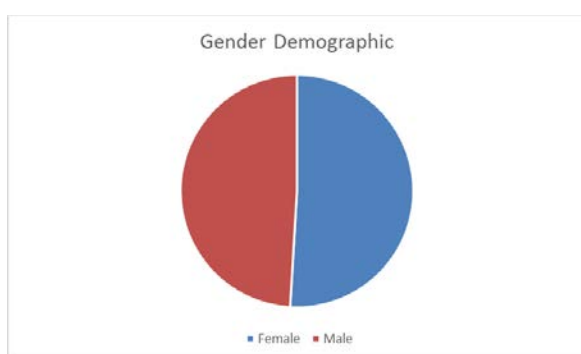


Figure 5-3: Gender Demographic
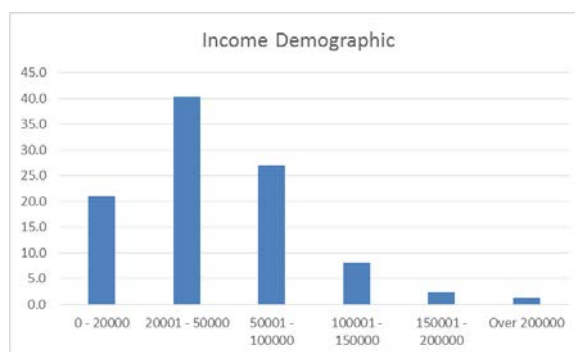


Figure 5-2: Income Demographic

The sample had an even mix of both genders; 49.1% male respondents and 50.9% female respondents. More than 50% of the respondents in the survey at above 55. Income of respondents fall in the lower-middle income group, with 40.3% of the respondents earning AUD20, 001 – AUD50, 000 per annum. In terms of education, 37.9% of the respondents have Secondary education and 33.1% have a Diploma or Certificate, totalling a 71%. This indicates that the majority of the respondents have lower levels of education. Table 5-2, 5-3, 5-4, 5-5 shows demographic frequencies.

## 5.4   Data Analysis

In this section, the dataset for each condition will be analysed for:

1.  Skewness and Kurtosis

2.  Sampling adequacy

3.  Reliability

4.  Confirmatory factor analysis

5.  Composite reliability

6.  Convergent validity

7.  Discriminant validity

8.  Model fit

The results will be separated based on the conditions of the stimulus.

### 5.4.1   [Statement] Condition

#### 5.4.1.1   [Statement] Condition: Skewness and Kurtosis

Skewness and Kurtosis are used to test for normality of data. According to Shapiro and Wilk

(1965), Skewness and Kurtosis measures above the absolute value of 3, i.e. 3 and -3,

indicates abnormally distributed data. It is important to ensure the data set is distributed

normally because many statistical procedures are derived based on distributional

assumptions such as normality (Mardia, 1970; Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). The dataset after

screening procedures have shown normal levels of Skewness and Kurtosis as illustrated in

Table 5-1.

| Statement | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | AdCred_1 | AdCred_2 | AdCred_3 | AAD_1 | AAD_2 | AAD_3 | AAD_4a |
| N | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 |
| Skewness | -0.68 | -0.58 | -0.60 | -0.61 | -0.62 | -0.57 | -1.27 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 |
| Kurtosis | -0.20 | -0.36 | -0.35 | 0.00 | 0.07 | -0.06 | 0.74 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 |
| | IMI_1 | IMI_2a | IMI_3 | IMI_4 | IMI_5 | IMI_6 | |
| N | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | |
| Skewness | -0.03 | 0.24 | -0.38 | -0.20 | -0.12 | -0.12 | |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | |
| Kurtosis | -1.19 | -1.22 | -0.90 | -0.95 | -1.15 | -1.17 | |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | |
| | AGA_1 | AGA_2 | AGA_3 | AGA_4 | AGA_5 | AGA_6 | AGA_7 |
| N | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Skewness | -0.02 | -0.04 | -0.22 | -0.03 | 0.00 | 0.16 | 0.02 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 |
| Kurtosis | -0.71 | -0.93 | -0.79 | -0.84 | -0.90 | -0.81 | -0.89 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 |
| | Selfefficacy_1 | Selfefficacy_2 | Selfefficacy_3 | Selfefficacy_4 | WTPM_1 | WTPM_2 | WTPM_3 |
| N | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 | 210.00 |
| Skewness | -0.31 | -0.18 | -0.32 | -0.27 | 0.05 | -0.08 | 0.24 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.17 |
| Kurtosis | -0.39 | -0.53 | -0.46 | -0.46 | -0.27 | -0.65 | -0.78 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.34 |

*Table 5-1: Skewness and Kurtosis for the [Statement] Condition*

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test is a measure of how suited your data is for Factor Analysis. The test measures sampling adequacy for each variable in the model. The statistic is a measure of the proportion of variance among variables that might be common variance. The lower the proportion, the more suited your data is to Factor Analysis (Dziuban & Shirkey, 1974; Kaiser, 1970). KMO values between 0.6 and 1 indicate the sampling is adequate. KMO values less than 0.6 indicate the sampling is not adequate. KMO Values close to zero means that there are correlations compared to the sum of correlations; there will likely be correlations which will pose a problem during factor analysis. All KMO measures for the construct of the [Statement] condition fall between 0.6 – 1.0, indicating sufficient adequacy for factor analysis. The KMOs for each construct used in the [Statement] condition is listed in Table 5-2.

Cronbach's alpha is a statistical procedure used to test scale reliability. Simply, it is how well the items fit as a set and how well they are positively correlated to each other. The closer the Cronbach's alpha is to 1 the higher the reliability. According to Santos (1999) Cronbach's alpha is one of the most commonly used measures of internal consistency. When measuring reliability, an alpha value of 0.5 is sufficient for basic research.

This study uses the standard of 0.7 or more, which is reliable according to Nunnally (1967). When examining a scale, researchers must look at the number of items in the scale, the number of cases and the alpha value. Cronbach's alpha measures the overall individual

items and analyse if they match harmoniously together to produce multi-item internal reliability. Some items have been omitted to produce the optimum reliability for the scale.

Table 5-2 illustrates the Cronbach's alpha measures for five constructs in the [Statement] condition are above 0.7, signalling excellent reliability. WTPM has an alpha of 0.626, which is acceptable reliability for basic research (Santos, 1999).

*Table 5-2: KMO and Reliability for [Statement] Condition*

| Statement | KMO | Cronbach's alpha |
|---|---|---|
| **Ad credibility** | 0.763 | 0.958 |
| **Attitudes towards the ad** | 0.815 | 0.91 |
| **Inferences of manipulative intent** | 0.876 | 0.925 |
| **Anticipatory guilt arousal** | 0.943 | 0.969 |
| **Self-efficacy** | 0.864 | 0.951 |
| **Willingness to pay more** | 0.686 | 0.869 |

### 5.4.1.3   [Statement] Condition: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

One-factor congeneric models were used to determine properties of the six constructs in the [Statement] condition that includes: (1) Ad Credibility (2) Attitudes towards the Ad (3) Inferences of Manipulative Intent (4) Anticipatory Guilt Arousal (5) Willingness to Pay More. Self-efficacy is a moderating construct and will be analysed in section 5.4.8. One-factor congeneric models are used in confirmatory factor analysis to determine the unidimensionality of the construct. Unidimensionality refers to a single trait of measures in a construct (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988).

The model fit measures for each construct in the [Statement] condition is listed in Table 5-3.

Table 5-3: CFA for [Statement] Condition

| Statement | $A_{cr}$ | $A_{ad}$ | IMI | AGA | SE | WTPM |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $\chi^2$ | 0.98 | 0.44 | 5.79 | 13.94 | 2.99 | 0.54 |
| Degrees of freedom | 1.00 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 9.00 | 2.00 | 1.00 |
| CMIN/DF | 0.98 | 0.44 | 1.45 | 1.55 | 1.50 | 0.54 |
| CFI | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| TLI | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.99 | 0.99 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| Rmsea | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.00 |
| Pclose | 0.81 | 0.61 | 0.45 | 0.44 | 0.39 | 0.57 |

### 5.4.1.4   [Statement] Condition: Composite Reliability and Validity

Composite reliability (CR) is used to explore the factorial structure of the items in a construct (Raykov, 1997). CR does not have a general underestimation of property seen in Cronbach's alpha Therefore, it is considered a better measure for reliability for structure equation modelling (Brown, 2014; Raykov, 1997). Composite reliability is calculated using AMOS 24. Calculated figures have to be above 0.7 to indicate acceptable reliability (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011).

Convergent validity and discriminant validity is used to determine whether a measure has high correlations with related items of the construct and low correlations with unrelated items (Peter, 1981). Convergent and discriminant validity are to be established together (Noar, 2003). Convergent validity is evidenced by significant factor loadings, and average variance extracted (AVE) figures above 0.5 (Bollen, 1989; Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Discriminant validity is examined to establish that the scale's constructs are statistically distinct and is evidenced by the square root of AVE being greater than any inter-factor correlation (Bollen, 1989; Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

*Table 5-4: Composite Reliability and Validity for [Statement] Condition*

|  | CR | AVE | MSV | MaxR(H) | Acr | AGA | IMI | AAD | WTPM |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Acr** | 0.968 | 0.909 | 0.607 | 0.969 | **0.954** | | | | |
| **AGA** | 0.961 | 0.833 | 0.298 | 0.983 | 0.419 | **0.911** | | | |
| **IMI** | 0.917 | 0.693 | 0.613 | 0.988 | -0.809 | -0.504 | **0.895** | | |
| **AAD** | 0.965 | 0.902 | 0.613 | 0.992 | 0.744 | 0.468 | -0.783 | **0.871** | |
| **WTPM** | 0.821 | 0.623 | 0.298 | 0.993 | 0.320 | 0.546 | -0.447 | 0.448 | **0.789** |

Composite reliability for the [Statement] condition (Table 5-4 in red) shows composite reliabilities (CR) between 0.821 to 0.968, indicating composite reliability (Hair et al., 2011).

Convergent validity for the [Statement] condition (Table 5-4 in orange) shows the average variance extracted (AVE) ranged from 0.623 to 0.909, which were equal to or greater than 0.50, indicating convergent validity.

Discriminant validity for the [Statement] condition (Table 5-4) shows that the square root of AVE (0.789 to 0.954 in yellow) is greater than any inter-factor correlation (-0.809 to 0.774 in green), indicating discriminant validity.

### 5.4.1.5 [Statement] Condition: Full Measurement Model

In order for hypotheses to be supported, local and global tests must be met. Global tests of model fit are necessary followed by relationships with a significant p-value. R-squared figures also indicate the strength of the relationship. If R-squares are low, this indicates that relationships tested do not explain sufficient variance in the dependent variable. Figure 5-6 shows the precedence of global and local tests. Hypotheses can only be supported when the criteria of these tests are met.
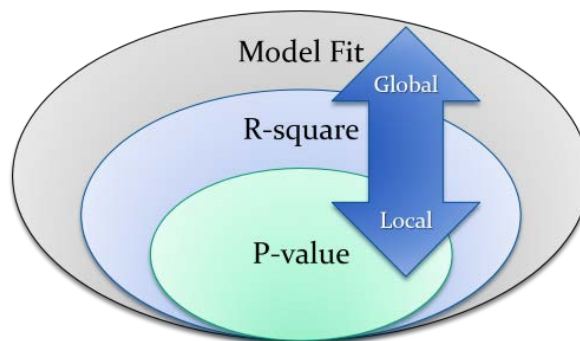


Figure 5-6: Global and Local Tests. Source: http://statwiki.kolobkreations.com/images/a/af/Globallocal.png

To ensure consistent global and local tests in this study, the following criteria will be applied to all conditions to indicate model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; McDonald & Ho, 2002):

| Measure | Terrible | Acceptable | Excellent |
|---------|----------|------------|-----------|
| CMIN/DF | > 5 | > 3 | > 1 |
| CFI | <0.90 | <0.95 | >0.95 |
| TLI | <0.90 | <0.95 | >0.95 |
| RMSEA | >0.08 | >0.06 | <0.06 |
| PClose | <0.01 | <0.05 | >0.05 |

Model fit measures will be reported for all four conditions in the format similar to Table 5-5.

The estimate column indicates the results from running the model in AMOS 24. Threshold

suggests the acceptable model fit measures based on McDonald and Ho (2002) as well as Hu

and Bentler (1999). The interpretation column indicates the fit of the measure based on the

criteria set by the threshold column.

The [Statement] condition provided a model fit measures as seen in Table 5-6. The path

model can be found in the Appendix.

*Table 5-5: Model Fit Measures for the [Statement] Condition*

| Measure | Estimate | Threshold | Interpretation |
|---------|----------|-----------|----------------|
| **CMIN** | 235.085 | -- | -- |
| **DF** | 145.000 | -- | -- |
| **CMIN/DF** | 1.621 | Between 1 and 3 | Excellent |
| **CFI** | 0.980 | >0.95 | Excellent |
| **TLI** | 0.976 | >0.95 | Excellent |
| **RMSEA** | 0.055 | <0.06 | Excellent |
| **PClose** | 0.271 | >0.05 | Excellent |

## 5.4.2   [Logo] Condition

### 5.4.2.1   [Logo] Condition: Skewness and Kurtosis

The dataset for the [Logo] condition after screening procedures have shown normal levels of

Skewness and Kurtosis as illustrated in Table 5-7.

| Logo | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | AdCred_1 | AdCred_2 | AdCred_3 | AAD_1 | AAD_2 | AAD_3 | AAD_4a |
| N | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 |
| Skewness | -0.932 | -0.808 | -0.912 | -0.568 | -0.632 | -0.607 | -1.243 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 |
| Kurtosis | 0.44 | 0.284 | 0.318 | -0.204 | -0.069 | -0.249 | 0.859 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 |
| | IMI_1 | IMI_2a | IMI_3 | IMI_4 | IMI_5 | IMI_6 | |
| N | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | |
| Skewness | 0.003 | 0.296 | -0.182 | -0.091 | 0.097 | 0.162 | |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | |
| Kurtosis | -1.334 | -1.392 | -1.34 | -1.241 | -1.406 | -1.349 | |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | |
| | AGA_1 | AGA_2 | AGA_3 | AGA_4 | AGA_5 | AGA_6 | AGA_7 |
| N | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Skewness | -0.109 | -0.084 | -0.237 | -0.243 | -0.135 | 0.008 | -0.19 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 |
| Kurtosis | -0.83 | -0.836 | -0.816 | -0.856 | -0.85 | -0.883 | -0.852 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 |
| | Selfefficacy_1 | Selfefficacy_2 | Selfefficacy_3 | Selfefficacy_4 | WTPM_1 | WTPM_2 | WTPM_3 |
| N | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 | 185 |
| Skewness | -0.407 | -0.264 | -0.268 | -0.145 | 0.024 | -0.142 | 0.042 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 | 0.177 |
| Kurtosis | -0.522 | -0.658 | -0.767 | -0.839 | -0.415 | -0.335 | -0.391 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 | 0.353 |

*Table 5-6 Skewness and Kurtosis for the [Logo] Condition*

### 5.4.2.2    [Logo] Condition: Adequacy and Reliability

All KMO measures for the construct of the [Logo] condition fall between 0.6 – 1.0, indicating sufficient adequacy for factor analysis. The KMOs for each construct used in the [Logo] condition is listed in Table 5-8. Table 5-8 also illustrates the Cronbach's alpha measures five constructs in the [Logo] condition are above 0.7, signalling excellent reliability. WTPM has an alpha of 0.677, which is acceptable reliability for basic research (Santos, 1999).

*Table 5-7: KMO and Reliability for [Statement] Condition*

| Logo | KMO | Cronbach's alpha |
|---|---|---|
| **Ad credibility** | 0.761 | 0.968 |
| **Attitudes towards the ad** | 0.807 | 0.928 |
| **Inferences of manipulative intent** | 0.904 | 0.94 |
| **Anticipatory guilt arousal** | 0.929 | 0.965 |
| **Self-efficacy** | 0.849 | 0.962 |
| **Willingness to pay more** | 0.677 | 0.859 |

### 5.4.2.3    [Logo] Condition: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

One-factor congeneric models were used to determine properties of the five constructs in the [Logo] condition that includes: (1) Ad Credibility (2) Attitudes towards the Ad (3) Inferences of Manipulative Intent (4) Anticipatory Guilt Arousal (5) Willingness to Pay More. Self-efficacy is a moderating construct and will be analysed in section 5.4.8.

The model fit measures for each construct in the [Logo] condition is listed in Table 5-9.

Table 5-8: CFA for [Logo] Condition

| Logo | $A_{cr}$ | $A_{ad}$ | IMI | AGA | SE | WTPM |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $\chi^2$ | 2.49 | 0.48 | 1.61 | 8.89 | 1.97 | 0.31 |
| Degrees of freedom | 1.00 | 2.00 | 6.00 | 10.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| CMIN/DF | 2.49 | 0.24 | 0.27 | 0.89 | 1.97 | 0.31 |
| CFI | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| TLI | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| Rmsea | 0.08 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.07 | 0.00 |
| Pclose | 0.21 | 0.87 | 0.99 | 0.85 | 0.27 | 0.67 |

### 5.4.2.4   [Logo] Condition: Composite Reliability and Validity

Table 5-9: Composite Reliability and Validity for [Logo] Condition

| Logo | CR | AVE | MSV | MaxR(H) | Acr | AGA | IMI | AAD | WTPM |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Acr | 0.975 | 0.929 | 0.701 | 0.980 | 0.964 | | | | |
| AGA | 0.961 | 0.780 | 0.338 | 0.989 | 0.516 | 0.883 | | | |
| IMI | 0.937 | 0.752 | 0.701 | 0.993 | -0.837 | -0.580 | 0.867 | | |
| AAD | 0.966 | 0.905 | 0.691 | 0.995 | 0.831 | 0.525 | -0.767 | 0.951 | |
| WTPM | 0.877 | 0.709 | 0.338 | 0.996 | 0.408 | 0.581 | -0.461 | 0.414 | 0.842 |

Composite reliability for the [Logo] condition (Table 5-10 in red) shows composite

reliabilities (CR) between 0.877 to 0.975, indicating composite reliability (Hair et al., 2011).

