

FOR RICHER OR POORER – FOR BETTER OR WORSE?

A QUANTITATIVE STUDY INVESTIGATING
THE EFFECTS OF MONEY PRIMING IN A
MARKETING CONTEXT

May 2016

AUTHORS

Andrea Ringblom, 21895
Josefine Bergkvist, 22247

SUPERVISOR

Micael Dahlen

ABSTRACT | Consumers are constantly exposed to prices and reminders of money, yet little research has been conducted on the effects it may have on consumers. The purpose of this thesis was to build upon prior research regarding the effects of money priming and apply it to a marketing context, investigating if it would generate the same outcomes. In line with previous literature, it was tested if money priming would have a positive impact on the consumer's personal self (self esteem and mating motives) and a negative impact on the consumer's interpersonal self (social connectedness, prosocial behaviour, infidelity and consumer choice attitudes). The theoretically proposed effects of money priming were tested through an experimental study, exposing participants to an advertisement containing a high or low price. Findings from 183 respondents indicated positive effects on the participant's personal self and no negative effects on the interpersonal self. Concluding, that the mere exposure of prices in advertising affect consumers on a personal level.

KEY WORDS | Marketing, Advertising, Money Priming, Unintended effects

Stockholm School of Economics | Department of Marketing and Strategy
MSc Thesis in Marketing, Spring 2016

FOR RICHER OR POORER – FOR BETTER OR WORSE?

A quantitative study investigating the effects
of money priming in a marketing context

MSc Thesis, Department of Marketing & Strategy
Stockholm School of Economics
Andrea Ringblom (21895) & Josefine Bergkvist (22247)
16th of May 2016

OUR SCINCEREST
THANKS TO

Micael Dahlen

For the support and guidance

Sellpy

For helping us with responding to surveys

Survey respondents

For taking the time, without you this thesis
would not have been possible

Proofreaders

For taking the time, without you it
would not have been the same

DEFINITIONS

Hedonic option: A festive leisure experience that three people (one being the participant of the experiment) can enjoy.

Infidelity: The willingness and intention towards engaging in a romantic or sexual relationship with someone other than one's partner.

Interpersonal self: Features the relationship of attitudes and choices you make including others, how we think of others and behave towards them.

Mating motives: The motivation of having intimate relations with other people.

Personal self: The subjective perspective of an individual, how we think and perceive ourselves.

Prosocial behaviour: A willingness to help others voluntarily through actions, donations or other means with the sole purpose to benefit others.

Priming: A nonconscious exposure to specific representations and activation of associations prior to conducting a task or action.

Money priming/Money reminders: An exposure to something that nonconsciously reminds and activate associations to money prior to conducting a task or action e.g. currency symbols, bills etc.

Self-esteem: How someone evaluates and look at themselves as a person, positively or negatively.

Social connectedness: A facet of the person, which reflects subjective awareness of interpersonal closeness with the social world as a whole.

Utilitarian option: A useful/educating leisure experience that one person (the participant of the experiment) can enjoy.

Netflix and chill: A language slang term where watching Netflix together with someone is used as a euphemism for sex, either between partners or casually as a booty call.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION	6
1.1 BACKGROUND	6
1.2 PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS	9
1.3 RESEARCH GAP AND EXPECTED CONTRIBUTIONS	9
1.4 DELIMITATIONS.....	11
1.5 THESIS OUTLINE.....	12
2. THEORY & HYPOTHESES GENERATION.....	13
2.1 THE PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECT OF MONEY PRIMING.....	13
2.2 HYPOTHESES GENERATION	15
2.3 EFFECTS OF MONEY PRIMING ON THE PERSONAL SELF	16
2.3.1 Self-esteem's Impact on Consumption.....	17
2.3.2 The Motivation of Mating.....	20
2.4 EFFECTS OF MONEY PRIMING ON THE INTERPERSONAL SELF	22
2.4.1 Social Connectedness and Distancing.....	23
2.4.2 Prosocial Behaviour in Terms of Helping Others	25
2.4.3 Infidelity Among the Powerful	27
2.4.4 Consumer Choice Attitudes	30
2.5 SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES	32
3. METHODOLOGY	33
3.1 INITIAL WORK	33
3.2 SCIENTIFIC APPROACH.....	34
3.3 PREPARATORY WORK	35
3.3.1 Pre-study 1: Selection and Test of Consumer Options.....	35
3.3.2 Pre-study 2: Design, Selection and Test of Stimuli.....	37
3.3.3 Pre-study 3: Test of the Questionnaire	39
3.4 THE MAIN STUDY	40
3.4.1 Research Design	40
3.4.2. Questionnaire	42
3.4.3 Measures.....	44
3.4.4 Quantitative Data Sampling	46
3.5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	48
3.6 DATA QUALITY	48
3.6.1 Reliability	48
3.6.2 Validity.....	49
3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	51
4. RESULTS	52
4.1 MANIPULATION CONTROLS.....	52
4.2 EFFECTS OF MONEY PRIMING ON THE PERSONAL SELF	55
4.2.1 Self-esteem's Impact on Consumption.....	55
4.2.2 The Motivation of Mating.....	56
4.3 EFFECTS OF MONEY PRIMING ON THE INTERPERSONAL SELF	57
4.3.1 Social Connectedness	57
4.3.2 Prosocial Behaviour in Terms of Helping Others	58
4.3.3 Infidelity Among the Powerful	60
4.3.4 Consumer Choice Attitudes	61

4.4 SUMMARY OF RESULTS	62
5. DISCUSSION.....	63
5.1 CONCLUSION	63
5.2 GENERAL DISCUSSION	65
5.2.1 Effects of Money Priming on the Personal Self	66
5.2.2 Effects of Money Priming on the Interpersonal Self	67
5.3 LIMITATIONS	69
5.4 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS	71
5.5 FUTURE RESEARCH	72
6. REFERENCES.....	74
6.1 BOOKS.....	74
6.2 JOURNAL ARTICLES	74
6.3 ELECTRONIC RESOURCES	81
7. APPENDICES	82

1. INTRODUCTION

The following chapter will begin with providing the thesis with context and background. After follows the main purpose together with research questions, a presentation of research gap and expected contributions. Delimitations and outline of the study will end this chapter.

1.1 BACKGROUND

The average household's disposable income has positively developed throughout the years and consumption has steadily increased and is today higher than ever (Jacobsson, 2003; Grenholm & Grenholm, 2006). As a response to this demand companies are frequently introducing new products, innovations and updates. At the same time the latest boom in the less expensive digital sphere and social media, more companies have the possibility to afford to engage in advertising today than before ("Mer reklam på nätet än i TV 2017", 2016; Fredén, 2016). A consequence of this greater supply is that consumers are exposed to prices and advertising to a greater extent than ever before via smartphones, computers, in store advertising, posters on subways and so forth. Just by walking into a supermarket consumers are exposed to hundreds of price tags, both in terms of premium products and low priced supermarket private labels, all in a close proximity of one another.

Prior research within marketing has studied how price exposure is affecting consumers mainly in terms of business performance; how changes in price impact sales quantity and purchase intentions, how store environmental factors affects consumer price acceptability and how branding and marketing can be used to increase consumer willingness of paying a price premium (Han, Gupta & Lehmann, 2001; Kirmani & Wright, 1989; Homburg et al., 2005; Zeithaml, 1988)

Within the field of social psychology, the research has further given attention to what the effects are when just subtly priming participants with reminders of money. Experiments have shown that being exposed to symbols of currencies or touching paper money has a significant effect on attitudes and behaviour compared to non-money-priming. The findings of such experiments have indicated that participants primed with money concepts, compared to the neutral primes, were less helpful and indicated preference of solitary activities and greater physical distance to others (Vohs et al, 2008). At the same time their motivation was increased by insisting on working harder on challenging tasks, take on a heavier workload and taking longer time before asking for help (Vohs et al., 2008).

Social psychologist professor Paul Piff took the research one step further and investigated how the priming of having more or less money had an impact on individuals. In his experiment two people at the time were asked to participate in a round of monopoly. The catch of the game was that the players did not enjoy the same benefits. One player was assigned more beneficial rules and rewards to the extent that it would be impossible for that player to lose the game or run out of money. For example, they got to throw the dice twice and got twice the money every time a reward was given out for completed lap. This player was referred to by Piff as 'the rich one'. The other person, playing according to ordinary rules of monopoly, was referred to as 'the poor one' (Hooker, 2015).

The objective of Piff's study was to observe the behaviour and attitudes of people who temporarily are primed with having more money (feeling rich) or having less money (feeling poor). The findings showed that the people who were manipulated into feeling rich soon acted out as if they had more power and status outside of the game as well, even though that person would not necessarily at all be accounted for as rich in real life. Their mind-set and behaviour was altered simply by the manipulation in the game resulting in a

feeling of being rich or poor (Miller, 2012). Piff went on to test his hypotheses in a real life setting as well in Los Angeles, where there is plenty of wealth and cars. Piff studied which drivers who were least likely to stop for pedestrians, an action drivers are required to take by California state law. The observations indicated that the more expensive the car you drive, the less likely you are to stop for pedestrians and thus also breaking the law (Hooker, 2015). Piff has concluded regarding his many studies about being wealthy: "It makes you more attuned to your own interests, your own desires, your own welfare. It isolates you in certain ways from other people psychologically and materially. You prioritize your own needs and your own goals and become less attuned to those around you." (Hooker, 2015). However, there are studies that contradict these findings. One study conducted in the Netherlands among actual millionaires observed them to be more generous and big hearted when they were assigned an amount of money to either save or share (Hooker, 2015). Another comment to Piff's experiment with cars is that one can not say for certain if a person is rich by just judging by the car they are driving at the moment.

Surprisingly, no attention has yet been given to the unintended effects of money reminders in a marketing context. Psychologists have found that by simply letting someone touch paper money or see a symbol of currency causes major effects on participant's attitudes and behaviours. Given the change in behaviour of people primed with feelings of having more money or just merely being reminded of money concepts, what potential psychological effects can be marketing, that bombards prices and currency signs, have on consumers? Can merely a small price tag have the psychological impact of making consumers, in line with Piff's findings; more attuned to their own interests and distance themselves from others? Are there possible unintended effects of advertising that practitioners are not aware of and can benefit from?

1.2 PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The overall purpose of this thesis is to build upon studies made on money reminders within the field of social psychology and apply it to a new context of marketing and advertising. The objective is to investigate if feelings of having more or less money will have an impact, in line with prior research of money priming, on consumer's personal self and interpersonal self. To be able to answer this, the study will aim at answering the following research questions:

RQ1: *Will feelings of having more money impact consumer's personal self for the better, compared to feelings of having less money?*

RQ2: *Will feelings of having more money impact consumer's interpersonal self for the worse, compared to feelings of having less money?*

1.3 RESEARCH GAP AND EXPECTED CONTRIBUTIONS

Vohs (2015) states that there have been plenty of research performed regarding the practical benefits of money, however that now is the time to look deeper into what the effects are of merely having been reminded of money. Previously Vohs et al. (2008) also emphasized the gap between the importance of money in people's lives and how few experimental studies there have been conducted to learn more about the substructures of money. Their study supports the need to fill the gap by studies that further examines the very subtle reminders of money's huge effect on individual's behaviour and emotions. During the last decade, the psychology of money has captured the interest of psychology researchers, however in this thesis it is argued that now is the time for marketing researchers to start testing the effects. This thesis aims at bridging the gap between the psychology of money and marketing by investigating unintended effects reminders of

money may have on consumers in a marketing context, something that has never been examined before. There is the gap of gaining further insight into how consumers are affected by prices, though in the form of other aspects as the consumer's personal self and interpersonal self, as opposed to business performance related aspects. Within the research field of money priming there is also the gap of conducting experiments of how money reminders affects not just how we act towards strangers (i.e. stop for pedestrians, donate money and so forth) but also behaviour and attitudes towards people we have close relations with after being reminded of money. Hence, this thesis will examine the effects of money reminders on the participant's close relationships to others.

By making an effort to answer the research questions this thesis will contribute to the field of marketing in mainly two aspects. Firstly, by opening up and raising awareness regarding the importance of unintended effects of advertising, how money reminders can alter consumer mind-sets. Secondly, the findings are also intended to shed light on how these effects impact consumer choice attitudes. This can help practitioners within the field with more sophisticated planning tools on how to plan more directed and precise advertisements as well as how to effectively conduct their communication.

Further, the thesis at hand will contribute to the research that has been conducted so far within social psychology regarding money priming by adding observations from a different context to give sounder support to the general outcomes of money priming documented so far. In addition to a different context, the study will contribute to the research of money reminders by examining the effects on other aspects, which have not been studied previously by social psychologists.

1.4 DELIMITATIONS

Due to limited time and resources, the thesis carries some delimitations. They mainly consist of four aspects. Firstly, the sample consisted of a socioeconomically and geographically homogenous group in order to increase chances of a successful manipulation of having more or less money in the experiment. If unlimited resources would have been at hand, it would have been possible to customize the price threshold of the manipulation according to the respondent's private budget and therefore not having to reach out to people with similar socioeconomic status. It would have been further possible with an unlimited budget to distribute the survey to a much larger sample among different demographics across the country. This would have made the study further generalizable and applicable beyond the specific context of the thesis at hand.

Secondly, following the limited sample, the experiment had to be constrained to the use of one type of ad and two consumer options in order to generate a satisfactory amount of respondents in each treatment group. Preferably a variety of ads and consumer options would have been used to make the results applicable to a larger extent.

Thirdly, given the nature of a laboratory experiment the questionnaires were limited to being presented in a constructed environment of an online survey setting in order to be able to control, as much as possible, what the respondents were exposed to while participating in the experiment.

Lastly, there are many potential unintended effects of money reminders that this thesis possibly could have investigated. However, due to limited time the scope had to be narrowed down. When summarizing conducted research of the psychological effects of money priming over the past 10 years, Vohs (2015) divided the effects into two main categories: personal and interpersonal. Since little attention has been given to this topic within the field

of marketing this thesis will limit itself by applying the same categories. Within the category of personal effects this thesis will study and measure the effects on consumer's self-esteem and mating motives. Interpersonal effects will be investigated by measuring social connectedness, prosocial behaviour in terms of helping others, infidelity and consumer choice attitudes.

1.5 THESIS OUTLINE

The thesis at hand is divided into five chapters, starting with the above introduction presenting the background to the study, purpose and research questions. The second chapter consists of the theoretical framework introducing a review of relevant theories and academic research ending in a summary of generated hypotheses. Following is the third chapter of methodology presenting the chosen scientific approach and design of study. It further entails a description of the research process ending with a discussion of how the research quality of the study has been ensured. The fourth chapter reports the empirical findings of the experiment and compares them to the stated hypotheses. In the last and fifth chapter the findings are discussed along with proposed managerial implications for marketing practitioners. Concluding the thesis are the limitations of the study and suggested future research.

2. THEORY & HYPOTHESES GENERATION

The following chapter outlines the theoretical framework for the study and the hypotheses generation. Firstly, the general theories within the study area are presented. Secondly, the theoretical base for the effects of money priming on the consumer's personal self and interpersonal self are presented, based on the hypotheses generation.

2.1 THE PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECT OF MONEY PRIMING

The concept of money is constantly present in our daily lives, consciously and subconsciously, and is a necessity in today's society. May it be reflections about our personal long-term finances or choosing between two identical but differently priced products in the supermarket, it is a ceaseless topic on our minds. Despite the importance and constant presence of money, it has not until recently been a subject of interest for researchers, other than within the field of economics (Burgoyne & Lea, 2006). The research that has been conducted so far within the field of psychology show that even the subtlest and simple exposure to primes of the construct of money have major psychological transformational effects on individual's behavior, cognitive, emotional and motivational states (Burgoyne & Lea, 2006; Chatterjee & Rose, 2012; Mogilner, 2010; Mogilner & Aaker, 2009; Vohs et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2009).

Summarising the predicted effects of money reminders from experiments over the past 10 years, two main effects are emphasized (Vohs, 2015). Firstly, individuals who have been primed with money, compared to control groups, are less caring, less compassionate, less prosocial, less unhelpful and less interpersonally attuned (Vohs, 2015). They indicate more self-reliance, more self-centeredness, prefer to work alone and distance themselves from other people (Vohs et al., 2006; Vohs et al., 2008; Chatterjee et al., 2012). Further, money primed individuals are more reluctant to helping others and also in

seeking out help from others, compared to neutrally primed individuals (Vohs et al., 2006; Chatterjee et al., 2012). This self-sufficient behaviour can be explained by the fact that money lets people reach their goals without the help from others (Vohs et al., 2006; Chatterjee et al., 2012). Secondly, reminders of money make individuals behave more professionally, adopt a work mentality, work hard on challenging undertakings and perform well (Vohs, 2015; Kouchaki, Smith-Crowe, Brief, & Sousa, 2013; Molinsky, Grant, & Margolis, 2012; Tong, Zheng, & Zhao, 2013; van Laer, de Ruyter, & Cox, 2013).