Convergent validity for the [Logo] condition (Table 5-10 in orange) shows the average

variance extracted (AVE) ranged from 0.709 to 0.929, which were equal to or greater than

0.50, indicating convergent validity.

Discriminant validity for the [Logo] condition (Table 5-10) shows that the square root of AVE

(0.842 to 0.964 in yellow) is greater than any inter-factor correlation (-0.837 to 0.831 in

green), indicating discriminant validity.

### 5.4.2.5  [Logo] Condition: Full Measurement Model

The [Logo] condition provided a model fit measures as seen in Table 5-11.

*Table 5-10: Model Fit Measures for the [Logo] Condition*

| Measure | Estimate | Threshold | Interpretation |
|---|---|---|---|
| CMIN | 291.709 | -- | -- |
| DF | 182.000 | -- | -- |
| CMIN/DF | 1.603 | Between 1 and 3 | Excellent |
| CFI | 0.977 | >0.95 | Excellent |
| TLI | 0.974 | >0.95 | Excellent |
| RMSEA | 0.057 | <0.06 | Excellent |
| PClose | 0.162 | >0.05 | Excellent |

### 5.4.3   [Statement + Logo] Condition

#### 5.4.3.1   *[Statement + Logo] Condition: Skewness and Kurtosis*

The dataset for the [Statement + Logo] condition after screening procedures have shown

normal levels of Skewness and Kurtosis as illustrated in Table 5-12.

| Statement + Logo | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | AdCred_1 | AdCred_2 | AdCred_3 | AAD_1 | AAD_2 | AAD_3 |
| N | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 |
| Skewness | -0.899 | -0.675 | -0.879 | -0.719 | -0.76 | -0.755 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 |
| Kurtosis | 1.084 | 0.358 | 0.756 | 0.332 | 0.522 | 0.467 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 |
| | IMI_1 | IMI_2a | IMI_3 | IMI_4 | IMI_5 | IMI_6 |
| N | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 |
| Skewness | -0.044 | 0.062 | -0.461 | -0.107 | -0.061 | -0.06 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 |
| Kurtosis | -1.303 | -1.43 | -1.042 | -1.253 | -1.277 | -1.311 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 |
| | AGA_1 | AGA_2 | AGA_3 | AGA_4 | AGA_5 | AGA_6 |

| N | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Skewness | -0.167 | -0.116 | -0.304 | -0.148 | -0.067 | 0.024 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 |
| Kurtosis | -0.696 | -0.715 | -0.611 | -0.651 | -0.817 | -0.746 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 |
|  | Selfefficacy_1 | Selfefficacy_2 | Selfefficacy_3 | Selfefficacy_4 | WTPM_1 | WTPM_2 |
| N | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 | 168 |
| Skewness | -0.531 | -0.414 | -0.493 | -0.279 | -0.057 | -0.094 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 | 0.172 |
| Kurtosis | -0.053 | -0.035 | -0.119 | -0.304 | -0.203 | -0.52 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 |

*Table 5-11: Skewness and Kurtosis for the [Statement + Logo] Condition*

### 5.4.3.2    [Statement + Logo] Condition: Adequacy and Reliability

All KMO measures for the construct of the [Statement + Logo] condition fall between 0.6 –

1.0, indicating sufficient adequacy for factor analysis. The KMOs for each construct used in

the [Statement + Logo] condition is listed in Table 5-13. Table 5-13 also illustrates the

Cronbach's alpha measures for five constructs in the [Statement + Logo] condition are

above 0.7, signalling excellent reliability. WTPM has an alpha of 0.686, which is acceptable

reliability for basic research (Santos, 1999)

*Table 5-12: KMO and Reliability for [Statement + Logo] Condition*

| Statement + Logo | KMO | Cronbach's alpha |
|---|---|---|
| **Ad credibility** | 0.763 | 0.958 |
| **Attitudes towards the ad** | 0.815 | 0.91 |
| **Inferences of manipulative intent** | 0.876 | 0.925 |
| **Anticipatory guilt arousal** | 0.943 | 0.969 |
| **Self-efficacy** | 0.864 | 0.951 |
| **Willingness to pay more** | 0.686 | 0.869 |

### 5.4.3.3    [Statement + Logo] Condition: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

One-factor congeneric models were used to determine properties of the five constructs in

the [Statement + Logo] condition that includes: (1) Ad Credibility (2) Attitudes towards the

Ad (3) Inferences of Manipulative Intent (4) Anticipatory Guilt Arousal (5) Willingness to Pay

More. Self-efficacy is a moderating construct and will be analysed in section 5.4.8.

The model fit measures for each construct in the [Statement + Logo] condition is listed in

Table 5-14.

Table 5-13: CFA for [Statement + Logo] Condition

| Statement + Logo | $A_{cr}$ | $A_{ad}$ | IMI | AGA | SE | WTPM |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $\chi^2$ | 2.94 | 1.46 | 6.48 | 15.97 | 1.45 | 0.82 |
| Degrees of freedom | 1.00 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 9.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| CMIN/DF | 2.94 | 1.46 | 1.30 | 1.77 | 1.45 | 0.82 |
| CFI | 0.99 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.98 |
| TLI | 0.98 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.99 | 1.00 | 0.94 |
| Rmsea | 0.00 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.06 | 0.05 | 0.18 |
| Pclose | 0.43 | 0.35 | 0.54 | 0.32 | 0.35 | 0.17 |

#### 5.4.3.4 [Statement + Logo] Condition: Composite Reliability and Validity

Table 5-14: Composite Reliability and Validity for [Statement + Logo] Condition

| Statement + Logo | CR | AVE | MSV | MaxR(H) | Acr | AGA | IMI | AAD | WTPM |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Acr | 0.968 | 0.909 | 0.630 | 0.975 | **0.954** | | | | |
| AGA | 0.970 | 0.820 | 0.445 | 0.987 | 0.443 | **0.905** | | | |
| IMI | 0.946 | 0.814 | 0.572 | 0.992 | -0.756 | -0.453 | **0.902** | | |
| AAD | 0.969 | 0.913 | 0.630 | 0.994 | 0.794 | 0.415 | -0.748 | **0.956** | |
| WTPM | 0.884 | 0.719 | 0.445 | 0.995 | 0.412 | 0.667 | -0.439 | 0.423 | **0.848** |

Composite reliability for the [Statement + Logo] condition (Table 5-15 in red) shows

composite reliabilities (CR) between 0.884 to 0.970, indicating composite reliability (Hair et

al., 2011).

Convergent validity for the [Statement + Logo] condition (Table 5-15 in orange) shows the average variance extracted (AVE) ranged from 0.719 to 0.913, which were equal to or greater than 0.50, indicating convergent validity.

Discriminant validity for the [Statement + Logo] condition (Table 5-15) shows that the square root of AVE (0848. to 0.956 in yellow) is greater than any inter-factor correlation (-0.756 to 0.794 in green), indicating discriminant validity.

### 5.4.3.5    [Statement + Logo] Condition: Full Measurement Model

The [Statement + Logo] condition provided a model fit measures as seen in Table 5-16.

*Table 5-15: Model Fit Measures for the [Statement + Logo] Condition*

| Measure | Estimate | Threshold | Interpretation |
|---------|----------|-----------|----------------|
| CMIN | 207.702 | -- | -- |
| DF | 128.000 | -- | -- |
| CMIN/DF | 1.623 | Between 1 and 3 | Excellent |
| CFI | 0.977 | >0.95 | Excellent |
| TLI | 0.972 | >0.95 | Excellent |
| RMSEA | 0.610 | <0.06 | Acceptable |
| PClose | 0.116 | >0.05 | Excellent |

## 5.4.4   [Control] Condition

### 5.4.4.1   *[Control] Condition: Skewness and Kurtosis*

The dataset for the [Control] condition after screening procedures have shown normal

levels of Skewness and Kurtosis as illustrated in Table 5-17.

| Control | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Statistics | | | | | | | |
| | AdCred_1 | AdCred_2 | AdCred_3 | AAD_1 | AAD_2 | AAD_3 | AAD_4a |
| N | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 |
| Skewness | -0.728 | -0.602 | -0.721 | -0.579 | -0.612 | -0.634 | -1.249 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 |
| Kurtosis | -0.127 | -0.081 | -0.159 | -0.348 | -0.409 | -0.389 | 0.536 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 |
| | IMI_1 | IMI_2a | IMI_3 | IMI_4 | IMI_5 | IMI_6 | |
| N | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | |
| Skewness | 0.051 | 0.245 | -0.369 | -0.161 | -0.013 | 0.019 | |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | |
| Kurtosis | -1.307 | -1.329 | -1.261 | -1.297 | -1.332 | -1.353 | |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | |
| | AGA_1 | AGA_2 | AGA_3 | AGA_4 | AGA_5 | AGA_6 | AGA_7 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 |
| Skewness | 0.232 | 0.12 | -0.012 | 0.097 | 0.288 | 0.293 | 0.224 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 |
| Kurtosis | -0.802 | -0.889 | -0.906 | -0.901 | -0.755 | -0.872 | -0.871 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 |
| | Selfefficacy_1 | Selfefficacy_2 | Selfefficacy_3 | Selfefficacy_4 | WTPM_1 | WTPM_2 | WTPM_3 |
| N | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 | 154 |
| Skewness | -0.341 | -0.179 | -0.233 | -0.115 | 0.174 | 0.128 | 0.335 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 | 0.171 |
| Kurtosis | -0.409 | -0.657 | -0.548 | -0.747 | -0.347 | -0.743 | -0.533 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 | 0.341 |

*Table 5-16: Skewness and Kurtosis for the [Control] Condition*

### 5.4.4.2 [Control] Condition: Adequacy and Reliability

All KMO measures for the construct of the [Control] condition fall between 0.6 – 1.0, indicating sufficient adequacy for factor analysis. The KMOs for each construct used in the [Control] condition is listed in Table 5-18. Table 5-18 also illustrates the Cronbach's alpha measures five six constructs in the [Control] condition are above 0.7, signalling excellent reliability. WTPM has an alpha of 0.611, which is acceptable reliability for basic research (Santos, 1999)

*Table 5-17: KMO and Reliability for [Control] Condition*

| Control | KMO | Cronbach's alpha |
|---|---|---|
| Ad credibility | 0.763 | 0.958 |
| Attitudes towards the ad | 0.853 | 0.956 |
| Inferences of manipulative intent | 0.876 | 0.923 |
| Anticipatory guilt arousal | 0.923 | 0.966 |
| Self-efficacy | 0.855 | 0.953 |
| Willingness to pay more | 0.611 | 0.847 |

### 5.4.4.3 [Control] Condition: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

One-factor congeneric models were used to determine properties of the five constructs in the [Control] condition that includes: (1) Ad Credibility (2) Attitudes towards the Ad (3) Inferences of Manipulative Intent (4) Anticipatory Guilt Arousal (5) Willingness to Pay More. Self-efficacy is a moderating construct and will be analysed in section 5.4.8.

The model fit measures for each construct in the [Control] condition is listed in Table 5-19.

| Statement + Logo | $A_{cr}$ | $A_{ad}$ | IMI | AGA | SE | WTPM |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $\chi^2$ | 1.76 | 0.17 | 9.13 | 16.30 | 4.11 | 1.45 |
| Degrees of freedom | 1.00 | 2.00 | 6.00 | 9.00 | 2.00 | 1.00 |
| CMIN/DF | 1.76 | 0.09 | 1.52 | 1.81 | 2.05 | 1.45 |
| CFI | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.96 |
| TLI | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.99 | 0.99 | 0.99 | 0.88 |
| Rmsea | 0.07 | 0.00 | 0.05 | 0.07 | 0.08 | 0.03 |
| Pclose | 0.28 | 0.95 | 0.40 | 0.26 | 0.25 | 0.01 |

### 5.4.4.4 [Control] Condition: Composite Reliability and Validity

Table 5-19: Composite Reliability and Validity for [Control] Condition

| Control | CR | AVE | MSV | MaxR(H) | Acr | AGA | IMI | AAD | WTPM |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Acr | 0.963 | 0.896 | 0.674 | 0.964 | 0.947 | | | | |
| AGA | 0.942 | 0.802 | 0.310 | 0.981 | 0.444 | 0.896 | | | |
| IMI | 0.941 | 0.802 | 0.707 | 0.991 | -0.799 | -0.453 | 0.895 | | |
| AAD | 0.983 | 0.951 | 0.707 | 0.994 | 0.821 | 0.415 | -0.841 | 0.975 | |
| WTPM | 0.880 | 0.716 | 0.319 | 0.996 | 0.565 | 0.557 | -0.526 | 0.541 | 0.846 |

Composite reliability for the [Control] condition (Table 5-20 in red) shows composite

reliabilities (CR) between 0.880 to 0.983, indicating composite reliability (Hair et al., 2011).

Convergent validity for the [Control] condition (Table 5-20 in orange) shows the average variance extracted (AVE) ranged from 0.716 to 0.951, which were equal to or greater than 0.50, indicating convergent validity.

Discriminant validity for the [Control] condition (Table 5-20 in yellow) shows that the square root of AVE (0.846 to 0.975) is greater than any inter-factor correlation (-0.841 to 0.821 in green), indicating discriminant validity.

### 5.4.4.5   [Control] Condition: Full Measurement Model

The [Control] condition provided a model fit measures as seen in Table 5-21.

| Measure | Estimate | Threshold | Interpretation |
|---------|----------|-----------|----------------|
| CMIN | 204.492 | -- | -- |
| DF | 128.000 | -- | -- |
| CMIN/DF | 1.598 | Between 1 and 3 | Excellent |
| CFI | 0.976 | >0.95 | Excellent |
| TLI | 0.972 | >0.95 | Excellent |
| RMSEA | 0.620 | <0.06 | Acceptable |
| PClose | 0.101 | >0.05 | Excellent |

## 5.5   Hypothesis Testing

In this section, we test primary hypotheses, H1 to H7. To reiterate, Figure 5-7 shows the full

research model.

*Figure 5-7: Full Research Model*
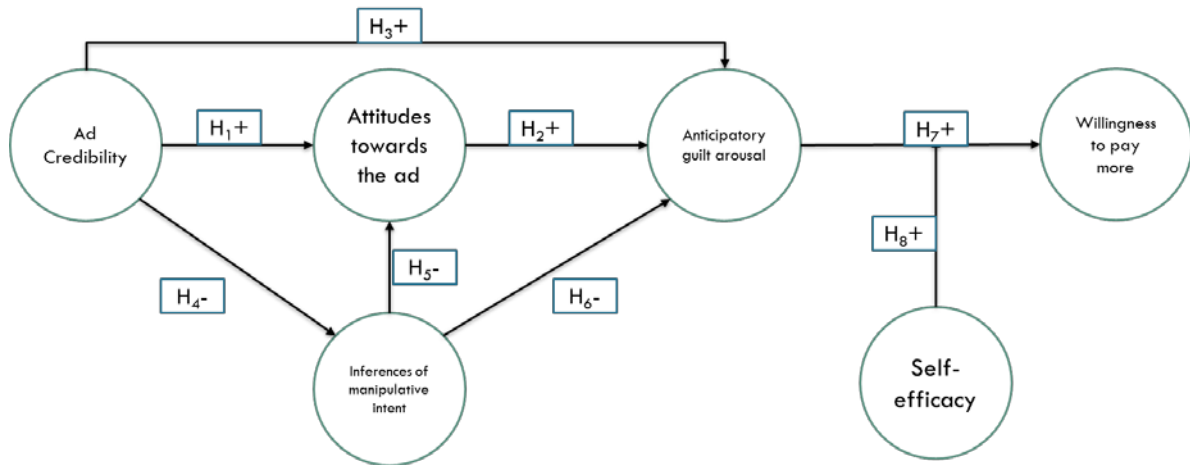


## 5.5.1   Hypothesis 1

**H1: A higher ad credibility ($A_{cr}$) will lead to more favourable attitude towards the ad ($A_{ad}$).**

In the [Statement] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a positive relationship to $A_{ad}$. The estimates for the

relationship is 0.385, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, $A_{ad}$ goes up by 0.385. This result

is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H1 for the [Statement] condition.

In the [Logo] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a positive relationship to $A_{ad}$. The estimates for the

relationship is 0.640, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, $A_{ad}$ goes up by 0.640. This result

is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H1 for the [Logo] condition.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a positive relationship to $A_{ad}$. The estimates for the relationship is 0.585, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, $A_{ad}$ goes up by 0.585. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H1 for the [Statement + Logo] condition.

In the [Control] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a positive relationship to $A_{ad}$. The estimates for the relationship is 0.457, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, $A_{ad}$ goes up by 0.457. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H1 for the [Control] condition.

### 5.5.2 Hypothesis 2

**H2: A more favourable attitude towards the ad ($A_{ad}$) will lead to higher anticipatory guilt arousal (AGA).**

In the [Statement] condition, $A_{ad}$ has a positive relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is 0.205, indicating that when $A_{ad}$ goes up by 1, AGA goes up by 0.205. This result is not significant at the 0.05 level, therefore, rejecting H2 for the [Statement] condition.

In the [Logo] condition, $A_{ad}$ has a positive relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is 0.209, indicating that when $A_{ad}$ goes up by 1, AGA goes up by 0.209. This result is not significant at the 0.05 level, therefore, rejecting H2 for the [Logo] condition.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, $A_{ad}$ has a positive relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is 0.071, indicating that when $A_{ad}$ goes up by 1, AGA goes up by 0.071.

This result is not significant at the 0.05 level, therefore, rejecting H2 for the [Statement + Logo] condition.