Overall, reminders of money can be described to impact individual's behaviour towards others for mostly the worse and impact individual's motivation mostly for the better. In other words, bad for the interpersonal self but good for the personal self (Vohs et al., 2006). These effects are not constrained to any geographical location, occupation or age, all dissimilar conditions demonstrate similar effects in the 165 experiments that have been conducted so far (Vohs, 2015; Baumeister & Vohs, 2015). Gasiorowska et al. (2012) argue that the symbolic meaning of money is very much primal since observations of young children, aged 5-8 years old, indicated the same money priming effects as adults, even if they are not able to use money as instrumental as adults and are not as familiar with the economic mechanism of money. In the experiments, the children who had been exposed to money activation showed to be less prone, compared to the control group, to help the experimenter, engage prosocially and acted more selfish in economic games (Gasiorowska et al., 2012).

There are many factors that propose explaining the strong effects of money priming and moderating factors, since it can be stronger than classic cognitive priming effect (Vohs, 2015). Firstly, self-activation has been proven to be a significant contributor to the strength of money priming (Vohs, 2015). Attaching money primes to the self, thinking of one's salary or taking out one's cash, as opposed to thinking of other's decreases the motivation to help others (Pfeffer & DeVoe, 2008; Vohs et al., 2006). Secondly, the

accessibility of money, it often passes our hands and is on our minds, relates strongly to experience and motivational relevance (Vohs, 2015). When a prime is accessible the subtlest cues can generate significant outcomes (Vohs, 2015; Higgins & Brendl, 1995).

One of the most extreme effects of money reminders is that beyond behaviour of 'social coldness', individuals actually experience feelings of physical coldness (Reutner et al., 2015). Hence, the impact of money reminders goes beyond psychological behaviour to physical thermal perception. This was discovered by Reutner et al. (2015) who conducted two studies on the perception of thermal temperature in association to reminders of money. Individuals who had been exposed to money reminders felt colder and perceived the room temperature to be lower than the control group and also experienced water to be warmer (Reutner et al., 2015). Other effects of money priming, which are out of the scope of this thesis, but interesting to mention to highlight the many implications, is the mitigation of fear of death, disinterest in religion, decreased feeling of physical pain and aversion to others' emotional expressiveness (Zaleskiewicz, Gasiorska, et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2014; Vohs, 2015; Vohs et al., 2008).

2.2 HYPOTHESES GENERATION

In this thesis the money priming effects are examined in a marketing setting and is expected to generate the same results in line with the mentioned prior research, favourable effects for the personal self but unfavourable for the interpersonal self. The mentioned 165 experiments have also tested various methods of priming money such as viewing images of money, holding monopoly money, seeing money, touching money and so forth. All methods have resulted in similar effects, with the exception of clean money or new money primes (Vohs, 2015; Mok & DeCremer, 2015; Zaleskiewicz, Gasiorska, et al., 2013; Kesebir, Luszczynska & Pyszczynski, 2013). Vohs et al (2006) have also proven that priming high-money (having more money) versus low-money

(having less money) have the same general money priming effects as money priming versus non-priming. In their experiments participants in the high-money condition indicate higher levels of self-sufficiency, independence and lower levels of helpfulness, compared to the low-money condition group. The outcome of the same results can be explained by that money primes doubtfully activate the idea of restricted finances, rather it is more plausible that monetary wealth is activated (Vohs et al., 2006). Hence, in this thesis the generating of hypotheses is based on the conclusion that research with non-money primes versus money primes results in the same effects as low-money primes versus high-money primes. Prior research has also proven a strong association between money and power since money is a common source of power (Keltner & Langner, 2008). The consequence then being that people who are in possession of more money feel more powerful (Furnham, 1984). This sense of power has also been proven to be a psychological state that can be induced by manipulating participants and make them feel subjectively powerful, irrespective of their actual power position in real life (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006). Therefore, in this thesis, in the generating of hypotheses it is assumed that exposing participants to abundance or scarcity of wealth will make them temporarily feel more or less powerful and act accordingly to the effects of induced or lowered power.

2.3 EFFECTS OF MONEY PRIMING ON THE PERSONAL SELF

Existing research strongly indicate that money primes are good for the personal self, making money primed participants more self-sufficient and independent. However, these findings are all in relation to others, there is no current research investigating how money primes affects an individual's personal self in relation to oneself, i.e. aspects such as self-esteem and confidence. These aspects are especially interesting for marketing practitioners since they strongly impact consumer's attitudes and behaviour. This thesis therefore contributes to research by investigate the effects on the personal self in terms of self-esteem. Building upon investigating self-esteem, it

is in this thesis tested if money priming also has effects on mating motives. Money priming literature states that reminders of money make people socially distanced and prefer more psychological distance between themselves and new acquaintances. However, research has not yet not looked into if this is the case when mating motives comes into play, i.e. if money primed participants are equally likely to distance themselves towards a person they find very attractive and have mating motives towards. This thesis therefore adds to the current research by investigating if individuals primed with having more or less money will show differences in social distancing when it involves people they find attractive. The aspect of mating motives is also interesting for marketing practitioners due to the \$2.4 billion dating industry, in which competition has intensified (Wells, 2015).

2.3.1 Self-esteem's Impact on Consumption

"You look lovely today, Madame!" - a phrase considered to be one of the oldest sales pitches (Durgee, 1986). Self-esteem advertising is its own type of advertising, promoting positive feelings toward consumer's themselves in hopes it will spill over in positive attitudes and behaviour towards brands (Durgee, 1986). There are three main ways, according to Durgee (1986), in which self-esteem appeals in advertising works; "challenge/trigger receiver self-esteem then show conditional linkage to product, show someone else's success (or self-esteem) to cause general good feelings toward oneself and the product and flatter the viewer". Self-esteem is one of the greatest psychological desires and it is the most critical factor in one's motivation (Hilgard, 1962). The strive of self-esteem is considered by marketing managers as one of the most essential motivational drivers of consumer decisions and behaviour (Banister & Hogg, 2003). Consequently, within consumption there is the distinction between symbolic and functional brands. Functional brands serve the consumer's functional needs while symbolic brands are purchased with the intent to boost self-esteem (Bhat & Reddy, 1998).

Self-esteem is strongly correlated with power and money, as they tend to compensate for one another, meaning that many people use the means of money and power to compensate for low levels of self-esteem, since money and power induces higher self-esteem (Zhang, 2009; Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003). The result of elevated power is the activation of the behavioural approach system, which makes individuals more confident, self-assured and assertive, compared to individuals with low power (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003; Galinsky, Magee, Gruenfeld, Whitson, & Liljenquist, 2008; Keltner et al., 2003; Lammers, Stoker, & Stapel, 2010; Magee, Galinsky, & Gruenfeld, 2007). In previous experiments it has been proven that elevated power heightens self-esteem of individuals and conversely lowered power resulted in decreased self-esteem (Wojciszke & Struzynska-Kujalowicz, 2007).

Temporarily appealing to boost consumer's self-esteem through self-esteem advertising may have its benefits, however some effects complicate the work for marketing practitioners. Individuals who have been primed with money tend to not conform with recommendation with the explanation that they perceive social influence as inhibiting to their autonomy (Liu et al, 2012). Further support was found by Lee et al. (2013) who's experiment showed that an agent's influence attempts reduced the likelihood of choosing the recommended option among the money primed participants. The autonomy and independence of biased advice also applies to people with high self-esteem in selection of sources of information when making a product purchasing decision (Bishop & Barber, 2012). People with high levels of self-esteem choose to rely on themselves and impersonal sources as important sources, in comparison with people with low self-esteem.