In the [Control] condition, $A_{ad}$ has a positive relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is 0.006, indicating that when $A_{ad}$ goes up by 1, AGA goes up by 0.006. This result is not significant at the 0.05 level, therefore, rejecting H2 for the [Control] condition.

### 5.5.3   Hypothesis 3

**H3: A higher ad credibility ($A_{cr}$) will lead to higher anticipatory guilt arousal (AGA).**

In the [Statement] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a negative relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is -0.004, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, AGA goes down by 0.004. This result is not significant at the 0.05 level, therefore, rejecting H3 for the [Statement] condition.

In the [Logo] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a negative relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is -0.032, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, AGA goes down by 0.032. This result is not significant at the 0.05 level, therefore, rejecting H3 for the [Logo] condition.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a positive relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is 0.219, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, AGA goes up by 0.219. This result is not significant at the 0.05 level, therefore, rejecting H3 for the [Statement + Logo] condition.

In the [Control] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a positive relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is 0.240, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, AGA goes up by 0.240. This result is not significant at the 0.05 level, therefore, rejecting H3 for the [Control] condition.

### 5.5.4  Hypothesis 4

**H4: A lower ad credibility ($A_{cr}$) will lead to higher inferences of manipulative intent (IMI).**

In the [Statement] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a negative relationship to IMI. The estimates for the relationship is -0.787, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, IMI goes down by 0.787. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H4 for the [Statement] condition.

In the [Logo] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a negative relationship to IMI. The estimates for the relationship is -0.715, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, IMI goes down by 0.715. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H4 for the [Logo] condition.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a negative relationship to IMI. The estimates for the relationship is -0.673, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, IMI goes down by 0.673. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H4 for the [Statement + Logo] condition.

In the [Control] condition, $A_{cr}$ has a negative relationship to IMI. The estimates for the relationship is -0.684, indicating that when $A_{cr}$ goes up by 1, IMI goes down by 0.684. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H4 for the [Control] condition.

### 5.5.5 Hypothesis 5

**H5: A lower inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) will lead to more favourable attitude towards the ad ($A_{ad}$).**

In the [Statement] condition, IMI has a negative relationship to $A_{ad}$. The estimates for the relationship is -0.527, indicating that when IMI goes up by 1, $A_{ad}$ goes down by 0.527. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H5 for the [Statement] condition.

In the [Logo] condition, IMI has a negative relationship to $A_{ad}$. The estimates for the relationship is -0.285, indicating that when IMI goes up by 1, $A_{ad}$ goes down by 0.285. This result is significant at the 0.01 level, therefore, accepting H5 for the [Logo] condition.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, IMI has a negative relationship to $A_{ad}$. The estimates for the relationship is -0.424, indicating that when IMI goes up by 1, $A_{ad}$ goes down by 0.424. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H5 for the [Statement + Logo] condition.

In the [Control] condition, IMI has a negative relationship to $A_{ad}$. The estimates for the relationship is -0.664, indicating that when IMI goes up by 1, $A_{ad}$ goes down by 0.664. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H5 for the [Control] condition.

### 5.5.6 Hypothesis 6

**H6: A lower inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) will lead to higher anticipatory guilt arousal (AGA).**

In the [Statement] condition, IMI has a negative relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is -0.395, indicating that when IMI goes up by 1, AGA goes down by 0.395. This result is significant at the 0.01 level, therefore, accepting H6 for the [Statement] condition.

In the [Logo] condition, IMI has a negative relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is -0.536, indicating that when IMI goes up by 1, AGA goes down by 0.536. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H6 for the [Logo] condition.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, IMI has a negative relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is -0.319, indicating that when IMI goes up by 1, AGA goes down by 0.319. This result is significant at the 0.05 level, therefore, accepting H6 for the [Statement + Logo] condition.

In the [Control] condition, IMI has a negative relationship to AGA. The estimates for the relationship is -0.328, indicating that when IMI goes up by 1, AGA goes down by 0.328. This result is not significant at the 0.05 level, therefore, rejecting H6 for the [Control] condition.

### 5.5.7  Hypothesis 7

**H7: A higher anticipatory guilt arousal (AGA) will lead to higher willingness to pay more (WTPM).**

In the [Statement] condition, AGA has a positive relationship to WTPM. The estimates for the relationship is 0.277, indicating that when AGA goes up by 1, WTPM goes up by 0.227. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H7 for the [Statement] condition.

In the [Logo] condition, AGA has a positive relationship to WTPM. The estimates for the relationship is 0.405, indicating that when AGA goes up by 1, WTPM goes up by 0.405. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H7 for the [Logo] condition.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, AGA has a positive relationship to WTPM. The estimates for the relationship is 0.493, indicating that when AGA goes up by 1, WTPM goes up by 0.493. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H7 for the [Statement + Logo] condition.

In the [Control] condition, AGA has a positive relationship to WTPM. The estimates for the relationship is 0.412, indicating that when AGA goes up by 1, WTPM goes up by 0.412. This result is significant at the 0.001 level, therefore, accepting H7 for the [Control] condition.

## 5.5.8   Hypothesis Testing: Moderation

In this section, the moderation hypothesis, H8, will be analysed in the four separate conditions: [Statement], [Logo], [Statement + Logo], and [Control]. Moderation will be run in AMOS 24 and SPSS 24 using the methods highlighted in Byrne (2001).

**H8: Self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between anticipatory guilt arousal and willingness to pay more.**
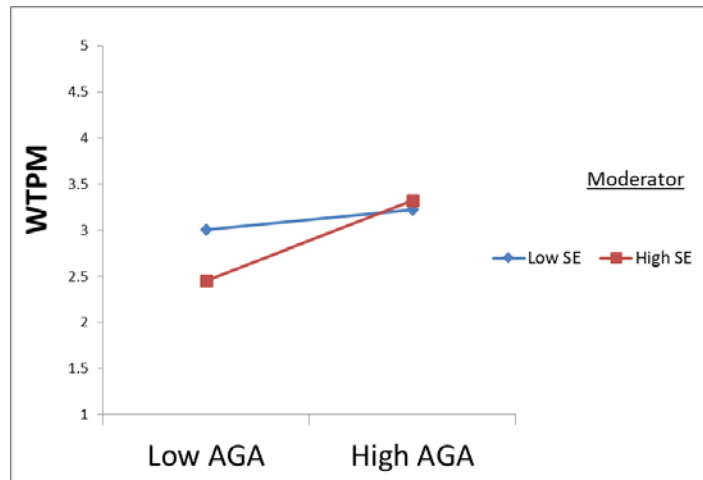
In the [Statement] condition, Self-efficacy (SE) moderates the relationship between AGA and WTPM at 0.088. This estimate is significant at the 0.05 level, supporting H8. Figure 5-8 shows this relationship. It can be seen that SE strengthens the positive relationship between AGA and WTPM.

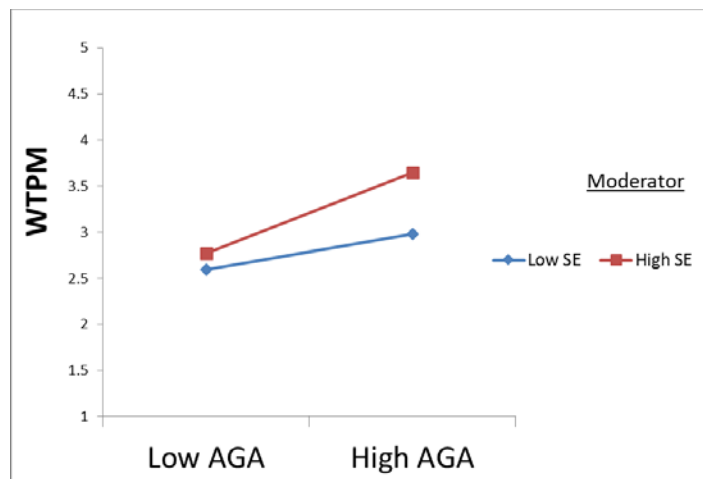*Figure 5-8: AGA to WTPM with SE Moderation for [Statement] Condition*
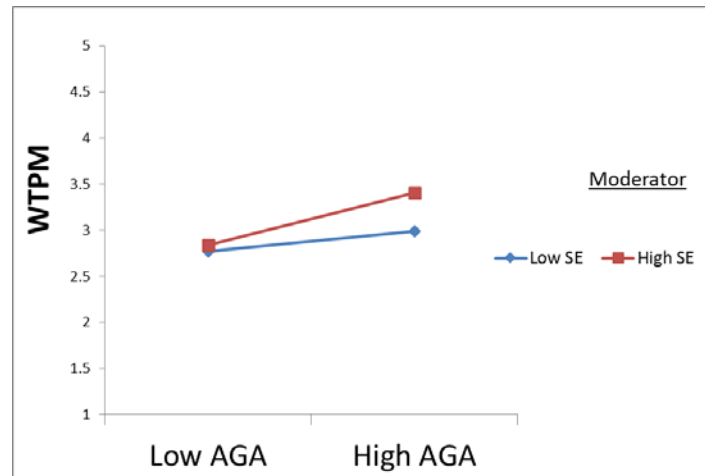


In the [Logo] condition, Self-efficacy (SE) moderates the relationship between AGA and WTPM at -0.113. This estimate is significant at the 0.05 level, supporting H8. Figure 5-9 shows this relationship. It can be seen that SE strengthens the positive relationship between AGA and WTPM.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, Self-efficacy (SE) moderates the relationship between AGA and WTPM at 0.122. This estimate is significant at the 0.05 level, supporting H8. Figure 5-10 shows this relationship. It can be seen that SE strengthens the positive relationship between AGA and WTPM.

Figure 5-10: AGA to WTPM with SE Moderation for [Statement + Logo] Condition



In the [Control] condition, Self-efficacy (SE) does not moderate the relationship between AGA and WTPM. This estimate is not significant at the 0.05 level, rejecting H8. Figure 5-11 shows this relationship. It can be seen that SE dampens the positive relationship between AGA and WTPM.

137

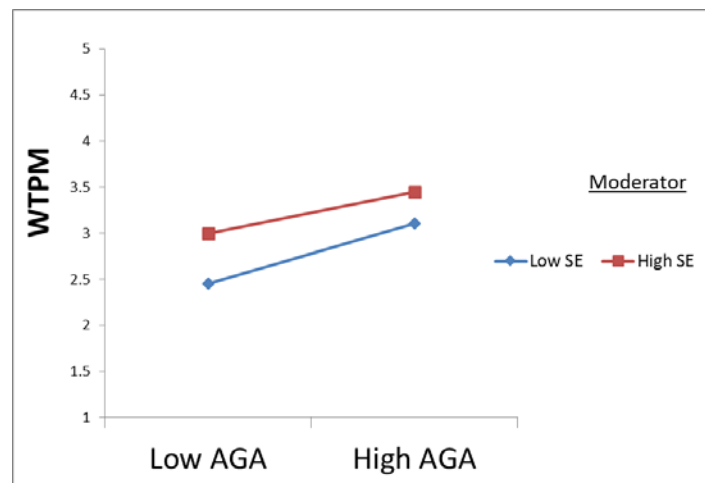Figure 5-11: AGA to WTPM with SE Moderation for [Control] Condition



## 5.5.9 Hypothesis Testing: Mediation

In this section, the mediation hypotheses will be examined. The mediation hypotheses will be analysed separately based on the four conditions: [Statement], [Logo], [Statement + Logo], and [Control]. Mediation will be run in AMOS 24 using the methods highlighted in Hayes (2009) and MacKinnon, Fairchild, and Fritz (2007).

**H9a: $A_{ad}$ will mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA**

In the [Statement] condition, $A_{ad}$ does not mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.05 level. The estimate is 0.077 with a P value of 0.068.

In the [Logo] condition, $A_{ad}$ does not mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.05 level. The estimate is 0.134 with a P value of 0.191.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, $A_{ad}$ does not mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.05 level. The estimate is 0.044 with a P value of 0.623.

138

In the [Control] condition, $A_{ad}$ does not mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.05 level. The estimate is 0.003 with a P value of 0.981.

**H9b: $A_{ad}$ will mediate the relationship between IMI and AGA**

In the [Statement] condition, $A_{ad}$ does not mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.05 level. The estimate is -0.108 with a P value of 0.074.

In the [Logo] condition, $A_{ad}$ does not mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.05 level. The estimate is -0.06 with a P value of 0.130.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, $A_{ad}$ does not mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.05 level. The estimate is -0.032 with a P value of 0.506.

In the [Control] condition, $A_{ad}$ does not mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.05 level. The estimate is -0.004 with a P value of 0.980.

**H9c: IMI will mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and $A_{ad}$**

In the [Statement] condition, $A_{ad}$ mediates the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.01 level. The estimate is 0.414 with a P value of 0.001.

In the [Logo] condition, $A_{ad}$ mediates the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.01

level. The estimate is 0.204 with a P value of 0.001.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, $A_{ad}$ mediates the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at

the 0.01 level. The estimate is 0.286 with a P value of 0.002.

In the [Control] condition, $A_{ad}$ mediates the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.01

level. The estimate is 0.454 with a P value of 0.001.

**H9d: IMI will mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA**

In the [Statement] condition, $A_{ad}$ mediates the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the

0.01 level. The estimate is 0.310 with a P value of 0.001.

In the [Logo] condition, $A_{ad}$ mediates the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.01

level. The estimate is 0.384 with a P value of 0.003.

In the [Statement + Logo] condition, $A_{ad}$ mediates the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at

the 0.05 level. The estimate is 0.215with a P value of 0.049.

In the [Control] condition, $A_{ad}$ mediates the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA at the 0.05

level. The estimate is 0.224 with a P value of 0.025.

## 5.6   Discussion

In this section, the primary and secondary hypotheses are listed and discussed separately.

Primary hypotheses are listed in Table 5-22. Moderating and mediating secondary

hypotheses are listed in Table 5-23.

| | Hypotheses | Outcome | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | [Statement] | [Logo] | [Statement + Logo] | [Control] |
| H1 | A higher ad credibility (Acr) will lead to more favourable attitude towards the ad (Aad). | Accept | Accept | Accept | Accept |
| H2 | A more favourable attitude towards the ad (Aad) will lead to higher anticipatory guilt arousal (AGA). | Reject | Reject | Reject | Reject |
| H3 | A higher ad credibility (Acr) will lead to higher anticipatory guilt arousal (AGA). | Reject | Reject | Reject | Reject |
| H4 | A lower ad credibility (Acr) will lead to higher inferences of manipulative intent (IMI). | Accept | Accept | Accept | Accept |
| H5 | A lower inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) will lead to more favourable attitude towards the ad (Aad). | Accept | Accept | Accept | Accept |
| H6 | A lower inferences of manipulative intent (IMI) will lead to higher anticipatory guilt arousal (AGA). | Accept | Accept | Accept | Reject |
| H7 | A higher anticipatory guilt arousal (AGA) will lead to higher willingness to pay more (WTPM). | Accept | Accept | Accept | Accept |

### 5.6.1  Discussion of Primary Hypotheses (H1 – H7)

The first part of the model involves constructs $A_{cr}$, $A_{ad}$ and IMI to feed into AGA. $A_{cr}$ positively influences $A_{ad}$ (H1 supported). While $A_{cr}$ and $A_{ad}$ do not directly influence AGA on a significant level (H2, H3 were rejected), a lower $A_{cr}$ leads to higher IMI (H4 supported). Furthermore, IMI is shown to negatively affect $A_{ad}$ (H5 supported). These hypotheses are the same across all four conditions. However, a lower IMI leading to a higher AGA is accepted in the [Statement], [Logo], and [Control] conditions but rejected in the [Control] condition. Most importantly, all four conditions show higher AGA leads to higher WTPM.

H1 states a higher $A_{cr}$ will lead to more favourable $A_{ad}$. This hypothesis is supported across all four conditions. This relationship was first postulated by Mackenzie and Lutz (1989) and validated by subsequent studies in varying contexts. $A_{cr}$ and $A_{ad}$ have been looked in the context of mobile advertising (Yang, Kim, & Yoo, 2013). $A_{cr}$ and $A_{ad}$ have also been looked at in antismoking campaigns (Reinhard, Schindler, Raabe, Stahlberg, & Messner, 2014) and in campaigns shaping safe drinking cultures (Previte, Russell-Bennett, & Parkinson, 2015). It is interesting to note that in the studies promoting healthy drinking cultures and antismoking campaigns, repetition and overexposure of similar ads creates a negative effect on $A_{ad}$. This leads to similar effects seen in advertisements with intention to manipulate or restrict the freedom of consumers. This phenomenon is showcased by H4, where lower IMI will lead to more favourable $A_{cr}$ and H5, where a lower IMI will lead to more favourable $A_{ad}$. H4 and H5 are both supported in this study, validating the relationships. The relationships between $A_{cr}$ and $A_{ad}$ and IMI in this study are in line with established findings; if consumers find an ad credible, there are likely to have more positive attitudes towards the ad. Furthermore, if

consumers find messages to be manipulative, they will generally have negative responses. This is in line with Reactance theory where consumers, when forced to take an option that they otherwise felt they have control over deciding themselves, feel resentful and act against the 'forced' option, even if the option forced on the consumer is one he or she would have likely selected (Brehm, 1966; Wortman & Brehm, 1975).

The outcomes of low feelings of manipulation or restricted freedoms can lead to desired outcomes. Like in the case of this study, H6 states a lower IMI will lead to higher AGA. Other studies have shown similar outcomes. More recently, Lunardo and Mbengue (2013) have looked at how store atmospherics can cause IMI which may lead to undesirable outcomes. IMI is also used in many studies in the consumer perception space; in the context of the Fear of Missing Out (FOMO) (Lim, Phau, Cheah, & Teah, 2015) and in the charitable giving space (Lwin & Phau, 2014). Other studies have looked at other guilt appeals such as existential guilt (Lwin & Phau, 2014). H6 is supported across three conditions with stimulus in this study, namely [Statement], [Logo], and [Statement + Logo]. H6, however, is rejected under the [Control] condition. This may be because the [Control] condition lacked any form of manipulation. The relationship between IMI and AGA are supported by reactance theory where consumers are driven to protect their perceived personal freedom.

H7 states that a higher AGA will lead to higher WTPM. This is supported across all four conditions. In the realm of social sciences, behavioural intention has had mixed opinions regarding the likelihood of respondents following through with their in-survey recorded opinions. Scholars have argued that scales such as WTPM differ from actual purchase.

During the green movement in the UK in the early 1990's, research showed customers' willingness to buy ecologically products. However, British supermarkets were overstocked with products that were later said to be too expensive (Pearce & Turner, 1990). WTPM have been looked extensively in the branding space; where brands are looking at the equity of their brand. For example, companies positioned in a luxury market are always looking at how much more consumers are willing to pay over generic, less branded products. Other papers have looked at how a brand story can have a positive impact on consumer purchase behaviour (Anselmsson, Vestman Bondesson, & Johansson, 2014; Lundqvist, Liljander, Gummerus, & Van Riel, 2013). This further cements the idea that Fairtrade should look at statements and systematic cues to allow consumers to read more about Fairtrade, its activities and story elements behind the label.

H2, a more favourable $A_{ad}$ will lead to higher AGA and H3, a higher $A_{cr}$ will lead to higher AGA, have been rejected across all four conditions. For H2, favourable $A_{ad}$ may not lead to AGA because the respondent's attitudes towards the ad may differ from another respondent. The stimulus may have caused negative or positive attitudes without the influence of guilt. While the stimulus is tailored to create feelings of anticipatory guilt especially in the [Statement], [Logo], and [Statement + Logo] conditions, respondents may have predisposing $A_{ad}$ that may have nothing to do with the stimulus. It could be the colour, the general presentation of the stimulus or multiple other effects that may affect the respondents' $A_{ad}$. Similarly to $A_{cr}$, respondents may feel the ad to be not credible based on other factors, thus not feeling AGA.

| | Secondary Hypotheses | Outcome | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | [Statement] | [Logo] | [Statement + Logo] | [Control] |
| H8 | Self-efficacy (SE) will moderate the relationship between anticipatory guilt arousal (AGA) and willingness to pay more (WTPM). | Accept | Accept | Accept | Reject |
| H9a | Aad will mediate the relationship between Acr and AGA | Reject | Reject | Reject | Reject |
| H9b | Aad will mediate the relationship between IMI and AGA | Reject | Reject | Reject | Reject |
| H9c | IMI will mediate the relationship between Acr and Aad | Accept | Accept | Accept | Accept |
| H9d | IMI will mediate the relationship between Acr and AGA | Accept | Accept | Accept | Accept |

### 5.6.2   Discussion of Moderating Hypothesis (H8)

H8 is supported on [Statement], [Logo], and [Statement + Logo] but not in the [Control] condition. However, the moderation tests show SE strengthening the positive relationship between AGA and WTPM in [Statement], [Logo], and [Statement + Logo] conditions. The tests also show SE dampening the positive relationship between AGA and WTPM in the [Control] condition. This suggests the importance of having either a heuristic or systematic persuasion cues while using anticipatory guilt appeals in advertising.

H8 looks at how SE moderates the relationship between AGA and WTPM. This hypothesis is supported across three conditions, [Statement], [Logo], and [Statement + Logo]. However, the [Control] condition was not supported. This is to be expected because the [Control] condition lacked any guilt inducing elements. As such, consumers may not feel that their ability plays a role in procuring Fairtrade certified products, thereby reducing the significance of the moderating relationship.

### 5.6.3   Discussion of Mediating Hypothesis (H9)

H9a and H9b are rejected across all four conditions. The results show that $A_{ad}$ has less of a mediating effect than expected. H9c and H9d were supported across all four conditions. This suggests that IMI plays a pivotal role in mediating relationships when evoking AGA.

H9 looks at the mediators in the research model. Similarly to H2 and H3, H9a and H9b do not mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA as well as the relationship between IMI and AGA. This could be because the stimulus may have other factors that may affect

147

attitudes as well as credibility. Another reason could be because AGA is not an established

scale, therefore the mediating relationships may not apply to this context. H9c, IMI

mediating the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and $A_{ad}$, is well-established and it is supported in

this study. This means the $A_{ad}$ of respondents of this study will lower even though they find

the ad credible if they feel high levels of IMI (Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989).

H9d, IMI will mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ and AGA. However, there are few studies

showing this mediating relationship. This means respondents who feel that the ad is

credible may feel lower levels of AGA if they find the ad to be manipulative and vice versa.

This further goes to show the importance of IMI when trying to make consumers feel the

desired levels of anticipatory guilt.

## 5.7   Chapter Conclusion

Chapter 5 revisited the nine hypotheses and the research model. The model and hypotheses were tested and results were reported in Table 5-10. Hypotheses H1, H4, H5, H7, and H8 were fully supported while H6 and H9 was partially supported. These results indicate that proper control of IMI when using anticipatory guilt appeals is important in order to evoke AGA. Furthermore, successful evocation of AGA leads to WTPM. As for the moderation hypothesis, H8, SE moderates the relationship of AGA to WTPM across all four conditions. However, SE had a positive effect on [Statement] and [Statement + Logo] conditions but not [Logo] and [Control] conditions, suggesting the importance of statements in in effectively influencing WTPM through AGA. The next chapter concludes the study. A review of the research questions will be discussed with the results. This is followed by the contributions and finally limitations and future directions.

# 6 Chapter 6: Contributions, Limitations and Future Research

## 6.1 Overview

In this chapter, the research objectives are revisited through the results drawn from the hypotheses. The findings from the hypotheses are outlined, highlighting the conceptual, methodological and managerial implications and contributions. Finally, the chapter concludes with the limitations and suggests future research directions.

## 6.2   Review of Research Questions and Findings

To recap briefly, outlined next are the key findings for each of the research questions.

1. How does anticipatory guilt arousal affect consumer attitudes and behaviour towards

Fairtrade products (H1 to H7)?

Current Fairtrade certified products in Australia are promoted through heuristic means;

logos are placed on products in conspicuous packaging locations to indicate Fairtrade

participation. However, the primary hypotheses suggests that systematic processing cues in

the form of guilt statements may be more effective. This can be seen by the larger effect of

$A_{cr}$, $A_{ad}$, and IMI affecting AGA (H6) in the [Statement] and [Statement + Logo] over [Logo]

and [Control] conditions. This result ties back to the fact that only one in two Australians

recognise the logo and systematic cues can allow Australian consumers to better

understand Fairtrade and their activities through systematic cues in processing on their

packaging. While many marketing campaigns regarding Fairtrade in the UK or the US utilise

heuristic cues, the level of Fairtrade logo recognition in those countries are significantly

higher than Fairtrade logo recognition in Australia. Instead of mirroring marketing initiatives

in the UK and the US, this study suggests the use of systematic cues on packaging until

Fairtrade logo recognition in Australia is higher before using heuristic cues.


There is a descriptive difference between the IMI levels of the four conditions which is the

means of the aggregate score of the IMI scale. [Statement] shows the lowest amount of IMI

(IMI is negative valanced, therefore, the higher the number the less IMI for that condition),

followed by [Control], [Logo], then finally [Statement + Logo]. This suggests [Statement] may

be the most effective way to elicit AGA when controlling for IMI. It is also interesting to note

that the [Statement + Logo] condition created the most intense feelings of IMI among the four conditions, suggesting that using both statement and logos in eliciting AGA may have caused feelings of IMI that are too intense, reducing effectiveness of the ad. On the other hand, it may be beneficial to have both statements and logos on packaging to allow future marketing initiatives to use heuristic cues. This is achieved by adopting the use of statements and logos, building an association and recognition to both the activities of Fairtrade through statements (i.e. systematic cues) and logo recognition (i.e. heuristic cues). Once consumers recognise the activities of Fairtrade and have subscribed to the idea of fair trading, they will utilise heuristic cues for future purchases.

It is also interesting to note that once successful at eliciting AGA, the [Statement + Logo] condition has a stronger relationship at evoking WTPM. The [Statement] condition however, has the weakest relationship at causing AGA to WTPM. In summary, the results of this study show heuristic cues at point of purchase lack the effectiveness of systematic cues. From a managerial standpoint, the current prevalence of heuristic cues in the promotion of Fairtrade certified products should look at systematic cues to increase proliferation and recognition of Fairtrade products in Australia.

Different conditions will be useful for different strategies. For example, using only Fairtrade statements as part of their promotional strategy may appeal to companies such as Bahen & Co. Fairtrade statements on their products may increase brand story elements of the brand which have been documented to increase brand affect (Landa, 2016; Månsson & Björling, 2017). Alternatively, companies using both logo and statement may want to target

consumers who have enough knowledge about Fairtrade to process the logo heuristically and appeal to consumers with limited knowledge who may want to find out more about Fairtrade through systematic processing cues. For Fairtrade Australia, because logo recognition is low amongst the Australian population, it is suggested to use a combination of both logo and statement on packaging to build awareness and recognition as well as association to the logo. When Fairtrade's logo reaches higher levels of recognition, using only logos can save precious real-estate on packaging as logos take less surface area than lengthy statements (Kelly et al., 2009; Mejean et al., 2013). When consumers are able to process the purchase of Fairtrade certified products through logo recognition, consumers can process Fairtrade certified products faster; once they see the logo on supermarket shelves, they may choose products with the logo without further thought. Once recognition has reached higher levels, there is also more incentive for brands like Bahen & Co. to use just Fairtrade logos. However, brands inclined to build a brand story may still want to use Fairtrade statements to build their brand profile. However, it is also important to note the [Statement + Logo] condition has highest levels of IMI. This suggests that having both statements and logos can be seen as manipulative. For companies, especially Fairtrade, not accounting for IMI will lead to negative consumer reactions. Companies may also choose to use both statement and logos simply because this study has shown higher levels of willingness to pay more under the [Statement + Logo] condition.

2.  How does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between consumers' anticipatory guilt arousal and willingness to pay more for Fairtrade certified products (H8)?

H8 shows that SE moderates the relationship between AGA and WTPM across three conditions, [Statement], [Logo], and [Statement + Logo]. This result suggests that although

respondents are aroused by AGA and WTPM, personal constraints restrict the behaviour of actually purchasing the product. However, the [Control] condition was not supported. This is to be expected because the [Control] condition lacked any guilt inducing elements. As such, consumers may not feel that their ability plays a role in procuring Fairtrade certified products, thereby reducing the significance of the moderating relationship. This suggests the importance of having either heuristic or systematic persuasion cues while using anticipatory guilt appeals in advertising. In summary, SE has shown to positively influence the purchase of Fairtrade certified products, whereby consumers who feel that they have the ability to purchase Fairtrade certified products, be it access to said products or financial constraints, and will more likely purchase Fairtrade certified products.

3. What is the mediating role of attitudes towards the ad and inferences of manipulative intent on the effectiveness of anticipatory guilt arousal on Fairtrade certified products (H9)?

H9a and H9b shows, across the four conditions, $A_{ad}$ does not mediate the relationship between $A_{cr}$ to AGA and IMI to AGA. This suggests $A_{ad}$ is less important than $A_{cr}$ and IMI at eliciting AGA. As long as respondents find the ad to be credible and not manipulative, they are likely to feel AGA. Furthermore, the relationship between $A_{ad}$ and AGA as postulated by H2 was not significant. H9c and H9d shows partial mediation for IMI between $A_{cr}$ to $A_{ad}$ and $A_{cr}$ to AGA. This suggests the importance to control for IMI in eliciting AGA. Therefore, Fairtrade should consider using a mid-level of anticipatory guilt when advertising for maximum effectiveness.

## 6.3 Conceptual and Methodological Contributions

1. This study provides empirical results on how anticipatory guilt appeals affect Fairtrade certified products. Previous studies have looked at guilt as a unified construct (Lwin & Phau, 2014; McDonald & Ho, 2002). However, guilt has three very distinct types. The results have shown that Fairtrade ads, when controlled for IMI, have a significant effect on AGA. Furthermore, AGA has some effect on consumers' WTPM. Fairtrade certified products are currently promoted without the use of guilt. This study suggests the possibility of using AGA with moderate effectiveness when promoting Fairtrade certified products. The antecedents of anticipatory guilt in a Fairtrade context are validated.

2. Fairtrade certified products are currently promoted without the use of systematic cues especially at point-of-purchase. This study has provided empirical results on the effects of guilt statements (which are processed systematically) and logos (which are processed heuristically) in Fairtrade certified products. Previous studies observed anticipatory guilt appeals as of low-medium intensity and is short-lived (Giner-Sorolla, 2001) making guilt appeals used point-of-purchase more effective. Lewis (2000) and Lascu (1991) states guilt as a motivating, action-oriented emotion making guilt a choice emotional appeal at eliciting behaviour. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) also suggests that statements of fact were most commonly used in anticipatory guilt appeals. Furthermore, Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) claims that statements and facts elicit a more positive response. This study adds to current guilt literature by empirically testing the use of guilt in the promotion of Fairtrade certified products.

3. Fairtrade is growing in Australia and new marketing initiatives should be introduced if Australia were to reach the level of Fairtrade penetration seen in the UK and the US. Respondents of the survey are potential or actual users of Fairtrade certified products. The survey has helped consumers gain knowledge of Fairtrade's activities and Fairtrade has gained recognition from respondents through completion of the survey. Therefore, this study has current industry relevance; its results can be used to shed light on future marketing initiatives Fairtrade may use, thus contributing ecological validity.

4. This study took further steps to validate the anticipatory guilt arousal scale. It is clearly a unidimensional as proposed in the original study by Lwin and Phau (2008a). All the other scales used in this study are established. But studies have separated guilt into three separate constructs (Burnett & Lunsford, 1994; Huhmann & Brotherton, 1997; Rawlings, 1970; Renner et al., 2013). Until recently, few studies have validated the three separate constructs of guilt (Lwin, 2010; Lwin & Phau, 2014; Wonneberger, 2017).

In summary, this study has made some vital contributions and extended the literature on guilt appeals in an advertising context. Among advertising appeals such as fear and sex, guilt has comparatively less research but guilt, when utilised properly, can be effective especially when dealing ethical consumerism. Firstly, it provides validity for the antecedents of anticipatory guilt in the Fairtrade context. Secondly, it extends the anticipatory guilt knowledge to understand the effectiveness of heuristic and systematic processing cues when eliciting anticipatory guilt arousal. Thirdly, this study has ecological validity because it reflects the current state of the Fairtrade industry in Australia. With the results from this

study, Fairtrade may explore marketing initiatives in order to further promotion Fairtrade

penetration in Australia.

## 6.4   Managerial Contributions

1. The results of this study has highlighted the effectiveness of using anticipatory guilt at eliciting Fairtrade product purchase. Fairtrade is currently promoted without the use of guilt elements (Boudewyns et al., 2013; Chang, 2014; Lwin & Phau, 2015; Renner et al., 2013; Van Trijp, 2013). Fairtrade certified products held by brands such as Ben & Jerry's have used appeals focussed on positive mental states such as crowd appeals (Adler, 2016; Fallon, 2014). It is suggested that Fairtrade may want to look at using guilt to further the proliferation of Fairtrade products and recognition of the Fairtrade logo as well as the activities of Fairtrade in Australia. This can be achieved by using different conditions highlighted in this study for different strategies. For example, Fairtrade may want to use [Statement + Logo] conditions when recognition of the Fairtrade Mark is low to build recognition and association. The logo will build association to the statements which will increase awareness of Fairtrade's activities. In turn, the association with Fairtrade's activities to the logo will build recognition (Landa, 2016; Månsson & Björling, 2017). When Fairtrade's logo reaches higher levels of recognition, using only logos can save precious real-estate on packaging as logos take less surface area than lengthy statements (Kelly et al., 2009; Mejean et al., 2013). When consumers are able to process the purchase of Fairtrade certified products through logo recognition, consumers can process Fairtrade certified products faster; once they see the logo on supermarket shelves, they may choose products with the logo without further thought.

The findings of the research provide useful information for advertisers to enhance their understanding of guilt appeals. However, they are not limited to Fairtrade. With the help of these findings, marketers, strategists, business planners, advertisers, brand managers and product managers could determine the steps to undertake to promote a healthy advertising campaign.

2. Pricing forms an integral role in Fairtrade certified products. Prices have to be high enough in order for funds to benefit the livelihoods of farmers in marginalised countries but prices must also be competitive (Dragusanu et al., 2014; Howard & Allen, 2008; Krystallis & Chryssohoidis, 2005). However, supermarkets sell Fairtrade certified products at a lower price than non-Fairtrade certified products even if those products are generic in nature and are not well-known brands (see Figure 6-1).