On the other hand, many studies have proven that individuals with low levels of self-esteem are more receptive and open to external influences (Barach, 1967; Janis, 1954; VenKatesan, 1968). Dahl, Argo & Morales (2012) found that consumers with low appearance esteem are less likely to purchase a piece of

clothing they are trying on if they see an attractive shopper or sales clerk wearing the same piece of clothing. The phenomenon is referred to as parallel consumption where consumers look to others in the retail setting as a source of information. The recommendations being that sales clerks should avoid wearing the store's clothes and store layouts should avoid customers having to leave the dressing room to use a shared mirror. Adding to the implications of appearance self-esteem, Argo & White (2012) found that consumers level of appearance self-esteem affected the sensitivity to external control properties of product packaging i.e., features that indicate the capability to regulate food intake. Participants with low appearance self-esteem increased their consumption levels when the packages were small and included declaration of calorie content. Counter intuitive of might be assumed, smaller packaging and deceleration of calorie content can increase consumption. Consumers who are low in appearance self-esteem tend also to adjust their consumption choices, more noticeably than others, after how others around them consume (McFerran et al., 2010).

Furthermore, people with low levels of self-esteem, low socioeconomic levels and feelings of powerlessness, more often than others, compensate through the means of material possessions, which most often are of the high-status and luxurious kind (Park & John, 2011; Sivanathan & Pettit, 2010; Dubois et al., 2010). Therefore, it is found that consumers who suffer from compulsive buying most often have lower levels of self-esteem, compared to 'normal' consumers, and use the mean of consumption to enhance their self-esteem (Hanley & Wilhelm, 1992; Scherhorn et al., 1990).

Nevertheless, building upon the previously mentioned motivations, it is in this study argued that the level of wealth will have a positive impact on the degree of self-esteem (in this thesis both self-esteem and appearance self-esteem are merged into one measure and one term of 'self-esteem'). Thereby, the following is hypothesized:

H1: *Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of self-esteem, compared the ones primed with having less money*

2.3.2 The Motivation of Mating

Given the above theory of elevated power, money increasing self-esteem and what role it plays in marketing, it is interesting to investigate if increasing consumer's self-esteem in a marketing context will also affect self-esteem in social situations. It has been proven that experimentally priming individuals with feelings of power causes them to become more sexually forward, take risks and utilize greater influence in social interactions (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006; Galinsky et al., 2003; Galinsky et al., 2008; Guinote, 2007; Maner, Gailliot, Butz, & Peruche, 2007; Kunstman & Maner, 2010). There are several studies supporting that some individuals indicate strong cognitive links between the notion of power and sex (Bargh et al., 1995; Pryor & Stoller, 1994; Zurbriggen, 2000). Hence, the consequence being that activating concepts of power may unintentionally activate concepts of mating and sex. In this thesis these effects would be achieved since Bargh & Chartrand (1999) conclude that semantic priming entails that goals can be engaged by the activation of connected concepts. Based on theory, the connection between power and sexual cognition can be embedded in the ability of power to induce goal pursuit (Galinsky et al., 2003; Smith & Bargh, 2008). The mating goal in itself can be activated by the cognitive connection between power and sex. Power allows for access to resources and rewards, which can be either social or material, and being in possession of valuable forms of capital can be considered to reach one's goals (Kunstman & Maner, 2010).

It is further concluded that being in possession of power encourages action and leads people to become goal oriented (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006; Galinsky et al., 2003; Magee, Galinsky & Gruenfeld, 2007; Maner, Kaschak, & Jones, 2010; Smith & Bargh, 2008; Kunstman & Maner, 2010). In this thesis, power is induced in the form of temporarily feeling monetarily rich. While there exists sufficient theory on power and motivation in order to conclude connections between power and goal activation, there is yet missing theory on which types of goals are activated when being in possession of power (Kunstman & Maner, 2010). It is argued by Kunstman & Maner (2010) that people in power are particularly likely to pursue goals linked to sex and mating and that power motivates increased perceptions and expectations of sexual interest from subordinates. Their argument is supported by abundant research emphasizing that mating goals are closely linked with the approach system, which is of importance since obtaining a mate most often demands a high degree of behavioral approach (DePue, 1995; Keltner et al., 2003; Boksem, Smolders, & De Cremer, 2012; Galinsky; Lammers, Stoker, & Stapel, 2009; Smith & Bargh, 2008). The effect of power is that it may activate mating goals due to their shared connections with the behavioral approach system (Kunstman & Maner, 2010).

However, there may be factors that moderate the effects of mating motives induced by power. Most recently Maner et al. (2012) found that anxiety eradicated the effects of power increasing risk-seeking and sexual cognition, due to anxious individuals not responding to positions of structural power. Another moderating factor is the temporal delay that can occur with semantic primes, leading the prime to deteriorate with time (Higgins et al., 1985; Wyer & Srull, 1989). Though Kunstman & Maner's (2010) studies successfully tested that power activated sexual motives, as opposed to just sexual cognitions. The studies indicated that the semantic primes of sexual concepts preserved over time, which supports the activation of sexual motives (Bargh et al., 2001).

A further moderating factor emphasized by Simpson & Gangestad (1991) is the impact on the results of individual differences in sexual goals. Research has indicated that the activation of mating goals increases the attention towards possible mates, though mainly among sexually unrestricted people who have more permissive attitudes toward sex (Maner, Gailliot, Rouby, & Miller, 2007; Gangestad & Simpson, 1990, 1991).

Based on the above, it is argued that the level of manipulated wealth will have a positive correlation with motives of mating. It is hypothesised:

H2: *Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of mating motives, compared to the ones primed with having less money*

2.4 EFFECTS OF MONEY PRIMING ON THE INTERPERSONAL SELF

The effects of reminders of money have in many experiments clearly indicated that when primed with money our behaviour towards others changes mainly for the worse. People tend to become less prosocial, less caring and eschew interdependence. Yet, little research has been done on how this type of social distancing affects individual's sense of social connectedness and belonging. Therefore, this thesis sets out to investigate and contribute to research by examining if feelings triggered by advertising, of having more or less money, have an impact on feelings of social connectedness. The lack of prosocial behaviour has also given further evidenced by money priming making respondents less likely to help others.

However, in those experiments it has been measured against helping a stranger in the form of solving a task or picking up pens. There has been no research into the effects of money priming on helpfulness towards people we know and have close bonds with, such as family and friends. Hence, this study aims at investigating if the theories of less helpfulness, as an effect of money priming, also include helping people of close relations. Further, investigating close relationships, this thesis takes a look at how money primes affects romantic relationships. There has yet been no research into how reminders of

money impacts how people view and act in romantic relationships. The study at hand therefore investigates if Piff's observations of people feeling rich cheating more in board games also reflects on cheating in romantic relationships, here in the term of infidelity. The above-mentioned aspects are all interesting for marketing practitioners in knowing what the unintended effects of advertising may be. Lastly, consumer choice attitudes are examined, how consumer's preference of different options may alter depending on whether they have been primed with having more or less money. The outcome is an important contribution to the research field of marketing since no experiment on the effects of money reminders on consumer choice attitudes has been conducted in an actual marketing context.

2.4.1 Social Connectedness and Distancing

The sense of closeness social connectedness brings about is a critical component of a person's sense of belonging and is based on the aggregate experiences of proximal and distal relationships (e.g., friends, parents, peers, strangers, communities and society) (Lee & Robbins, 2000). Most people daily spend a substantial time upholding friendships; engage in developing new ones and partaking in-group activities (Lee & Robbins, 2000). This reflects people's efforts to maintain and please one of the most fundamental and powerful psychological needs we have, which is the need for belonging (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Maslow, 1970). The goal then is to form and maintain strong and stable interpersonal relationships in order to achieve a sense of belonging (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). The lack of such interpersonal attachments is linked to multiple harmful effects on health, adjustment and general well being (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

To further strengthen the work of Vohs et al. (2006), that money priming increases self-sufficiency while it decreases prosocial behaviour, Capaldi & Zelenski (2015) tested if money reminders would diminish individual's

inclination to participate in sustainable actions. The results showed that individuals who had been money primed did not perform a significant difference in the inclination to participate in sustainable actions, however it did show that those individuals allocated points less prosocially and experienced feelings of less social connectedness (Capaldi & Zelenski, 2015). There is an explanation, in the opposite, to why reminders of money decrease feelings of social connectedness. When individuals are primed with money concepts it increases the willingness to work and to reduce socializing (Mogilner, 2010). However, in the opposite case, when the construct of time is primed it activates motives to spend time with friends and family (Mogilner, 2010). Those motives lead to greater happiness and social connectedness (Mogilner, 2010).

Most research indicates that money reminders have a negative impact on interpersonal processes and the internal processes that enable the interpersonal effects (Mead & Stuppy, 2014). However, recent studies have shown that those effects do not necessarily always apply, that reminders of money can have a positive impact on interpersonal harmony (Mead & Stuppy, 2014). Mainly those effects occur in the context of exchange or when the major exchange function is prevailed by collective aims (Mead & Stuppy, 2014). Studies of ostracism in the workplace showed that priming money diminished the negative relationship that exists between ostracism and prosocial intents and behaviour, which sometimes unfortunately occur in the workplace (Mok & De Cremer, 2016). To accomplish the diminishing negative relation, the reminders did not have to be related to compensation, simply just be reminders of money (Mok & De Cremer, 2016).

Based on the presented theories and the fact that the experiment in this study does not entail a collective aim, it is argued that the level of wealth will have a negative impact on the feeling of social connectedness. This reasoning thereby hypothesizes:

H3: *Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of feelings of social connectedness, compared to the ones primed with having less money*

2.4.2 Prosocial Behaviour in Terms of Helping Others

The self-sufficient orientation, free from dependents and dependency, that reminders of money causes can be somewhat of a problem in marketing situations, it is especially a huge issue for charity organizations since they cannot ask for donations without igniting this mind-set (Chatterjee et al., 2012; Vohs et al., 2006; Gasiorowska & Helka, 2012; Vohs et al., 2008). Priming money does not only impact the willingness to spend money on others, it also impacts individual's willingness to spend time helping others (Pfeffer et al., 2009; Vohs et al., 2006). Pfeffer and DeVoe's (2009) studies prove that individuals exposed to either money or economic concepts were less prone to give up their time for volunteer work than the control group. Vohs et al. (2006) also tested participant's inclination, in terms of time spent, to help others. The result showed that participants that had been primed with money spent less minutes helping another person on solving a task, with the explanation that participants primed with money felt that "the confederate should figure out on her own how to perform the task, as a self-sufficient person would do." (Vohs et al., 2006). This gives supports to the theory that individuals reminded of money increase their motivation to be free from people depending on them.

The work of Vohs et al. (2008) further supports the hypothesis that reminders of money makes individuals less prone to helping others, suggesting it may be

explained by the fact that individuals who have been reminded of money prefer unsocial activities and less physical intimacy (Vohs et al., 2008).

The theories of helping others also holds when it comes to actual socioeconomic status, that people of high socioeconomic status are less prone to helping others. The intuition of low class people's behaviour, given the circumstances (limited resources, exposure to threat, lower feeling of and personal control), is for them to act in self-interest and to engage less in prosocial behaviour in order to cater to their own welfare above others. However, Piff et al (2010) found in their study that the opposite was actually true, low class individuals were more generous, helpful, charitable and trusting than upper-class individuals. Their hypothesis was that low class people, in disparity of the intuition, engage more in welfare of others as a way of adjusting to their more hostile environment (Piff et al, 2010). Other explanations to such behaviour proved to be that low-class individuals possessed greater compassion and obligation to egalitarian values than the upper class individuals (Piff et al, 2010).

When it comes to the linking of money reminders and the willingness to help others there are some moderating and amplifying factors (Chatterjee et al., 2012; Kouchaki et al., 2013; Molinsky et al., 2012; Pfeffer & DeVoe, 2009; Tong et al., 2013). An amplifying factor is the priming of credit card concepts. Priming individuals with cash concepts reduces their motivation to help others, while the activation of credit card concepts has the opposite effect and increases intended donations (Chatterjee et al., 2012; Feinberg, 1986). The explanation for these phenomena is that priming cash concepts makes costs linked to giving money more significant in the decision setting (Chatterjee et al., 2012).

Another moderating factor is the level of self-activation in the money prime; people who are reminded to think of their own money instead of others' have been proven to be less helpful (Pfeffer & Devoe, 2009; Vohs et al., 2006).

Activating the reminder of one's own money by withdrawing money from a cash machine decreased the behavioural helpfulness more than simply just walking by a cash machine (thus not being reminded of one's own money) (Guéguen & Jacob, 2013).

Based on the motivations presented above, and the use of self-activation in this study, it is argued that participants in this study will have a negative correlation between wealth and motivation to help others, both strangers and people of close relations. Therefore, it is hypothesised:

H4a: *Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help family members, compared to the ones primed with having less money*

H4b: *Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help friends, compared to the ones primed with having less money*

H4c: *Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help strangers, compared to the ones primed with having less money*

2.4.3 Infidelity Among the Powerful

The negative consequences of infidelity are numerous; it is the number one cause and forecaster of divorce, increases depression and impacts overall psychological health (Amato & Previti, 2003; Cano & O'Leary, 2000; Gordon, Baucom, & Snyder, 2004). The many negative health impacts are not the only reasons to why it is important to study infidelity; it is also of significance when it occurs among powerful people. Politicians and business people are role models and spokespeople for the organizations they represent and for the broad population to follow (Campbell & Wolbrecht, 2008; Nattinger, Hoffmann, Howell-Pelz, & Goodwin, 1998). Any mishap on their behalf reflects not only personally on them but it also reflects poorly on the organization they represent. The most well known example and the one with the most severe aftermath, so far, is the former President Bill Clinton's extramarital affair in the

1990's. Remarkably it was just until recently the first research into investigating the relationship between power and infidelity was conducted, by Lammers et al. (2011). They tested the relationship among working professionals within a variety of power position levels, which enabled measuring real power variances and real infidelity (both actual and intentions to engage in infidelity were measured). The study found that power is positively linked with infidelity (both actual and intentional) with the explanation that power heightens confidence in the ability to attract mates (Lammers et al., 2011).

The primary reason to why power is linked to infidelity is the transformative effects power has on individual's psychological state (Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003). The most interesting effect, in the case of infidelity, is the tendency of power to induce individuals to act more confidently toward possible mates. This is very much an effect of power's activation of the behavioural approach system, which makes people behave increasingly self-assured, confident and assertive (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003; Galinsky et al., 2008; Lammers, Stoker, & Stapel, 2010). Power also heightens romantic confidence by causing individuals to center their attention on physically attractive individuals (Brady, Lord, & Hill, 2011). Further, power also impacts romantic behaviour by increasing romantic approach behaviour and enhancing perceptions and expectations of sexual interest from possible mates (Wilkey, 2011; Lerner, 2011; Kunstman & Maner, 2010).

Another explanatory effect is the fact that increased power reduces individual's sense of risk and making more optimistic evaluations of both potential failure and success of possible rewards related to their choices (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006; Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003). However, a moderating factor is the individual's level of anxiety, which inhibits willingness to take risks (Maner et al., 2012). Closely linked is the finding that power makes individuals ignore social norms, behaving in counter normative forms of sexuality, resulting in higher rates of infidelity among powerful people

(Lammers & Maner, 2016). The psychological impact of power is that it discharges individuals from the constraints of social norms and become more disinhibited (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003; Guinote, 2007; Galinsky et al., 2008). Other examples of counter normative behaviour among powerful people is that they are increasingly prone to break the custom of practicing what one preaches by displaying moral hypocrisy and exhibiting nonconformity when stating their personal views (Lammers, Stapel, & Galinsky, 2010; Galinsky et al., 2008; Lammers & Maner, 2016).

A moderating factor for the link between power and infidelity that has been widely discussed is gender. There is no indication that there would be any gender differences in the inclination to engage in infidelity, results have showed equal tendencies among men and women (Kunstman & Maner, 2010; Lammers et al., 2011; Lammers & Maner, 2016).

Current research has examined the association between power and infidelity among people with a variety of power in the workplace (Lammers et al., 2011; Lammers & Maner, 2016). Therefore, this thesis aims at contributing to research by testing the effects of power and money priming on infidelity through temporarily manipulating induced power in a marketing setting, irrespective of relative power at the workplace.

Given the mentioned prior research it is argued that the level of wealth will have a positive link with intent to engage in infidelity. It is therefore hypothesized:

H5: *Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of intent to engage in infidelity, compared to the ones primed with having less money*

2.4.4 Consumer Choice Attitudes

Given all the rich research concerning the psychological effects of money cues it is surprising how little attention has been given to what extent it impacts consumer behaviour, especially consumer preferences and choice (Hansen et al., 2013; Tong et al., 2013). Literature emphasizes how merely activating the concept of money alter people's attitudes and behaviour, which makes it odd that the effects have not been tested in an actual marketing setting. Going back to the work of Vohs et al. (2006, 2008), they have somewhat touched upon the matter of consumer choice in experiments of testing social distancing in correlation to primes of money. Vohs et al. (2006, 2008) set out to test whether participants preferred activities that only one person could enjoy or an activity enjoyable for two or more people (e.g., the option of four personal cooking lessons or an in-home catered dinner for four people). The results showed that participants in the money primed condition preferred the individually focused experience over the group experience, compared to control groups.