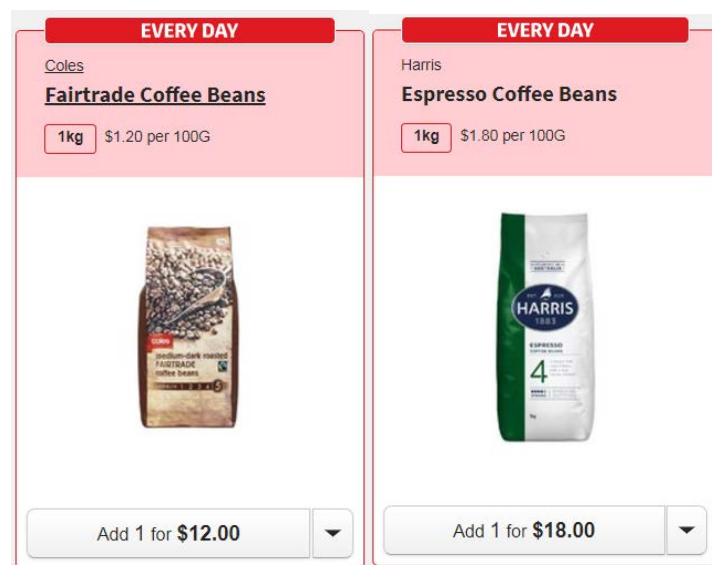*Figure 6-1: Fairtrade Espresso Beans are Cheaper than non-Fairtrade Beans*

This study has shown that consumers are willing to pay more for Fairtrade certified products. Therefore, lowering the prices of Fairtrade certified products seems counterintuitive. In addition, competing with lower price-point products that are generic should be considered as selling Fairtrade products short. Furthermore, it is in

Fairtrade's best interests to maintain premium prices on certified products as larger margins could mean more resources go toward the benefit of farmers in marginalised countries (Strahilevitz, 1999; Young et al., 2009). Lowering prices may also be perceived as selling goods of inferior quality (Bray et al., 2010; Dragusanu et al., 2014). Another point to make regarding price is, lower income demographics are simply not the target consumers of Fairtrade certified products. Research have shown that lower income demographics are less likely to partake in charitable activities, which is the premise of Fairtrade (Schlegelmilch, Love, & Diamantopoulos, 1997; Tonin & Vlassopoulos, 2017). Further to this, consumers who actively purchase Fairtrade products are willing to pay a premium to help farmers in marginalised countries (Bacon, 2005; Basu & Hicks, 2008). Tying back to attribution theory, reducing the price of Fairtrade certified products prevents willing consumers from making an impact with their purchases, making purchases feel less rewarding in the sense of self-satisfaction when helping out others in need (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Aronson, 1992; Davis & Jones, 1960; Lwin & Phau, 2014). Based on the results from this study, Fairtrade and companies engaged in Fairtrade such as Bahen & Co. may want to revisit their pricing strategy and position Fairtrade certified products in a more premium space instead of competing with lower-priced products, watering down the value of what Fairtrade can do for farmers in marginalised countries.

3. Fairtrade certified products have a Fairtrade logo on their products as a label signifying ethical sourcing of raw materials. For consumers who do not recognise the logo, the lack of systematic processing cues like facts of Fairtrade as well as communities benefiting from Fairtrade product purchase prevents these consumers from further understanding and recognising the Fairtrade logo. Using statements on

Fairtrade certified products will help increase recognition and the activities of Fairtrade as well as the Fairtrade logo. In addition, for companies like Bahen & Co., where packaging design is an attraction for consumers, focusing the attention of front-of-pack information on Fairtrade by using elements of contrast to make Fairtrade-related motifs stand out and enhance Fairtrade's messages more prominently (Feunekes et al., 2008; Siegrist et al., 2015). Therefore, this study contributes by highlighting the importance of using systematic processing cues in the promotion of Fairtrade certified products, especially when recognition of the Fairtrade Mark is low among the target population.

4. Among the four conditions, the results from this study has identified [Statement] as the most effective strategy for promoting Fairtrade products. This works by making sure the anticipatory guilt arousal experienced in not too intense as compared to [Statement + Logo] and it allows guilt statements to affect customers at point-of-purchase. Although having both statements and logos on Fairtrade certified products will allow both consumers who know about Fairtrade to process product purchase heuristically, perhaps placing statements and logos separately on the product packing may dampen the effects of IMI.

5. Tying this back to the ad credibility and attitudes towards the ad constructs, the results in this study have shown that ad credibility has more significance at evoking anticipatory guilt arousal than attitudes towards the ad. Since ad credibility has shown to have more importance than attitudes towards the ad, Fairtrade may want to look at increasing the credibility of their ads. Methods to do so may be to engage representatives of progressive organisations such as the United Nations or other congruent parties to endorse Fairtrade activities and messages. Other possibilities

include media personalities and celebrities. Simply put, statements on packaging may not be sufficiently credible. In this case, endorsement from prominent personalities may increase credibility, which is shown in this study to have a significant effect at evoking anticipatory guilt arousal.

6. Self-efficacy is defined as the belief that one is able to succeed in a situation or accomplish a task (Bandura, 1977). The level of self-efficacy can determine goals, tasks, and challenges are approached (Sherer et al., 1982). Self-efficacy in this study refers to the people who have the ability, resources, and accessibility to purchase Fairtrade certified products. The results of this study have shown that self-efficacy moderates, in this case, enhances, a respondent's willingness to pay more for Fairtrade certified products. From a Fairtrade standpoint, the cohort of consumers with the ability to purchase Fairtrade certified products will be the target market of Fairtrade and its partners. It is clear, from marketing strategies and segmentations, Fairtrade should target this cohort as the primary market. Because purchasers of Fairtrade products pay more, the premium makes them an exclusive group. Therefore, this group of consumers could also become ambassadors or opinion leaders to aspire other people to purchase Fairtrade certified products. Furthermore, the collaborator, Bahen & Co., is looking at expanding to international markets. The research from this study has suggested that Bahen & Co. target this cohort for better success. In addition, because self-efficacy is so important in the promotion of Fairtrade certified products, Fairtrade and its collaborators may want to look to increase accessibility to these products perhaps towards online offerings and increased retail destinations.

## 6.5   Limitations and Future Directions

This study is not without limitations. The demographics identified in this study are predominantly older, less educated, and earning a lower income. Furthermore, the respondents, have varying levels of age, education and income may mean that the sample is not homogeneous. Some studies have argued homogeneous samples are favourable in theory testing because of accurate theoretical predictions and higher levels of internal validity (Calder, Phillips, & Tybout, 1981). Other studies have argued that samples should not be homogenous and represent the population, which strengthens the external validity of theory testing (Roberts & DelVecchio, 2000). Although the dataset has external validity, there may be an issue with demographics skewed towards a cohort. Furthermore, this study is limited to the Australian demographic. Other countries may have varying cultures and social norms that may affect the generalisability of the study. As such more replication studies should be done to close this potential gap.

Scholars have argued that scales such as WTPM differ from actual purchase. During the green movement in the UK in the early 1990's, research showed customers' willingness to buy ecologically products. However, British supermarkets were overstocked with products that were later said to be too expensive (Pearce & Turner, 1990). Therefore, it might be useful to conduct a similar study with respondents who actually and consciously paid higher prices for green products.

This study has only looked at one type of guilt, anticipatory guilt. Future studies may want to look at the effectiveness of other guilt types such as reactive or existential guilt in the

context of Fairtrade (Hibbert et al., 2007; Huhmann & Brotherton, 1997; Lwin & Phau, 2008a). Because guilt is separated into three distinct types, future research should also conduct research based on three types of guilt, rather than one.

This study looks at emotional appeals. But how will emotional appeals fare against rational appeals such as statements of fact? The differences between affect-based evaluation and attribute-based evaluation will allow researchers to determine how consumers react to facts or emotions. A comparison between these two conditions may shed new light on eliciting Fairtrade product purchase.

Future studies can also use subjective and objective knowledge as a background variable. This will allow Fairtrade to measure the penetration of Fairtrade in Australia as well as the extent of consumer knowledge on Fairtrade products and their activities. Further to this, measuring consumer knowledge on Fairtrade can shed light into the differing responses between consumers with high objective knowledge and low objective knowledge as well as consumers with high subjective knowledge and low subjective knowledge. The results can then be used to target consumers based on Fairtrade's strategy. If the prevailing market has high instances of individuals with low knowledge, Fairtrade can ramp up their activities at promoting awareness. Furthermore, the results can help Fairtrade determine the reasons on why consumers with high or low knowledge may or may not want to purchase Fairtrade certified products.

# 7    References

Aaker, D. A. (1992). The value of brand equity. *Journal of business strategy, 13*(4), 27-32.

Aaker, D. A., Stayman, D. M., & Hagerty, M. R. (1986). Warmth in Advertising: Measurement, Impact, and Sequence Effects.

Adams, M., & Raisborough, J. (2010). Making a difference: ethical consumption and the everyday. *Br J Sociol, 61*(2), 256-274. doi:10.1111/j.1468-4446.2010.01312.x

Adler, J. H. (2016). Persistent Threats to Commercial Speech. *JL & Pol'y, 25*, 289.

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. *Psychological Bulletin, 84*(5), 888.

Alasuutari, P., Bickman, L., & Brannen, J. (2008). *The SAGE handbook of social research methods*: Sage.

Albersmeier, F., Schulze, H., Jahn, G., & Spiller, A. (2009). The reliability of third-party certification in the food chain: From checklists to risk-oriented auditing. *Food Control, 20*(10), 927-935. doi:10.1016/j.foodcont.2009.01.010

Alrubaiee, L., & Al-Nazer, N. (2010). Investigate the impact of relationship marketing orientation on customer loyalty: The customer's perspective. *International Journal of Marketing Studies, 2*(1), 155.

Anselmsson, J., Vestman Bondesson, N., & Johansson, U. (2014). Brand image and customers' willingness to pay a price premium for food brands. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 23*(2), 90-102.

Antonetti, P., & Maklan, S. (2014). Feelings that make a difference: How guilt and pride convince consumers of the effectiveness of sustainable consumption choices. *Journal of Business Ethics, 124*(1), 117-134.

Arnould, E. J., Plastina, A., & Ball, D. (2009). Does Fair Trade Deliver on Its Core Value

Proposition? Effects on Income, Educational Attainment, and Health in Three

Countries.

Aronson, E. (1992). The return of the repressed: Dissonance theory makes a comeback.

*Psychological inquiry, 3*(4), 303-311.

Bacon, C. (2005). Confronting the Coffee Crisis: Can Fair Trade, Organic, and Specialty

Coffees Reduce Small-Scale Farmer Vulnerability in Northern Nicaragua? *World

Development, 33*(3), 497-511. doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2004.10.002

Bagozzi, R. P., Gopinath, M., & Nyer, P. U. (1999). The Role of Emotions in Marketing.

*Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(2), 184-206.

doi:10.1177/0092070399272005

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change.

*Psychological Review, 84*(2), 191-215.

Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. *Self-efficacy beliefs in

adolescents* (pp. 307-337).

Barham, B. L., & Weber, J. G. (2012). The Economic Sustainability of Certified Coffee: Recent

Evidence from Mexico and Peru. *World Development, 40*(6), 1269-1279.

doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2011.11.005

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social

psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal

of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1173.

Barone, M. J., Norman, A. T., & Miyazaki, A. D. (2007). Consumer response to retailer use of

cause-related marketing: Is more fit better? *Journal of Retailing, 83*(4), 437-445.

Basil, D. Z., Ridgway, N. M., & Basil, M. D. (2008). Guilt and giving: A process model of empathy and efficacy. *Psychology and Marketing, 25*(1), 1-23. doi:10.1002/mar.20200

Basu, A. K., & Hicks, R. L. (2008). Label performance and the willingness to pay for Fair Trade coffee: a cross-national perspective. *International Journal of Consumer Studies, 32*(5), 470-478. doi:10.1111/j.1470-6431.2008.00715.x

Batra, R., & Ray, M. L. (1986). Affective responses mediating acceptance of advertising. *Journal of Consumer Research, 13*, 234-249.

Batson, C. D., Batson, J. G., Griffitt, C. A., Barrientos, S., Brandt, J. R., Sprengelmeyer, P., & Bayly, M. J. (1989). Negative-state relief and the empathy—altruism hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 56*(6), 922-933. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.56.6.922

Berger, I. E., & Corbin, R. M. (1992). Perceived consumer effectiveness and faith in others as moderators of environmentally responsible behaviors. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 79-89.

Beverland, M., & Lindgreen, A. (2010). What makes a good case study? A positivist review of qualitative case research published in Industrial Marketing Management, 1971–2006. *Industrial Marketing Management, 39*(1), 56-63.

Bird, K., & Hughes, D. R. (1997). Ethical consumerism: The case of "Fairly–Traded" coffee. *Business ethics: A European review, 6*(3), 159-167.

Blend, J. R., & Ravenswaay, E. O. v. (1999). Measuring Consumer Demand for Ecolabeled Apples.

Bollen, K. A. (1989). A new incremental fit index for general structural equation models. *Sociological Methods & Research, 17*(3), 303-316.

Boudewyns, V., Turner, M. M., & Paquin, R. S. (2013). Shame-free guilt appeals: testing the emotional and cognitive effects of shame and guilt appeals. *Psychology & Marketing, 30*(9), 811-825.

Bozinoff, L., & Ghingold, M. (1983). Evaluating guilt arousing marketing communications. *Journal of Business Research, 11*(2), 243-255.

Bray, J., Johns, N., & Kilburn, D. (2010). An Exploratory Study into the Factors Impeding Ethical Consumption. *Journal of Business Ethics, 98*(4), 597-608. doi:10.1007/s10551-010-0640-9

Brehm, J. W. (1966). *A Theory of Psychological Reactance*.

Brown, T. A. (2014). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research*: Guilford Publications.

Buchanan, K. (2017). Aussies love buying Fairtrade, but does your money really go where it's needed? *ABC News*.

Burnett, M. S., & Lunsford, D. A. (1994). Conceptualizing guilt in the consumer decision-making process.

Burns, A. C., & Bush, R. F. (2004). *Marketing research: Online research applications*: Prentice Hall.

Butler, L. D., & Nolen-Hoeksema, S. (1994). Gender differences in responses to depressed mood in a college sample. *Sex roles, 30*(5), 331-346.

Byrne, B. M. (2001). Structural equation modeling: Perspectives on the present and the future. *International Journal of Testing, 1*(3-4), 327-334.

Calder, B. J., Phillips, L. W., & Tybout, A. M. (1981). Designing research for application. *Journal of Consumer Research, 8*(2), 197-207.

Campbell, D. T. (1988). *Methodology and epistemology for social science: Selected papers*: University of Chicago Press.

Campbell, M. C. (1995). When attention-getting advertising tactics elicit consumer

Inferences of Manipulative Intent: the importance of balancing benefits and

investments.

Campbell, M. C., & Kirmani, A. (2000). Consumers' use of persuasion knowledge: The effects

of accessibility and cognitive capacity on perceptions of an influence agent. *Journal

of Consumer Research, 27*(1), 69-83.

Carlson, L., Grove, S. J., & Kangun, N. (1993). A Content Analysis of Environmental

Advertising Claims: A Matrix Method Approach. *Journal of Advertising, 22*(3), 27-39.

doi:10.1080/00913367.1993.10673409

Carrigan, M., & Attalla, A. (2001). The myth of the ethical consumer – do ethics matter in

purchase behaviour? *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 18*(7), 560-578.

doi:10.1108/07363760110410263

Case, S. (2004). Eco-Labels: Making environmental purchasing easier. *Government

Procurement, 12*(3), 32-35.

Caswell, J. A., & Padberg, D. I. (1992). Toward a more comprehensive theory of food labels.

*American Journal of Agricultural Economics, 74*(2), 460-468.

Chaiken, S. (1980). Heuristic versus systematic information processing and the use of source

versus message cues in persuasion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,

39*(5), 752.

Chaiken, S., & Eagly, A. H. (1989). Heuristic and systematic information processing within

and. *Unintended thought, 212*.

Chang, C. (2014). Guilt regulation: The relative effects of altruistic versus egoistic appeals for

charity advertising. *Journal of Advertising, 43*(3), 211-227.

Cheer, L. (2015). Beer-battered chips and licorice are healthier than Greek YOGHURT?

Experts slam as misleading the government food labelling system that lets

manufacturers decide what products get rated.   Retrieved

from http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-3158731/Healthy-chips-licorice-two-

stars-Greek-yoghurt-labelled-UNHEALTHY-Australia-s-ridiculous-food-labelling-

fire.html

Chen, S., Duckworth, K., & Chaiken, S. (1999). Motivated heuristic and systematic

processing. *Psychological inquiry, 10*(1), 44-49.

Chkanikova, O., & Lehner, M. (2015). Private eco-brands and green market development:

towards new forms of sustainability governance in the food retailing. *Journal of*

*Cleaner Production, 107*, 74-84. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.05.055

Cialdini, R. B., Darby, B. L., & Vincent, J. E. (1973). Transgression and altruism: A case for

hedonism. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 9*(6), 502-516.

Cialdini, R. B., & Kenrick, D. T. (1976). Altruism as hedonism: A social development

perspective on the relationship of negative mood state and helping. *Journal of*

*Personality and Social Psychology, 34*(5), 907-914.

doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.34.5.907

Cobb-Walgren, C. J., Ruble, C. A., & Donthu, N. (1995). Brand equity, brand preference, and

purchase intent. *Journal of Advertising, 24*(3), 25-40.

Cole, J. S., McCormick, A. C., & Gonyea, R. M. (2012). *Respondent use of straight-lining as a*

*response strategy in education survey research: Prevalence and implications.* Paper

presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association

(AERA).

Conner, D. S., & Mabaya, E. T. (2006). Consumer Preferences for Organic and Fair Trade Chocolate Implications for Sustainable Agriculture in the Developing World.

Cotte, J., Coulter, R. A., & Moore, M. (2005). Enhancing or disrupting guilt: the role of ad credibility and perceived manipulative intent. *Journal of Business Research, 58*(3), 361-368. doi:10.1016/s0148-2963(03)00102-4

Cotte, J., & Ritchie, R. (2005). Advertisers' theories of consumers: Why use negative emotions to sell? *ACR North American Advances*.

Coulter, R. H., Cotte, J., & Moore, M. L. (1999). Believe it or not: persuasion, manipulation and credibility of guilt appeals.

Coulter, R. H., & Pinto, M. B. (1995). Guilt appeals in advertising: what are their effects?

D'Souza, C., Taghian, M., Lamb, P., & Peretiatko, R. (2007). Green decisions: demographics and consumer understanding of environmental labels. *International Journal of Consumer Studies, 31*(4), 371-376. doi:10.1111/j.1470-6431.2006.00567.x

Davis, K. E., & Jones, E. E. (1960). Changes in interpersonal perception as a means of reducing cognitive dissonance. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 61*(3), 402-410. doi:10.1037/h0044214

De Vaus, D. (2013). *Surveys in social research*: Routledge.