Following the current research, Hansen et al. (2013) conducted experiments to highlight money reminders' implications in various consumer-related areas. They observed that reminders of money altered consumer judgments; priming consumers with money caused them to focus their attention on central aspects, contrary to peripheral aspects, of products and amplified the impact of quality of parent brands in evaluations of brand extensions (Hansen et al, 2013). Consumers primed with money favourably focused on arguments that promoted products with its central features (i.e. parts of appeal of the product such as taste or quality) as opposed to arguments that promoted the products secondary features (i.e. parts that center on the feasibility, such as availability) (Hansen et al., 2013). Hence, the implication for marketing practitioners is that advertisement including central arguments would be more preferable and effective than promoting secondary features when consumers are primed with money (Hansen et al., 2013).

Building on Hansen et al.'s (2013) observation of focus on central features, Tong et al. (2013) investigated which central features are preferred among money primed people. Most consumers are often deciding between hedonic (products and services that are practical or necessary) or utilitarian options (products or services that are frivolous or luxurious) and they were therefore the central features investigated by Tong et al. (2013) (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Khan et al., 2005). The participants in the experiments expressed their choice preference of reward between two choices such as a pen (utilitarian) versus a Coke (hedonic), a pack of AA batteries (utilitarian) versus a piece of chocolate (hedonic) and an English vocabulary book (utilitarian) versus a science fiction book (hedonic). The results from the experiments indicated that people primed with money were more likely to prefer the utilitarian option over the hedonic option, in comparison with a control group.

However, Tong et al. (2013) highlight that given the research conducted so far on money priming's impact on consumer behaviour, there might be individual and situational differences that moderates the results. None of the research so far, primarily Tong et al. (2013) or Hansen et al. (2013), has actually conducted experiments in a marketing setting. The money priming has been in the form of currency identification tasks and sentence construction tasks. This thesis therefore aims at contributing to research by testing consumer choice attitudes in a marketing context under the impact of money primes.

Following the presented research, it is argued that participants primed with having more money will have a positive correlation with preferences of solo utilitarian consumer options. Thereby, it is hypothesized:

H6: *Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of preference of a solo utilitarian consumer option, compared to the ones primed with having less money*

2.5 SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

RQ1. Will feelings of having more money impact consumer's personal self for the better, compared to feelings of having less money?

H1: Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of self-esteem, compared to the ones primed with having less money

H2: Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of mating motives, compared to the ones primed with having less money

RQ2. Will feelings of having more money impact consumer's interpersonal self for the worse, compared to feelings of having less money?

H3: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of feelings of social connectedness, compared to the ones primed with having less money

H4a: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help family members, compared to the ones primed with having less money

H4b: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help friends, compared to the ones primed with having less money

H4c: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help strangers, compared to the ones primed with having less money

H5: Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of intent to engage in infidelity, compared to the ones primed with having less money

H6: Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of preference of a solo utilitarian consumer option, compared to the ones primed with having less money

3. METHODOLOGY

In the following chapter, the scientific approach and chosen research methods are presented. The research process is accounted for through description of the initial work, pre-studies and research design of the main study and its measurements. Concluding with an explanation of the data analysis and a discussion on how research quality and ethical considerations have been ensured.

3.1 INITIAL WORK

The topic of money priming and the bad behaviour of rich people was presented to the authors by Micael Dahlen, Professor at the Department of Marketing and Strategy at the Stockholm School of Economics, and the topic for the thesis was developed in consultation over an extended period of time. The authors were very inspired by the fact that subtle reminders of money concepts seem to have a huge impact on people's attitudes and behaviour and thus sparking the question if these effects also applies in a marketing setting, where consumers are constantly bombarded with money concepts. It was also of interest that the effects of money reminders are very much in line with the sometimes perceived as unsympathetic behaviour that has been associated with rich people.

Following, the authors continued to explore the scope of the thesis by investigating different angles that could contribute to the research field. A thorough research of the existing literature and articles within money priming was conducted. The chosen scope was to build upon the research that has been done within psychology and social science regarding the effects of reminders of money and apply it to a marketing setting to investigate if the same effects unintended also appear from consumers viewing an ad. This was especially interesting since it is an unexplored field and therefore the findings could contribute to marketing research.

Once a full comprehension of the area was grasped, after consultation and extensive literature research, the research questions and purpose of the study were established. The execution of the study was decided upon recommendation of Professor Micael Dahlen to be of a quantitative nature with a between-subjects experimental design. This would allow for greater control over the stimuli and capturing the subconscious effects without interference of external factors.

3.2 SCIENTIFIC APPROACH

For this study it was found most appropriate to use a deductive research approach, since relevant theory and knowledge was available. When using a deductive approach, it follows that the selected theories form the basis for the hypotheses, which in turn steers the gathering of data (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The hypotheses are then tested by conducting empirical analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The aim of the study was to assess the causal relationship between the chosen independent and dependent variables and as such the use of a quantitative method of data gathering is recommended (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In order to find causal relationships an experimental method was suitable since it intends to manipulate independent variables in order to conclude if it has any impact on the outcome of the dependent variables (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In this study it entailed manipulating independent variables of having more or less money and examining the effects on the dependent variables of measurements of the personal self and interpersonal self. A quantitative method is further recommended to use when the aim is, as in the case of this thesis, to generate generalizable findings through statistical analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). An experiment can also generate more substantial evidence of causal relationships than an exploratory or descriptive design (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005).

However, using a qualitative approach would have gained the study empirical evidence of a richer and deeper nature to draw conclusions upon (Bryman & Bell, 2011). On the other hand, an effective method for collecting

a large amount of data, and data that is unobservable, is the use of surveys (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Using an experiment under controlled conditions, as in this thesis, has the benefit of control over external factors that might affect the variables and it further increases the accuracy of the relationship between the variables (Christensen et al., 2010; Webster & Sell, 2007). The use of experiments generates a large number of benefits, with high level of control over stimuli as one of them (Kim & Kim, 2012). In order to obtain a high level of control over the stimuli, when carrying out an experiment, much of the research within the field of marketing is performed through experiments where the stimuli is simulated through texts, images, or videos. The experiment created in this study was a constructed situation instead of a real-life setting, which categorizes it as a laboratory experiment (Söderlund, 2005). The benefit of a laboratory experiment is the absence of uncertainty in the results, although at the expense of the external validity deteriorating (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

3.3 PREPARATORY WORK

Before launching the main study, a significant amount of preparatory work had to be conducted in effort to ensure a study of great precision and quality. It involved manipulation checks of consumer options, selection, creation and testing of stimuli. Lastly, the final questionnaire was tested for misinterpretations and complications and revised accordingly.

3.3.1 Pre-study 1: Selection and Test of Consumer Options

For the first pre-study the objective was to select appropriate consumer options for the participants to evaluate in the main study. In deciding which consumer options to use in the main study, inspiration was taken from previous well-established money priming experiments. When choosing options, it was decided to use one that entailed elements of prosocial behaviour and another that was an independent solo option. The purpose was to test whether the theories of money reminders held up in this experiment in terms of consumer choice attitudes. Hence, the options used by Vohs et al. (2006) in

one of their experiments were appropriate. The options applied by Vohs et al. (2006) were two experiences, one that only one person could enjoy and the other two people or more could enjoy. More specifically the respondents chose between the options of four personal cooking lessons (utilitarian) or an in-home catered dinner for four people (hedonic) (Vohs et al., 2006). Same options were used in this pre-study to test quantitatively if the respondents actually perceived the options as being either more utilitarian or hedonic, i.e. manipulation control of the consumer choices. For each option, same four statements were asked since structured questions with same questions increases the reliability of the pre-study (Malhotra, 2004). The statements, to which degree the respondents agreed, were answered on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = 'Strongly disagree' and 7 = 'Strongly agree', as recommended by literature (Söderlund, 2005). The four statements consisted of two hedonic associations and two utilitarian associations. In order to create an index for each category for the options, Cronbach's alpha tests were used and resulted in values over $\alpha > .8$ for all tests. The results from the mean values of the options clearly indicated that the respondents perceived the options as intended. The prosocial option was rated with higher hedonic associations than the solo utilitarian option. Likewise, the solo option was ranked higher in utilitarian associations. Thereby, it was decided to use the tested consumer options in the main study to investigate consumer choice attitudes.