Dean, M., Raats, M. M., & Shepherd, R. (2012). The role of self-identity, past behavior, and their interaction in predicting intention to purchase fresh and processed organic food. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 42*(3), 669-688.

Dekhili, S., & Akli Achabou, M. (2014). Eco-labelling brand strategy. *European Business Review, 26*(4), 305-329. doi:10.1108/ebr-06-2013-0090

Didier, T., & Lucie, S. (2008). Measuring consumer's willingness to pay for organic and Fair

    Trade products. *International Journal of Consumer Studies, 32*(5), 479-490.

    doi:10.1111/j.1470-6431.2008.00714.x

Doherty, B., Davies, I. A., & Tranchell, S. (2013). Where now for fair trade? *Business History,*

    *55*(2), 161-189. doi:10.1080/00076791.2012.692083

Doran, C. J. (2008). The Role of Personal Values in Fair Trade Consumption. *Journal of*

    *Business Ethics, 84*(4), 549-563. doi:10.1007/s10551-008-9724-1

Dragusanu, R., Giovannucci, D., & Nunn, N. (2014). The Economics of Fair Trade. *Journal of*

    *Economic Perspectives, 28*(3), 217-236. doi:10.1257/jep.28.3.217

Dziuban, C. D., & Shirkey, E. C. (1974). When is a correlation matrix appropriate for factor

    analysis? Some decision rules. *Psychological Bulletin, 81*(6), 358.

Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993a). Process theories of attitude formation and change: The

    elaboration likelihood and heuristic-systematic models. *The psychology of attitudes*,

    305-349.

Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993b). *The psychology of attitudes*: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich

    College Publishers.

Easton, G. (2002). Marketing: A critical realist approach. *Journal of Business Research, 55*(2),

    103-109.

Edell, J. A., & Burke, M. C. (1987). The Power of Feelings in Understanding Advertising

    Effects.

Fairtrade Australia. (2010-2015). Fairtrade Annual Reports. Retrieved

    from http://fairtrade.com.au/en-au/policies-reports-and-standards

Fairtrade International. (2016). Retrieved from www.fairtrade.net

Fallon, N. (2014). What is corporate social responsibility. *Business News Daily, 1*.

Festinger, L. (1957). Cognitive dissonance theory. *1989) Primary Prevention of HIV/AIDS: Psychological Approaches. Newbury Park, California, Sage Publications*.

Festinger, L., & Carlsmith, J. M. (1959). Cognitive consequences of forced compliance. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 58*(2), 203.

Feunekes, G. I., Gortemaker, I. A., Willems, A. A., Lion, R., & Van Den Kommer, M. (2008). Front-of-pack nutrition labelling: testing effectiveness of different nutrition labelling formats front-of-pack in four European countries. *Appetite, 50*(1), 57-70.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 382-388.

Fraj, E., & Martinez, E. (2007). Ecological consumer behaviour: an empirical analysis. *International Journal of Consumer Studies, 31*(1), 26-33.

Friestad, M., & Wright, P. (1994). The persuasion knowledge model: How people cope with persuasion attempts. *Journal of Consumer Research, 21*(1), 1-31.

Furlow, N. E., & Knott, C. (2009). Who's reading the label? Millennials' use of environmental product labels. *The journal of applied business and economics, 10*(3), 1.

Galarraga Gallastegui, I. (2002). The use of eco-labels: a review of the literature. *European Environment, 12*(6), 316-331. doi:10.1002/eet.304

Gerbing, D. W., & Anderson, J. C. (1988). An updated paradigm for scale development incorporating unidimensionality and its assessment. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 186-192.

Giner-Sorolla, R. (2001). Guilty pleasures and grim necessities: Affective attitudes in dilemmas of self-control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*(2), 206-221. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.80.2.206

Greenwald, A. G. (1968). On defining attitude and attitude theory. *Psychological foundations of attitudes*, 361-388.

Greenwald, A. G., Albert, R. D., Cullen, D., Love, R., & Have, J. S. W. (1968). *Cognitive learning, cognitive response to persuasion, and attitude change.* Paper presented at the In.

Greenwald, A. G., & Banaji, M. R. (1995). Implicit social cognition: attitudes, self-esteem, and stereotypes. *Psychological Review, 102*(1), 4.

Gregory-Smith, D., Smith, A., & Winklhofer, H. (2013). Emotions and dissonance in 'ethical'consumption choices. *Journal of Marketing Management, 29*(11-12), 1201-1223.

Grin, J., & Van de Graaf, H. (1996). Technology assessment as learning. *Science, Technology, & Human Values, 21*(1), 72-99.

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a silver bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 19*(2), 139-152.

Halbert, M. (1965). *The meaning and sources of marketing theory*: New York, McGraw-Hill [1965].

Harmon-Jones, E. E., & Mills, J. E. (1999). *Cognitive dissonance: Progress on a pivotal theory in social psychology.* Paper presented at the Scientific Conferences Program, 1997, U Texas, Arlington, TX, US; This volume is based on papers presented at a 2-day conference at the University of Texas at Arlington, winter 1997.

Hayes, A. F. (2009). Beyond Baron and Kenny: Statistical mediation analysis in the new millennium. *Communication monographs, 76*(4), 408-420.

Heider, F. (1958). 5. The psychology of interpersonal relations: New York.

Hibbert, S., Smith, A., Davies, A., & Ireland, F. (2007). Guilt appeals: Persuasion knowledge and charitable giving. *Psychology and Marketing, 24*(8), 723-742. doi:10.1002/mar.20181

Holbrook, M. B., & Batra, R. (1987). Assessing the role of emotions as mediators of consumer responses to advertising. *Journal of Consumer Research, 14*(3), 404-420.

Howard, P. H., & Allen, P. (2008). Consumer willingness to pay for domestic 'fair trade': Evidence from the United States. *Renewable Agriculture and Food Systems, 23*(03), 235-242. doi:10.1017/s1742170508002275

Hu, L. t., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal, 6*(1), 1-55.

Huhmann, B. A., & Brotherton, T. P. (1997). A Content Analysis of Guilt Appeals in Popular Magazine Advertisements. *Journal of Advertising, 26*(2), 35-45. doi:10.1080/00913367.1997.10673521

Hunt, S. D., Sparkman Jr, R. D., & Wilcox, J. B. (1982). The pretest in survey research: Issues and preliminary findings. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 269-273.

Ibanez, L., & Grolleau, G. (2007). Can Ecolabeling Schemes Preserve the Environment? *Environmental and Resource Economics, 40*(2), 233-249. doi:10.1007/s10640-007-9150-3

Izard, C. E. (2013). *Human emotions.*: Springer Science & Business Media.

Janssen, M., & Hamm, U. (2012). Product labelling in the market for organic food: Consumer preferences and willingness-to-pay for different organic certification logos. *Food Quality and Preference, 25*(1), 9-22. doi:10.1016/j.foodqual.2011.12.004

Jones, E. E. (1972). *Attribution: Perceiving the causes of behavior*: Morristown, NJ: General

Learning Press.

Kaiser, H. F. (1970). A second generation little jiffy. *Psychometrika, 35*(4), 401-415.

Keh, H. T., & Xie, Y. (2009). Corporate reputation and customer behavioral intentions: The

roles of trust, identification and commitment. *Industrial Marketing Management,*

*38*(7), 732-742.

Kelly, B., Hughes, C., Chapman, K., Louie, J. C., Dixon, H., Crawford, J., . . . Slevin, T. (2009).

Consumer testing of the acceptability and effectiveness of front-of-pack food

labelling systems for the Australian grocery market. *Health Promot Int, 24*(2), 120-

129. doi:10.1093/heapro/dap012

Kenny, D. A. (2014). Measuring model fit.

Kenrick, D., Neuberg, S., & Cialdini, R. (2009). *Social Psychology: Unraveling the mystery*:

Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Kim, J., Kim, J., Kim, J.-E., Kim, J.-E., Marshall, R., & Marshall, R. (2016). Are two arguments

always better than one? Persuasion knowledge moderating the effect of integrated

marketing communications. *European Journal of Marketing, 50*(7/8), 1399-1425.

King, M. F., & Bruner, G. C. (2000). Social desirability bias: A neglected aspect of validity

testing. *Psychology and Marketing, 17*(2), 79-103.

Koslow, S. (2000). Can the truth hurt? How honest and persuasive advertising can

unintentionally lead to increased consumer skepticism. *Journal of consumer Affairs,*

*34*(2), 245-267.

Koszewska, M. (2011). Social and eco-labelling of textile and clothing goods as means of

communication and product differentiation. *Fibres & Textiles in Eastern Europe,*

*19*(4), 87.

Kotler, P., & Gertner, D. (2002). Country as brand, product, and beyond: A place marketing

and brand management perspective. *Journal of brand management, 9*(4), 249-261.

Krystallis, A., & Chryssohoidis, G. (2005). Consumers' willingness to pay for organic food.

*British Food Journal, 107*(5), 320-343. doi:10.1108/00070700510596901

Kugler, K., & Jones, W. H. (1992). On conceptualizing and assessing guilt. *Journal of*

*Personality and Social Psychology, 62*(2), 318.

LaBarge, M., & Godek, J. (2006). Mothers, food, love and career–the four major guilt

groups? The differential effects of guilt appeals. *NA-Advances in Consumer Research*

*Volume 33*.

Landa, R. (2016). Building a Brand Narrative in the Digital Age. *Advertising by Design:*

*Generating and Designing Creative Ideas Across Media*, 78-89.

Lascu, D.-N. (1991). Consumer guilt: Examining the potential of a new marketing construct.

*NA-Advances in Consumer Research Volume 18*.

Lee, Y. S. (2000). The sustainability of university-industry research collaboration: An

empirical assessment. *The Journal of Technology Transfer, 25*(2), 111-133.

Lewis, M. (2000). Self-conscious emotions. *Emotions*, 742.

Lim, W., Phau, I., Cheah, I., & Teah, M. (2015). *THE FEAR OF MISSING OUT.* Paper presented

at the 2015 Global Fashion Management Conference at Florence.

Lindsey, L. L. M. (2005). Anticipated Guilt as Behavioral Motivation An Examination of

Appeals to Help Unknown Others Through Bone Marrow Donation. *Human*

*Communication Research*.

Littrell, M. A., & Dickson, M. A. (2006). Employment with a socially responsible business:

Worker capabilities and quality of life. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 24*(3),

192-206.

Low, W., & Davenport, E. (2005). Has the medium (roast) become the message? *International Marketing Review, 22*(5), 494-511. doi:10.1108/02651330510624354

Low, W., & Davenport, E. (2006). Mainstreaming fair trade: adoption, assimilation, appropriation. *Journal of Strategic Marketing, 14*(4), 315-327. doi:10.1080/09652540600947912

Lunardo, R., & Mbengue, A. (2013). When atmospherics lead to inferences of manipulative intent: Its effects on trust and attitude. *Journal of Business Research, 66*(7), 823-830.

Lundqvist, A., Liljander, V., Gummerus, J., & Van Riel, A. (2013). The impact of storytelling on the consumer brand experience: The case of a firm-originated story. *Journal of brand management, 20*(4), 283-297.

Lwin, M. (2010). The role of anticipatory guilt in a non-durable consumer goods context.

Lwin, M., & Phau, I. (2008a). Guilt appeals in advertising: investigating the roles of inferences of manipulative intent and attitudes towards advertising.

Lwin, M., & Phau, I. (2008b). Guilt appeals in advertising: the mediating roles of inferences of manipulative intent and attitude towards advertising.

Lwin, M., & Phau, I. (2008c). *Guilt Appeals in Advertising: The Mediating Roles of Inferences of Manipulative Intent and Attitudes Towards Advertising*: Curtin Business School, School of Marketing.

Lwin, M., & Phau, I. (2014). An exploratory study of existential guilt appeals in charitable advertisements. *Journal of Marketing Management, 30*(13-14), 1467-1485. doi:10.1080/0267257x.2014.939215

Lwin, M., & Phau, I. (2015). *EXPLORING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF GUILT IN A LUXURY BRANDING CONTEXT.* Paper presented at the 2015 Global Fashion Management Conference at Florence.

MacGillivray, A. (2000). The fair share: The growing market share of green and ethical products. *London: New Economics Foundation*.

Machleit, K. A., Allen, C. T., & Madden, T. J. (1993). The mature brand and brand interest: An alternative consequence of ad-evoked affect. *The Journal of Marketing*, 72-82.

Mackenzie, N., & Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues in educational research, 16*(2), 193-205.

Mackenzie, S. B., & Lutz, R. J. (1989). An Empirical Examination of the Structural Antecedents of Attitude Toward the Ad in an Advertising Pretesting Context.

MacKinnon, D. P., Fairchild, A. J., & Fritz, M. S. (2007). Mediation analysis. *Annu. Rev. Psychol., 58*, 593-614.

Maison, D. (2002). Using the Implicit Association Test to Study the Relation between Consumer's Implicit Attitudes and Product Usage'. *Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research, 5*, 206-207.

Månsson, S., & Björling, G. (2017). Implementation and Perception of Modern Marketing: A qualitative study on Storytelling, Brand Identification, and Content Marketing used and perceived in a marketing perspective.

Mardia, K. V. (1970). Measures of multivariate skewness and kurtosis with applications. *Biometrika, 57*(3), 519-530.

McDonald, R. P., & Ho, M.-H. R. (2002). Principles and practice in reporting structural equation analyses. *Psychological methods, 7*(1), 64.

Mejean, C., Macouillard, P., Péneau, S., Hercberg, S., & Castetbon, K. (2013). Consumer acceptability and understanding of front-of-pack nutrition labels. *Journal of Human Nutrition and Dietetics, 26*(5), 494-503.

Méndez, V. E., Bacon, C. M., Olson, M., Petchers, S., Herrador, D., Carranza, C., . . . Mendoza, A. (2010). Effects of Fair Trade and organic certifications on small-scale coffee farmer households in Central America and Mexico. *Renewable Agriculture and Food Systems, 25*(03), 236-251. doi:10.1017/s1742170510000268

Moore, G. (2004). The fair trade movement: Parameters, issues and future research. *Journal of Business Ethics, 53*(1-2), 73-86.

Moore, G., Gibbon, J., & Slack, R. (2006). The mainstreaming of Fair Trade: a macromarketing perspective. *Journal of Strategic Marketing, 14*(4), 329-352. doi:10.1080/09652540600947961

Morgan, G., Gregory, F., & Roach, C. (1997). Images of organization.

Muehling, D. D., Sprott, D. E., & Sprott, D. E. (2004). The power of reflection: an empirical examination of nostalgia advertising effects. *Journal of Advertising, 33*(3), 25-35.

Mukhopadhyay, A., & Johar, G. V. (2005). Where there is a will, is there a way? Effects of lay theories of self-control on setting and keeping resolutions. *Journal of Consumer Research, 31*(4), 779-786.

Nancarrow, C., Tiu Wright, L., & Brace, I. (1998). Gaining competitive advantage from packaging and labelling in marketing communications. *British Food Journal, 100*(2), 110-118. doi:10.1108/00070709810204101

Nestle, M., & Ludwig, D. S. (2010). Front-of-package food labels: Public health or propaganda? *JAMA, 303*(8), 771-772.

Netemeyer, R. G., Krishnan, B., Pullig, C., Wang, G., Yagci, M., Dean, D., . . . Wirth, F. (2004). Developing and validating measures of facets of customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Business Research, 57*(2), 209-224. doi:10.1016/s0148-2963(01)00303-4

Nicholls, A. J. (2002). Strategic options in fair trade retailing. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management, 30*(1), 6-17. doi:10.1108/09590550210415220

Nilsson, H., Tuncer, B., & Thidell, A. (2004). The use of eco-labeling like initiatives on food products to promote quality assurance—is there enough credibility? *Journal of Cleaner Production 12 (2004) 517–526*.

Noar, S. M. (2003). The role of structural equation modeling in scale development. *Structural equation modeling, 10*(4), 622-647.

Nunnally, J. C. (1967). Psychometric theory.

Olney, T. J., Holbrook, M. B., & Batra, R. (1991). Consumer Responses to Advertising: The Effects of Ad Content, Emotions, and Attitude toward the Ad on Viewing Time.

Olson, M. H. (2016). Blog: The Hunger Games - Achieving Zero Hunger Requires Making Trade Fair.   Retrieved from http://fairtrade.com.au/News/News/Archive/BLOG-Achieving-zero-hunger-requires-making-trade-fair

Oppenheimer, D. M., Meyvis, T., & Davidenko, N. (2009). Instructional manipulation checks: Detecting satisficing to increase statistical power. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 45*(4), 867-872.

Parrott, W. G. (2001). *Emotions in social psychology: Essential readings.*: Psychology Press.

Pascal, V. J., Sprott, D. E., & Muehling, D. D. (2002). The influence of evoked nostalgia on consumers' responses to advertising: an exploratory study. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 24*(1), 39-47.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative designs and data collection. *Qualitative research & evaluation methods*, 207-339.

Pearce, D. W., & Turner, R. K. (1990). *Economics of natural resources and the environment*: JHU Press.

Pearlin, L. I., & Schooler, C. (1978). The structure of coping. *Journal of health and social behavior*, 2-21.

Peloza, J., White, K., & Shang, J. (2013). Good and guilt-free: The role of self-accountability in influencing preferences for products with ethical attributes. *Journal of Marketing, 77*(1), 104-119.

Pelsmacker, P. D., Driesen, L., & Rayp, G. (2005). Do Consumers Care about Ethics? Willingness to Pay for Fair-Trade Coffee.

Peter, J. P. (1981). Construct validity: A review of basic issues and marketing practices. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 133-145.