Table 1: Pre-study 1

Description: Test of how hedonic and utilitarian the hedonic stimulus was perceived by respondents (an activity for three people):

	MIN STRONGLY DISAGREE	MAX STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	
HEDONIC	1	7	6.0	
UTILITARIAN	1	7	4.4	Sign. (2-tailed) .00

Table 2: Pre-Study 1

Description: Test of how hedonic and utilitarian the utilitarian stimulus was perceived by the respondents (an activity for one person):

	MIN STRONGLY DISAGREE	MAX STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	
HEDONIC	1	7	4.0	
UTILITARIAN	1	7	5.1	Sign. (2-tailed) .00

3.3.2 Pre-study 2: Design, Selection and Test of Stimuli

In the second pre-study the aim was to select stimuli to be used in the main study that would generate intended effects. The stimuli were selected after design and testing. The first part of the second pre-study consisted of the selection of the stimuli to evoke feelings of having more or less money, while the second part was to select the stimuli for activating mating motives.

In the first part, it was decided to rely partly on existing research due to constraints of resources and time. The choice of category for the wealth stimuli was supported by research from TNS Sifo regarding the dreams and aspirations of Swedes. Their data show that traveling is more desired than romantic relationships among Swedes, they dream of sunny beaches and trendy hotels. Hence, it was decided that travels were a suitable category of stimuli, due to it being desirable for most Swedes ("Svensken drömmer om att resa", 2014)

Following the choice of category, the choice of destination of the travels was also supported by existing data. The travel agency Ticket reported a major increase in the popularity and booking of the destination Mauritius during the year of 2015 and it was therefore decided to use Mauritius as the sunny trendy hotel resort destination Swedes dream of (Starkman Ahlstedt, 2015).

Two stimuli were created and tested both quantitatively and qualitatively. The first stimulus was an advertisement created with inspiration from two real

advertisements by the travel company Ving. The second stimulus was a real screenshot of an online booking of a luxury resort on the hotel booking site Booking.com. In consultation with Sara Rosengren, Associate Professor at The Department of Marketing and Strategy at Stockholm School of Economics, an online booking is considered being equally of an advertisement and marketing effort as a classic advertisement. Today more and more people go online to book their travels, currently 80% book holidays online, hence the relevance of an online booking interface ("80% booking holidays online, finds study", 2012).

In the two different stimuli the manipulation consisted of a high and low pricing for a luxury resort, keeping all other aspects equal, with the intention of evoking the respondents to feel as having more or less money. The ads were distributed to a sample of 79 students receiving the questionnaire and 50 were of satisfactory quality. The manipulation control consisted of two statements where the respondent answered on a 7-point Likert scale to what extent they agreed with 'I feel rich' and 'I feel wealthy', where 1 = 'Strongly disagree' and 7 = 'Strongly agree' (Söderlund, 2005). The statements for each stimuli were tested with Cronbach's alpha for creating indexes indicating values over $\alpha > .8$.

Both stimuli generated equal results of intended manipulation and therefore the two ads were qualitatively tested with a convenience sample of 10 students. The participants were asked if they perceived the images to be realistic and if they would find it believable to encounter them in a real-life setting. Not surprisingly the real screenshot of the booking site was evaluated as most believable and realistic. Thus, the booking site image was chosen as the stimuli to use in the main study.

The second part of the main study contained images of two models that served the purpose to tempt the respondents into considering it very likely to engage in different activities with them. The two models, one male and one female, therefore had to be considered highly attractive by a broad range of

people. An online quantitative questionnaire was distributed to a convenience sample consisting of 25 students out of which 16 responses were of satisfactory quality. In the questionnaire the respondents were asked to rate the two model's physical appearance (head shoots) on the commonly used social 10-point scale from 1 = 'Not at all attractive' to 10 = 'Very attractive'. The means for the models were satisfactory, both the female ($M = 8.89$) and the male ($M = 8.65$) ranked very high, concluding that their appearance was considered highly attractive. Hence, it was decided to include the tested images of the models in the main study.

Table 3: Pre-study 2

Description: Test of (main study) stimuli's ability to provoke desired feelings. (Feeling of being rich or poor)

	MIN STRONGLY DISAGREE	MAX STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN
BOOKING.COM (HIGH PRICE)	1	7	2,3
BOOKING.COM (LOW PRICE)	1	7	4.4 Mean diff = 2.1 Sign. (2-tailed) .00
VING (HIGH PRICE)	1	7	2.5
VING (LOW PRICE)	1	7	4.2 Mean diff = 1.7 Sign. (2-tailed) .00

3.3.3 Pre-study 3: Test of the Questionnaire

Before using the questionnaires in the definite experiment it was pre-tested on a convenience sample in order to identify questions and phrasings that potentially could be misinterpreted and affect the results. Doing so is of great importance in order to ensure high quality of the questionnaires (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The pre-study tested the questionnaires with two different focus groups consisting of a convenience sample of seven students in each. The respondents within the groups varied among gender and age. While the respondents answered the questionnaires they were asked if anything was ambiguous or difficult to comprehend. Overall, the impression of the

questionnaires was positive in that it was not too long and entailed some amusing elements. Critiquing comments from the respondents concerned certain questions that were a bit too long, one question was problematic in interpreting and that some pages contained too many questions. Hence, those questions were condensed and clarified and page breaks were added. The focus group members also tested the online questionnaires on a variety of devices such as laptops, tablets and mobiles. In response to some technical issue the questionnaires were further modified to easily be complete on all types of devices. Once all the improvements had been completed the questionnaires were tested once again on a convenience sample of seven people, who did not have any questions or concerns. The final version was then decided to be used and distributed.

3.4 THE MAIN STUDY

The main experimental study of this thesis was carried out over a three-week period during the month of March in 2016. The survey was distributed online to respondents who accessed a link to the web-based self-completion questionnaires. Collecting data through self-completion questionnaires is especially recommended as research method when conducting quantitative research (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Further, when conducting quantitative research, it is recommended to have a random sample in order to eliminate individual differences and increase the opportunities for proper explicit conclusions (Söderlund, 2010). This was taken into consideration by randomly assigning the respondents to one of the three treatment group questionnaires in effort to generate as comparable groups as possible.

3.4.1 Research Design

The survey was organized and conducted according to an experimental design, which is recommended when trying to establish a causal relationship between variables. The relationship studied in this thesis is between money priming in a marketing situation and how that impacts consumer's personal self and interpersonal self. An experimental design is also favourable for the

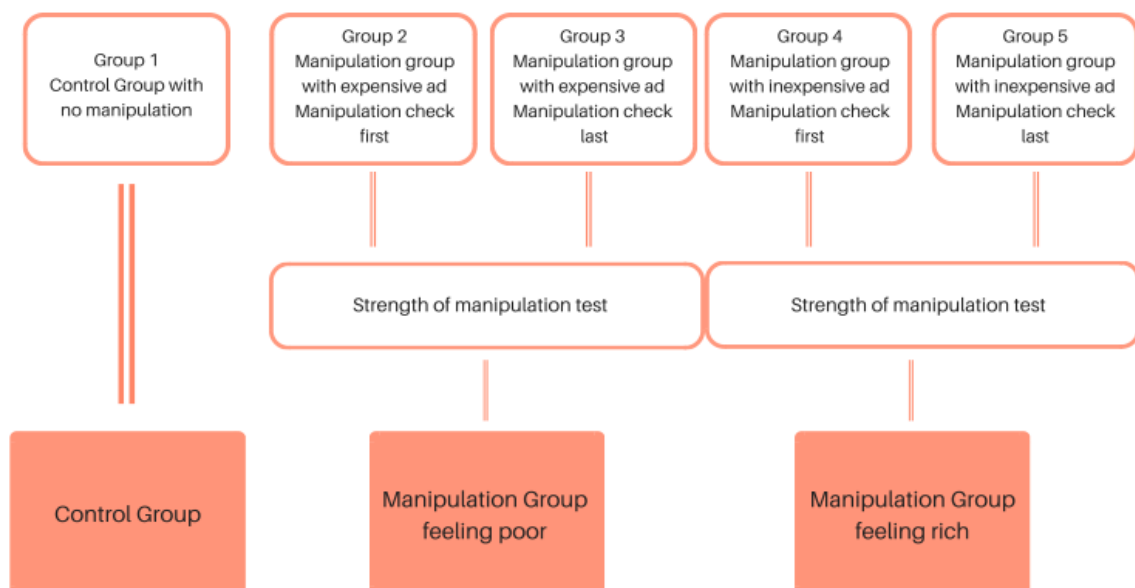
internal validation of a study and provides the research with clear directions of the relationship between variables (Bryman, 2012). In order to study the research questions this study set out to examine the main study was organized according to a classical experimental design with questionnaires created for three conditions groups; two experimental groups and one control group. The use of a control group allows for better determination of the effects of the manipulation. For the main experimental study three self-completion questionnaires were created and distributed, one designed to make the respondent temporarily feel as having more money, one designed to make the respondent temporarily feel as having less money and a neutral treatment group. By creating self-completion questionnaires, the interviewer effect was avoided and it is also a cost efficient and quick way to collect responses (Bryman, 2012). The experimental stimuli in the two manipulation groups was a visual stimulus, displayed in the beginning of the survey, in the form of an image of a real hotel booking of a luxury resort.