Petty, R. E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1986). *The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion.* New York: Springer.

Plutchik, R. (2001). The Nature of Emotions. *American Scientist, 89*(4), 344-350.

Prayag, G., & Soscia, I. (2016). Guilt-decreasing marketing appeals: The efficacy of vacation advertising on Chinese tourists. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 33*(4), 551-565.

Previte, J., Russell-Bennett, R., & Parkinson, J. (2015). Shaping safe drinking cultures: evoking positive emotion to promote moderate-drinking behaviour. *International Journal of Consumer Studies, 39*(1), 12-24.

Rashid, N. R. N. A. (2009). Awareness of eco-label in Malaysia's green marketing initiative. *International journal of business and management, 4*(8), 132-141.

Rawlings, E. I. (1970). Reactive guilt and anticipatory guilt in altruistic behavior. *Altruism and helping behavior*, 163-177.

Raykov, T. (1997). Estimation of composite reliability for congeneric measures. *Applied Psychological Measurement, 21*(2), 173-184.

Reinhard, M.-A., Schindler, S., Raabe, V., Stahlberg, D., & Messner, M. (2014). Less is sometimes more: How repetition of an antismoking advertisement affects attitudes toward smoking and source credibility. *Social Influence, 9*(2), 116-132.

Renner, S., Lindenmeier, J., Tscheulin, D. K., & Drevs, F. (2013). Guilt appeals and prosocial behavior: an experimental analysis of the effects of anticipatory versus reactive guilt appeals on the effectiveness of blood donor appeals. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing, 25*(3), 237-255.

Reynolds, N., & Diamantopoulos, A. (1998). The effect of pretest method on error detection rates. *European Journal of Marketing, 32*(5/6), 480-498. doi:10.1108/03090569810216091

Roach, L., Laidlaw, K., Gillanders, D., & Quinn, K. (2013). Validation of the Caregiver Guilt Questionnaire (CGQ) in a sample of British dementia caregivers. *International psychogeriatrics, 25*(12), 2001-2010.

Roberts, B. W., & DelVecchio, W. F. (2000). The rank-order consistency of personality traits from childhood to old age: a quantitative review of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin, 126*(1), 3.

Robinette, S., Brand, C., & Lenz, V. (2001). Emotion Marketing: The Hallmark Way of Winning Customers for Life.

Ruben, R., & Fort, R. (2012). The Impact of Fair Trade Certification for Coffee Farmers in Peru. *World Development, 40*(3), 570-582. doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2011.07.030

Ruben, R., Fort, R., & Zúñiga-Arias, G. (2009). Measuring the impact of fair trade on development. *Development in Practice, 19*(6), 777-788. doi:10.1080/09614520903027049

Saha, M., & Darnton, G. (2005). Green companies or green con-panies: are companies really green, or are they pretending to be? *Business and Society Review, 110*(2), 117-157.

Sammer, K., & Wüstenhagen, R. (2006). The influence of eco-labelling on consumer behaviour – results of a discrete choice analysis for washing machines. *Business Strategy and the Environment, 15*(3), 185-199. doi:10.1002/bse.522

Santos, J. R. A. (1999). Cronbach's alpha: A tool for assessing the reliability of scales. *Journal of extension, 37*(2), 1-5.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2016). Research methods for business students, 7/e: Pearson.

Schlegelmilch, B. B., Love, A., & Diamantopoulos, A. (1997). Responses to different charity appeals: the impact of donor characteristics on the amount of donations. *European Journal of Marketing, 31*(8), 548-560.

Sexton, S. E., & Sexton, A. L. (2014). Conspicuous conservation: The Prius halo and willingness to pay for environmental bona fides. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management, 67*(3), 303-317.

Shapiro, S. S., & Wilk, M. B. (1965). An analysis of variance test for normality (complete samples). *Biometrika, 52*(3/4), 591-611.

Shaw, D., & Clarke, I. (1999). Belief formation in ethical consumer groups: an exploratory study. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 17*(2), 109-120.

Sherer, M., Maddux, J. E., Mercandante, B., Prentice-Dunn, S., Jacobs, B., & Rogers, R. w. (1982). The self-efficacy scale: construction and validation. *Psychological Reports, 51*(2), 663-671.

Siegrist, M., Leins-Hess, R., & Keller, C. (2015). Which front-of-pack nutrition label is the most efficient one? The results of an eye-tracker study. *Food Quality and Preference, 39*, 183-190.

Silayoi, P., & Speece, M. (2007). The importance of packaging attributes: a conjoint analysis approach. *European Journal of Marketing, 41*(11/12), 1495-1517. doi:10.1108/03090560710821279

Spears, N., & Singh, S. N. (2004). Measuring attitude toward the brand and purchase intentions. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 26*(2), 53-66.

Strahilevitz, M. (1999). The Effects of Product Type and Donation Magnitude on Willingness to Pay More for a Charity-Linked Brand. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 8*(3), 215-241. doi:10.1207/s15327663jcp0803_02

Taillard, M.-O. (2000). Persuasive communication: the case of marketing. *Working Papers in Linguistics, 12*, 145-174.

Tangney, J. P., Miller, R. S., Flicker, L., & Barlow, D. H. (1996). Are shame, guilt, and embarrassment distinct emotions? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*(6), 1256.

Tate, K. A., Fouad, N. A., Marks, L. R., Young, G., Guzman, E., & Williams, E. G. (2015). Underrepresented first-generation, low-income college students' pursuit of a graduate education: Investigating the influence of self-efficacy, coping efficacy, and family influence. *Journal of Career Assessment, 23*(3), 427-441.

Taylor, W. J. (1965). " Is Marketing a Science?" Revisited. *The Journal of Marketing*, 49-53.

Thomas, V. L., Fowler, K., & Grimm, P. (2013). Conceptualization and exploration of attitude toward advertising disclosures and its impact on perceptions of manipulative intent. *Journal of consumer Affairs, 47*(3), 564-587.

Thomson, M., MacInnis, D. J., & Whan Park, C. (2005). The Ties That Bind: Measuring the Strength of Consumers' Emotional Attachments to Brands. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 15*(1), 77-91. doi:10.1207/s15327663jcp1501_10

Tonin, M., & Vlassopoulos, M. (2017). Sharing one's fortune? An experimental study on earned income and giving. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics, 66*, 112-118.

Tsang, M. M., Ho, S.-C., & Liang, T.-P. (2004). Consumer attitudes toward mobile advertising: An empirical study. *International journal of electronic commerce, 8*(3), 65-78.

Tsoukas, H., & Knudsen, C. (2005). *The Oxford handbook of organization theory*: Oxford University Press, USA.

Tucker, E. M., Rifon, N. J., Lee, E. M., & Reece, B. B. (2012). Consumer Receptivity to Green Ads. *Journal of Advertising, 41*(4), 9-23. doi:10.1080/00913367.2012.10672454

Ulrich, P., & Sarasin, C. (2012). *Facing public interest: The ethical challenge to business policy and corporate communications* (Vol. 8): Springer Science & Business Media.

Uprichard, E. (2013). Sampling: bridging probability and non-probability designs. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 16*(1), 1-11.

Valkila, J. (2009). Fair Trade organic coffee production in Nicaragua — Sustainable development or a poverty trap? *Ecological Economics, 68*(12), 3018-3025. doi:10.1016/j.ecolecon.2009.07.002

van Amstel, M., Driessen, P., & Glasbergen, P. (2008). Eco-labeling and information asymmetry: a comparison of five eco-labels in the Netherlands. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 16*(3), 263-276. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2006.07.039

Van Trijp, H. C. (2013). *Encouraging sustainable behavior: Psychology and the environment*: Psychology Press.

Voinea, A. (2016). Rio turns into Fair Trade Town during Olympics. *The News Coop*.

Wandel, M. (1997). Food labelling from a consumer perspective. *British Food Journal, 99*(6), 212-219. doi:10.1108/00070709710181559

Weems, G. H., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2001). The impact of midpoint responses and reverse coding on survey data. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 34*(3), 166.

Weiner, B. (1974). *Achievement motivation and attribution theory*: General Learning Press.

Wertenbroch, K., & Skiera, B. (2002). Measuring consumers' willingness to pay at the point of purchase. *Journal of Marketing Research, 39*(2), 228-241.

Witkowski, T. H. (2015). Fair Trade Marketing: An Alternative System for Globalization and Development. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 13*(4), 22-33. doi:10.1080/10696679.2005.11658556

Wolf, E. J., Harrington, K. M., Clark, S. L., & Miller, M. W. (2013). Sample size requirements for structural equation models: An evaluation of power, bias, and solution propriety. *Educational and psychological measurement, 73*(6), 913-934.

Wonneberger, A. (2017). Environmentalism—A Question of Guilt? Testing a Model of Guilt Arousal and Effects for Environmental Campaigns. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 1-19.

Wortman, C. B., & Brehm, J. W. (1975). Responses to uncontrollable outcomes: An integration of reactance theory and the learned helplessness model. *Advances in experimental social psychology, 8*, 277-336.

Yamoah, F. A., Fearne, A., & Duffy, R. (2014). Exploring supermarket loyalty card analysis to identify who buys fairtrade. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research, 24*(3), 328-346. doi:10.1080/09593969.2014.890954

Yang, B., Kim, Y., & Yoo, C. (2013). The integrated mobile advertising model: The effects of technology-and emotion-based evaluations. *Journal of Business Research, 66*(9), 1345-1352.

Yavas, U. (1994). Research note: students as subjects in advertising and marketing research. *International Marketing Review, 11*(4), 35-43.

Young, W., Hwang, K., McDonald, S., & Oates, C. J. (2009). Sustainable consumption: green consumer behaviour when purchasing products. *Sustainable Development*, n/a-n/a. doi:10.1002/sd.394

Zikmund, W. (2000). G.(2000). *Business research methods, 6*.

# 8  Appendix

## 8.1   Appendix 1: Survey Instrument

**Study on the effectiveness of guilt appeals on certified products**

Dear Respondent,

The purpose of this study is to explore the effects of labelling on consumers' attitude and willingness to pay more for labelled products. It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete the survey and there are no right or wrong answers. Please answer all the questions in this survey form and give the response which most accurately reflects your views. Please note that your answers will be aggregated and treated with the strictest confidence.  Please note that you have a choice to participate in this survey and that you may end the survey at any time without giving a reason or justification. In addition, Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) has approved this study (HREC number: HRE2017-0134). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on (08) 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on (08) 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au. You acknowledge that you have received information regarding this research and had an opportunity to ask questions. You believe that you understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of your involvement in this project and you voluntarily consent to take part. Completion of the survey will be taken as evidence of consent to participate in this study.

I would like to thank you for taking the time to complete the survey. If you have any questions regarding the survey, please contact the researcher:

Kevin Teah

Mail:    GPO Box U1987, Perth Western Australia 6845

Email:   kevin.teah@curtin.edu.au

**Section A**

For each of the following statements, please circle the value that closely represents your views (1 stands for strongly disagree while 7 stands for strongly agree).

| A1 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | | | | Strongly Agree | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I am very familiar with Snickers products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | I am very familiar with the types of retail stores that carry Snickers products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | I am very familiar with the type of advertising that Snickers currently uses. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| A2 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | | | | Strongly Agree | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I think Snickers products are very good. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | I think Snickers products are not useful. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | My opinion of Snickers is very favourable. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| A3 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | | | | | Strongly Agree | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I have heard of Fairtrade. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Please take a look at the following video before continuing on to the next section.

[Filler task video here]

| A4 | For each of the following emotions, please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling after watching the video: | Strongly Disagree | | | | | Strongly Agree | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Upset | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | Guilty | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | Uneasy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | Bad | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | Irresponsible | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | Ashamed | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7 | Happy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8 | Laugh | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9 | Accountable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| 10 | Smile | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
|----|-------|---------------|
| 11 | Amused | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 12 | Good | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 13 | Irritated | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 14 | Annoyed | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 15 | Angry | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |

| A5 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | Strongly Agree |
|----|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|----|
| 1 | I am very familiar with Bahen & Co. products. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |  |
| 2 | I am very familiar with the types of retail stores that carry Bahen & Co. products. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |  |
| 3 | I am very familiar with the type of advertising that Bahen & Co. currently uses. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |  |

| A6 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | Strongly Agree |
|----|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|----|
| 1 | I think Bahen & Co. products are very good. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |  |

| 2 | I think Bahen & Co. products are not useful. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
|---|---|---|
| 3 | My opinion of Bahen & Co. is very favourable. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |

Please take a look at the following video before continuing on to the next section.

[Video stimulus here. Please refer to Appendix 2 for more information]

## Section B

For each of the following statements, please circle the value that closely represents your views (1 stands for strongly disagree while 7 stands for strongly agree).

| B1 | For each of the following emotions, please indicate the extent to which you had a particular feeling after watching the video: | Strongly Disagree | | | | Strongly Agree | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Upset | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | Guilty | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | Uneasy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | Bad | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | Irresponsible | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | Ashamed | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7 | Happy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8 | Laugh | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9 | Accountable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10 | Smile | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11 | Amused | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12 | Good | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| 13 | Irritated | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
|----|-----------|---------------|
| 14 | Annoyed | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 15 | Angry | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |

| B2 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | | Strongly Agree |
|----|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|---|----------------|
| 1 | The ad is believable. | 1 2 3 4 | 5 | 6 7 |
| 2 | The ad is truthful. | 1 2 3 4 | 5 | 6 7 |
| 3 | The ad is realistic. | 1 2 3 4 | 5 | 6 7 |

| B3 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | | Strongly Agree |
|----|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|---|----------------|
| 1 | I have good attitudes towards this ad. | 1 2 3 4 | 5 | 6 7 |
| 2 | My attitude towards the ad is favourable. | 1 2 3 4 | 5 | 6 7 |
| 3 | My attitude towards this ad is positive. | 1 2 3 4 | 5 | 6 7 |
| 4 | I dislike this ad. | 1 2 3 4 | 5 | 6 7 |

| B4 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | | | | | Strongly Agree | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I think Bahen & Co. products are very good. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | I think Bahen & Co. products are not useful. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | My opinion of Bahen & Co. is very favourable. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| B5 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | | | | | Strongly Agree | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | The way this ad tries to persuade people seems acceptable to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | The advertiser tried to manipulate the audience in ways I do not like. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | I am pleased with this ad because the advertiser is trying to control the consumer audience appropriately. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | I didn't mind this ad; the advertiser tried to be persuasive without being excessively manipulative. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | The ad was fair in what was said and shown. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | I think that this advertisement is fair. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| B6 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | | | | | Strongly Agree | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I would feel guilty for purchasing non-Fairtrade products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | I would blame myself for not supporting Fairtrade products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3 | I would feel guilty for not supporting companies that advocate the Fairtrade agreement. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 | I would feel guilty if I didn't purchase Fairtrade products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5 | I would feel disappointed in myself if I bought a non-Fairtrade product. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | I would feel ashamed for buying non-Fairtrade products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7 | I would feel irresponsible for buying non-Fairtrade products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| B7 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | | | | | Strongly Agree | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I am capable of purchasing Bahen & Co. chocolates in the future. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2 | I am confident that I will be able to purchase the Bahen & Co. chocolates in the future. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| 3 | If it were entirely to me, I am confident I would be able to purchase the Bahen & Co. chocolates in the future. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 |
|---|---|---|
| 4 | It is very likely that I will buy Bahen & Co. chocolate the next time I need it. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 |

| B8 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I will definitely buy Bahen & Co. products. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | |
| 2 | I will definitely recommend a friend to buy Bahen & Co. products. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | |

| B9 | Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following. | Strongly Disagree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | The price of Bahen & Co. would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to a non-Fairtrade chocolate brand. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | |
| 2 | I am willing to pay a higher price for Bahen & Co. than for other non-Fairtrade chocolate brands. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | |
| 3 | I am willing to pay a lot more for Bahen & Co. than for other non-Fairtrade chocolate brand. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | |

**Section C**

The following section contains demographic questions that are used to help classify

information. Your responses will not be linked to you in any way and will remain

confidential. Please answer all questions by circling one number for each question.

| 1 | What is your gender? | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| [1] | Female | [2] | Male |

| 2 | What is your age group? | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| [1] | 17 and under | [2] | 18 – 24 | [3] | 25 – 35 |
| [4] | 35 – 44 | [5] | 45 – 54 | [6] | 55 – 64 |
| [7] | 65+ | | | | |

| 3 | What is the level of your education qualifications? | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| [1] | Secondary | [2] | Diploma or | [3] | Bachelor degree |
| [4] | Postgraduate degree | [5] | Other_____ | | |

| 4 | What is your annual income?  (Income per annum in AUD) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| [1] | Under $20,000 | [2] | $20, 001 - $50, 000 | [3] | $50, 001 - $100,000 |
| [4] | $100,001 - $150,000 | [5] | $150,001 - $200,000 | [6] | $200,000 and above |

| 5 | What is your country of residence? | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| [1] | Australia | [2] | Singapore | [3] | Malaysia |
| [4] | China | [5] | Korean | [6] | South African |
| [7] | Indonesian | [8] | Other____ | | |

| 6 | How long have you been residing in Australia? | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| [1] | Less than 2 years. | [2] | More than 2 years. |

**End of survey**

**Thank you for your time and participation!**

## 8.2 Appendix 2: Video Stimulus

Video Stimulus Notes:

This section showcases the frames of the video used in the stimulus for the survey. The video has animations and motifs relating to Fairtrade. All four conditions have a similar video. The differences are the call to action page at the end of the stimulus and the accompanying music. Each stimulus had a different call to action page. Only the [Control] condition had upbeat music. The [Statement], [Logo], and [Statement + Logo] conditions had music of a sadder nature aimed at inducing guilt.

The videos are uploaded on Youtube and can be found at these links:

1. [Statement] Condition: https://youtu.be/97Rip5v7CCg
2. [Logo] Condition: https://youtu.be/gO4HTN7PwSg
3. [Statement + Logo] Condition: https://youtu.be/2wbHVAha_Vw
4. [Control] Condition: https://youtu.be/ex3yQUvNoyE

STEP THIS WAY

AND MEET
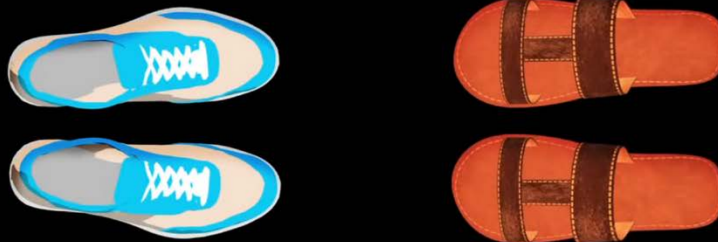
CONRAD

# MARY

# LEAH

# THEY WORK HARD GROWING THE
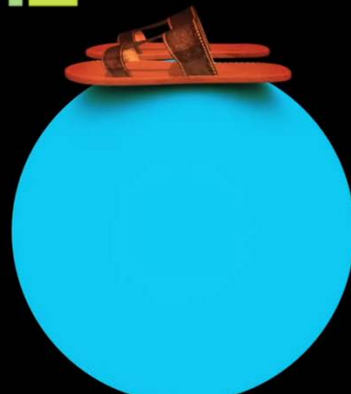
COCOA IN YOUR

CHOCOLATE



BUT
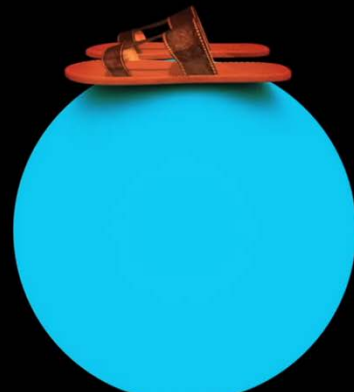


FARMERS ARE OFTEN

UNDERPAID

OPPORTUNITIES ARE NOT EQUAL FOR

WOMEN

AND THERE IS

CHILD SLAVERY

WHY?

BECAUSE THE RULES AIN'T FAIR


BECAUSE TRADE ISN'T WORKING


SO HOW ABOUT WE CHANGE THIS?

STEP BY STEP



LOTS OF PEOPLE CHOOSING FAIRTRADE



MEANS FARMERS

AND SEE THEIR CHILDREN GO TO SCHOOL
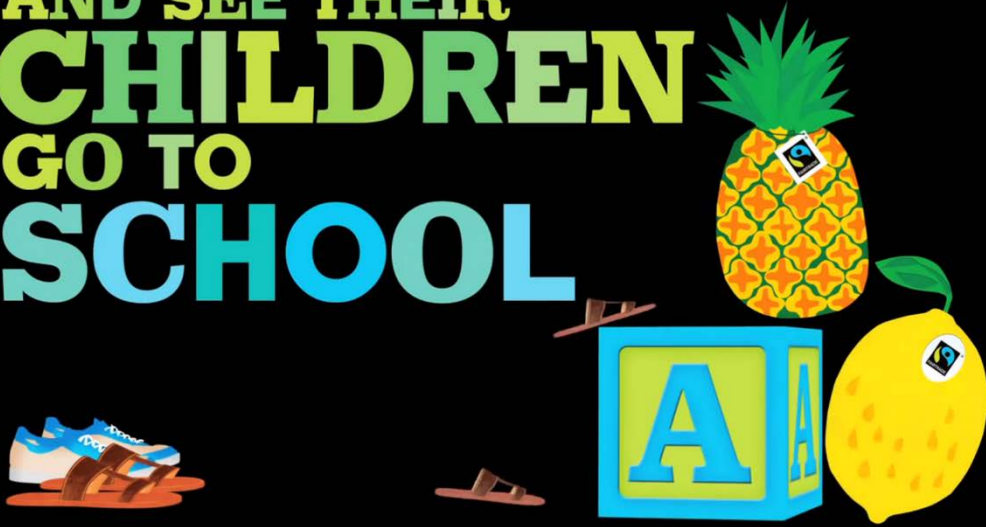
ALL OUR STEPS

COULD LEAD TO

BIG CHANGES
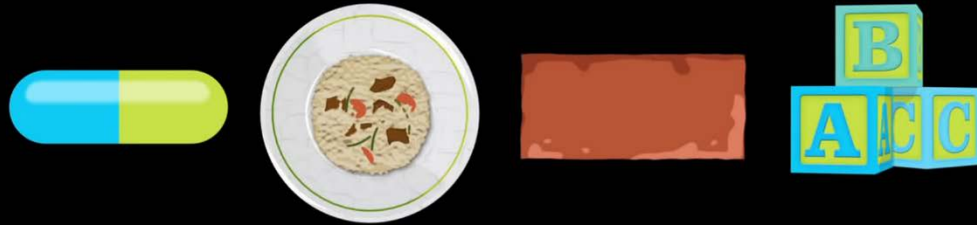
FOR WHOLE COMMUNITIES

[Call to action page for [Statement] Condition]

[Call to action page for [Logo] Condition]



[Call to action page for [Statement + Logo] Condition]

## 8.3 Appendix 3: Ethics Forms

# Copyright and Release of Thesis for Examination

## Higher Degree by Research Students

**Curtin University**

This form must be completed in accordance with Rule 10: Degree of Doctor by Research and Rule 11: Degree of Master by Research, available at http://policies.curtin.edu.au/legislation/internallegislation/statutes_rules.cfm. The form must be submitted, with the thesis, to the Thesis Examinations Officer, Graduate Research School, Level 1, Building 101.

## Part 1: Student Details

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Student Number | 19034438 | Title | ☑ Mr | ○ Ms | Other _____ |
| Surname/Family name | TEAH | Given Name | JUN-HUAN | | |
| Title of Course | MPHIL | | | | |
| Faculty | CURTIN BUSINESS SCHOOL | Enrolling Area | MARKETING | | |
| Title of Thesis | | | | | |

Thesis Release    ☑ Thesis is submitted for examination    OR    ○ Thesis is submitted in a revised form for re-examination

## Part 2: Thesis Format

1. I am submitting my thesis in the form of, as described in Section 11(b)-(e) of the Rules,

    ☑ (i) a typescript; or

    ○ (ii) a creative or literary work or series of works in any approved medium accompanied by an exegesis; or

    ○ (iii) a published book or series of published papers *(complete Part 7)*.

2. I declare that my

    ○ (i) **Doctoral** thesis does not exceed 100,000 words, excluding appendices, tables and illustrative matter (for typescript), or alternatively, my exegesis (accompanying a creative or literary work or series of works) does not exceed 40,000 words excluding appendices, tables and illustrative matter.

    **or**

    ☑ (ii) **Masters** thesis does not exceed 60,000 words, excluding appendices, tables and illustrative matter (for typescript), or alternatively, my exegesis (accompanying a creative or literary work or series of works) does not exceed 20,000 words excluding appendices, tables and illustrative matter.

3. I declare that the thesis conforms to all other formatting requirements specified under Sections 11(d) (ii)-(vi) of the Rules.

4. The signed and dated Declaration Page has been inserted immediately following the title page with the statement below;

    *To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made. This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.*

5. I confirm that;

    ☑ an **Abstract**, or short summary of my thesis of **not more than 75 words**, approved by my Supervisor, has been emailed to the Thesis Examinations Officer via thesis@curtin.edu.au for inclusion in my Australian Higher Education Graduation Statement (see http://graduations.curtin.edu.au/ahegs.cfm for details)

## Part 3: Copyright Declaration

Curtin students and staff are subject to the provisions of the Commonwealth of Australia Copyright Act 1968.
For information on copyright as it applies to Curtin HDR students refer to
http://www.copyright.curtin.edu.au/research/high_degree_theses.cfm.

6.  I warrant that the thesis contains no material which infringes the copyright of any other person(s).

7.  I warrant that I have obtained, where necessary, permission from the copyright owners to use any third-party copyright material reproduced in the thesis, or to use any of my own published work (e.g. journal articles) in which the copyright is held by another party (e.g. publisher, co-author).
    *A sample letter requesting permission to reproduce material in a thesis is available online at*
    *http://www.copyright.curtin.edu.au/docs/hdr_students_permission_request.pdf.*

    ○ Permission statements are included in an appendix to the thesis; or

    ⊘ No permission statements were required.

8.  The following statement has been included at the end of the Bibliography/Reference List in the thesis;

    ☑ *Every reasonable effort has been made to acknowledge the owners of copyright material. I would be pleased to hear from any copyright owner who has been omitted or incorrectly acknowledged.*

## Part 4: Third Party Collaboration and Thesis Editing

9.  I declare that I have stated clearly and fully in the thesis the extent of any collaboration with others. To the best of my knowledge and belief the thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made.

10. A professional proofreader/editor was used in preparing the final thesis.     ○ YES   ⊘ NO

11. Where a professional proofreader/editor was used in preparing the final thesis, I declare that I have read and complied with the "Guidelines for the Editing of Research Theses by Professional Editors" available at http://research.curtin.edu.au/postgraduate-research/current-research-students/student-policies-and-procedures/.

## Part 5: Ownership of Intellectual Property

12. I declare that I have read and understood the *Ownership of Intellectual Property* policy and its supporting procedures available at http://www.policies.curtin.edu.au/policies/research.cfm.

13. I understand that all intellectual property created by me in the course of this research belongs to me UNLESS it arises from
    (a) participation in a University Project[1] (in which case it is owned by the University, and I declare that I, as the Student, have entered into an agreement with the University in respect of the Intellectual Property that was so generated);
    (b) work undertaken with a Specific Contribution by the University[2] (in which case it is owned by the University);
    (c) a program supported in whole or in part by a third party funding body (in which case the ownership of any Intellectual Property developed by me as the Student has been determined by an agreement with the third party funding body).

    [1] ***University Project*** *means a self-contained program of work or research administered by or on behalf of the University which is funded by:*
    *i.   an external source; or*
    *ii.  a specific direct allocation of significant infrastructure support or other University Resources beyond that which is ordinarily provided to a School or other University organisational unit or University Research Institute.*
    [2] ***Specific Contribution,*** *in relation to the creation of Intellectual Property, means funding, resources, facilities or apparatus which are contributed by the University (beyond that which is ordinarily contributed) but excludes a scholarship awarded by the University as a contribution to a specific University Project.*

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

15. I, as the copyright owner of the thesis, and following the award of the degree,

○ (i) grant the University the right to display or copy any or all of the thesis, in all forms of media, for use within the University, and to make available the thesis to other persons or organisations being either educational or industrial, for reference purposes or for other legitimate educational purposes;

**or**

⊘ (ii) RESTRICT ACCESS to the entire work for patent and/or proprietary reasons (reasons attached).

*(To be completed by students who ticked option (iii) under question 1, i.e., thesis in the format of "a published book or series of published papers".)*

16. I declare that all of the papers have either been (i) published in refereed scholarly media or (ii) accepted for publication but have not yet appeared in refereed scholarly media. The full citations are listed under item 21 below. ☑

17. I declare that only papers based on research conducted during the period of my enrolment have been included. ☑

18. I declare that a full explanatory introduction and a review section have been included in the thesis to link the separate papers and to place them in the context of an established body of knowledge. ☐

19. I declare that a literature review has been included. ☐

20. I declare that where there are papers for which I am a joint author, my contribution has been clearly identified in the thesis. A written statement from each co-author attesting to my contribution in the joint publication(s) is included in the thesis. **A copy of the written statements is attached.** ☐

21. A list of the papers making up the thesis is attached on a separate sheet [*Provide full citations including author(s)* ☐

22. I declare that I have submitted the thesis chapters through Turnitin, via the Originality Checking links provided in the Research Integrity – HDR training in Blackboard. I have discussed the results of the Originality/Similarity Report with my supervisor. If/where amendments were required, they have been undertaken accordingly. ☑

*In signing this form, I* _JUN-HUAN TEAH_ *confirm agreement with the statements above.*
*(student's name)*

**Signature of Student** ████ Date 12/9/17.

☑ *On behalf of the Thesis Committee, I warrant that the student has completed this form accurately and approve that the thesis be submitted for examination.*

**Signature of Supervisor** ████ ████ Date 8/9/2017

**OR REVISE & RESUBMIT**

☐ *On behalf of the Thesis Committee, we warrant that the student has completed this form accurately and approve that the thesis be submitted in a revised form for re-examination.*

**Signature of Supervisor** _____ Date _____

**Signature of Chairperson** _____ Date _____

# Office of Research and Development
Receipt for Submission of Higher Degree Thesis for Examination

**Curtin University**

**Student ID Number:** 1 9 0 3 4 4 3 8    **Title:** [✓] Mr  [ ] Ms  [ ] Other _____

**Family Name:** TEAH    **Given Name:** JUN-HUAN

**Course Title (e.g. PhD):** MPHIL

**School/Department:** CURTIN BUSINESS SCHOOL    **Faculty:** MARKETING

**Supervisor Name:** PROF. IAN PHAU , DR MICHAEL LWIN

**Format of Thesis:** [✓] Typescript (incl. Hybrid)    [ ] Publications    [ ] Creative Works

Have you been in receipt of a Curtin postgraduate scholarship in the last 6 months?    [ ] YES  [✓] NO

If YES, what is the name of the scholarship or award? _____

***Please note: You must notify the Scholarships Office once you have submitted your thesis: research_scholarships@curtin.edu.au. Failure to do so may result in an overpayment.***

Student Signature: _____    Date: 12/9/17

---

*Office Use Only*

**To be completed by Thesis Examinations Officer (TEO)**

Date examiners approved by the FGSC: _____

Date PDF of thesis received: _____

Declaration Page signed?    [ ]

Copyright & Release of Thesis form received?    [ ]

75 word Abstract received?    [ ]

Signature: _____    Submission Date: _____

# You have submitted your thesis – what happens now?

***Will I still be enrolled?***
Yes. Your enrolment status will be changed to "Under Examination" and you will not incur any further tuition fees for your HDR course. You will still be liable for other charges such as fines, debts, sanctions, and the Student services and amenities fee (SSAF).

***How long will the examination process take?***
Once your thesis has been sent out for examination, we will advise your thesis committee. Examiners are requested to complete their report within six (6) weeks of receiving the thesis, however delays are frequent. Please allow an average of three (3) months before you can expect to hear of the outcome. Overdue examination reports will be referred to your Chairperson if necessary.

***What happens to the examiners' reports?***
When both examiners' reports have been received and processed, they will be forwarded to the Chairperson of your thesis committee. The Chairperson is responsible for providing the examiners' reports to your Supervisor, who will discuss the corrections with you. Please direct any queries you have about this process to the Chairperson or your Supervisor.

***What will the examiners' reports say?***
There are two parts to the examiner's report. The Examination Report page asks the examiner to recommend that your thesis be classified as **passed unconditionally** (with minor corrections to presentation), OR **passed conditionally** (with corrections to be made to the satisfaction of the Chairperson), OR **revised and resubmitted** for examination (substantial amendments to be made) OR **failed** (if a substantial amount of work would be required to bring the thesis to a pass standard). The second part of the examiner's report provides the Grounds for Recommendation, and gives directions for any corrections/amendments to be made. An example of an examiner's report form is available from the Office of Research and Development website: Exam Report Example

***What if I have to do some corrections to the thesis?***
If you are required to undertake any corrections to the thesis you must provide a statement to your Supervisor and Chairperson that addresses the examiners' comments and confirms that these amendments have been carried out. You have up to twelve (12) months to make the corrections. Once your Supervisor and Chairperson are satisfied that you have completed all necessary amendments, the committee will complete the paperwork to enable you to graduate (except where you have been instructed to resubmit your thesis - see next section).

***What if the thesis has to be resubmitted?***
If you're required to revise and resubmit your thesis for re-examination, the Chairperson will inform you of the revisions to be made and how long you have to do them. You must provide a statement of the revisions made and a PDF of the revised thesis to this Office. A completed *Copyright and Release of Thesis for Examination* form signed by you, your Supervisor and Chairperson must accompany the re-submission. You are not required to re-enrol. A thesis that is re-submitted for re-examination will be sent to the original examiner/s who requested the re-submission. Examiners are asked to complete their report within four (4) weeks.

***What happens when everything is finished?***

**Permanent Binding**
You are required to provide two (2) loose-leaf copies of the final thesis to G-Mart, Bldg 106G (Guild Courtyard, opp Café @ Concept) for permanent binding. The copies **must** be securely boxed up in order to be sent to the book binder off-campus. Please place all copies in an empty A4 photocopy paper box with a lid. The loose leaf copies must also be separated by a divider (preferably coloured card/paper). G-Mart will not bear any responsibility for copies that are submitted incorrectly (e.g. missing pages, upside down pages, errors in printing, etc.) **A Binding Memo must also be included**
The books will take approximately four (4) weeks to return from the bindery and you or a friend/relative/colleague is requested to please collect them from G-Mart. Books that haven't been collected after eight (8) weeks will be securely disposed of.

**Digital Thesis Submission**
A Digital Copy of your thesis along with the completed form, *Submission of Digital Theses*, will need to be uploaded to University's institutional research repository, espace@Curtin. For information regarding uploading your thesis and the relevant form please visit the following website: http://thesesupload.library.curtin.edu.au/

***How will I know when I've passed?***
When all requirements have been met (including any amendments to the thesis, digital copy uploaded and the final copies submitted for binding), your committee will submit the Report of Chairperson documentation to the Graduate Research School for FGSC, then UGSC approval. In due course you will receive a letter (emailed) from this Office, informing you that you've been approved to graduate. We will advise the Graduations Office and your Award will conferred. **You do not have to apply to graduate**. The Graduations Office will notify you via OASIS on how to register to attend a Graduation Ceremony or collect your Award.