The manipulation differentiating the two groups was the price, a high expensive price and a very low inexpensive price. The high price was intended to manipulate the respondent into feeling poor and the low price was intended to manipulate the respondent into feeling rich. The control group was exposed to a carefully picked yet unrelated article, containing no elements of numbers or currencies that could unintentionally prime the respondents of money concepts. The manipulation in the visual, the price, was rather small and could easily be unnoticed. In order to increase the success of the effect of the manipulation the respondents were asked to study the visual before answering any questions. Further, to increase reliability, all respondents in all groups were given the same information prior to starting the survey.

Both manipulation groups were presented with the manipulated ad at the very beginning of the questionnaire, which comprised the stimuli. In order to ensure internal validity and actual impact of the stimuli over time, the two

different treatments consisted of four different groups, two for each condition group where the manipulation control questions were asked in the beginning or in the end. The purpose was to ensure no uncertainty to whether the stimuli were strong enough to last throughout the entire questionnaire. The four groups were later merged into two, one representing each condition group. The respondents who were not exposed to any manipulation became a control group.

Model of Research Design



3.4.2. Questionnaire

The questionnaires for the study were developed in consultation and discussion with Micael Dahlen, Professor at the Department of Marketing and Strategy at Stockholm School of Economics. Aspects discussed and considered were the structure of the various parts in order to outline the most logical flow and which items to include.

To be able to answer the research questions and hence realising the purpose of this study, the respondents were exposed to one out of three condition groups with different questionnaires with the intent to make the respondents

feel rich, poor or not reflecting over their economic situation at all. The questionnaires were created by using Stockholm School of Economics' subscription to the online survey tool Qualtrics. However, the Stockholm School of Economics logo automatically appears on the questionnaires. For this study the logo had to be removed and the layout changed to a neutral one in order to avoid any subconscious money priming.

Since the pre-study of stimuli indicated differences in the way people perceived feeling wealthy it was possible to include feelings of wealth as an independent variable. The effects of the manipulated independent variable on the dependent variables and its differences were measured through carefully chosen measurements.

The language used in the surveys was Swedish to minimize the risk of misinterpretations due to the fact that most of the chosen sample, students in Stockholm, are native Swedish speakers but can have varied English skills. The language in the questionnaires was also kept as simple as possible, refraining from academic terminology and confusing phrasing. As advised by Söderlund (2005) the questionnaires were kept short and comprehensible in effort to refrain from respondents risking tiredness and response bias.

According to Bryman (2012) and Söderlund (2005) the use of multi-item scale questions when studying dependent variables improves internal reliability. Therefore, this type of questions has been used for all dependent variable measurements, except one. The multi-item scale measurements were all tested for internal validity by the use of Cronbach's alpha tests.

The manipulated group questionnaires contained 26 questions. The control group contained 22 questions since some questions had to be removed due to possible unintentional money priming. The surveys consisted of questions directly or indirectly asking about: attitudes, perceptions, intentions, behaviour and demographics. In the questionnaires, structured questions

were applied with most of them being multi scale on a 7-point Likert scale (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The exception was a 10-point scale for the question of self-esteem and appearance attractiveness due to it being a common socially applied scale. Other forms of questions used were dichotomous, free text and multiple choice.

The main study included two manipulation controls as validation in order to once again asses that the respondents actually perceived the stimuli as intended. Respondents had to grade on a 7-point scale whether they felt 'rich' or 'wealthy'. To give the stimuli the best condition to successfully prime the respondents, it was important that the respondents really took the time to observe the ad. Most importantly, that they became aware of the price. To ensure correct price perception, a question about the perception of the price was the first question after viewing the ad.

3.4.3 Measures

Self-esteem

To measure self-esteem measurements of the widely used The State Self-Esteem Scale (Heatherton, 1991) were applied and modified in order to further create measurements, which were sensitive to manipulations intended to temporarily alter feelings of self-esteem and appearance esteem. The three questions asked were 'How would you describe your self-esteem right now?', 'How would you rate yourself?' and 'How do you believe others would rate you?'. The first question was answered on a 10-point scale from 1 = 'Not at all good' to 10 = 'Very good'. The latter two questions referring to appearance esteem was measured on a 10-point scale due to the common social measuring of physical attractiveness on a 10-point scale, from 1 = 'Not at all attractive' to 10 = 'Very attractive'. An index of the items showed internal consistency of $\alpha = .74$.

Mating Motives/Infidelity

The items measuring mating motives were designed in consultation with Professor Micael Dahlen. The respondents were asked 'How likely is it that you would consider doing the following activities with the person, out of the two above, that interest you the most? (irrespective of rating)' with the alternatives of 'Netflix and chill', 'Go on a date' and 'Go home with from a club' (one-night stand implied). Each alternative was answered on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = 'Not at all likely' and 7 = 'Very likely'. The computed index of the three items showed a Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = .92$

Social Connectedness

Social connectedness was measured by adopting Åkestam, Rosengren & Dahlen's (forthcoming) measurements. The questions asked were 'I feel I belong with other people', 'I feel I am a part of a community' and 'I feel I am important for other people and other people are important to me', which all were answered on a 7-point Likert scale. The range of the scale was from 1 = 'Strongly disagree' to 7 = 'Strongly agree'. The index of the three items resulted in a Cronbach's alpha value of $\alpha = .85$.

Prosocial Behaviour in Terms of Helping Others

To assess prosocial behaviour, the Prosocial Personality Battery (Penner et al, 1995) was used and modified in order to create items that were sensitive to manipulations intended to temporarily alter feelings of helpfulness towards others. The respondents were asked how they would prioritize certain alternatives during a free weekend with the statements of 'Do a friend a favour and help him/her move', 'Do volunteer work/work pro bono', 'Cook dinner for my family', which all were answered on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = 'Low priority' to 7 = 'High priority'. These items could not be indexed together since they are of different kind, relates to different relationships, and therefore have to be analysed separately.

Consumer Choice Attitudes

Consumer choice attitudes were measured by using three questions drawn upon Smith et al.'s (2007) Brand-to-Consumer Relevance construct with the highest factor loading questions. The questions were adapted to emphasise the option instead of the brand. The statements used to evaluate reward options were 'I like the reward', 'The reward feels valuable to me' and 'The reward is attractive' and were answered on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = 'Do not agree at all' to 7 = 'Completely agree'. When computing the statements into indexes the internal reliability was measured to $\alpha = .95$ with Cronbach's alpha for both options.

3.4.4 Quantitative Data Sampling

Using a deductive approach usually follows attempting to apprehend a general view of the population, which is favourably achieved through probability sampling. However, due to the time frame, resources and the effectiveness of the manipulation, the decision was made to use a combination of simple random sampling and convenience sampling. Data was collected at different universities in Stockholm and a study place (simple random sampling) where only students were approached (convenience sampling). Students are a very homogenous group with similar socioeconomic status, which made it easier to outline a successful manipulation that could provoke the intended feelings.

The disadvantage of convenience sampling in research is the risks of not being representative for the entire population as with a more diversified sample, thus making it difficult to conclude generalizable results (Bryman, 2012). However, Söderlund (2010) consider homogenous groups to be suitable for experiments testing theories. In effort to make the findings more generalizable and avoid randomized errors, participating students had different demographic backgrounds and focus of studies (Bryman, 2012). All

in all, a representative sample of a total of 242 students participated (students at Studentpalatset, Royal Institute of Technology, Stockholm University and Stockholm School of Economics). Even though having a high number of participants increases the quality of the data, only participants spending a reasonable amount of time and energy would add real value to the results (Bryman, 2012). From the total data gathering, 183 responses accounted for being of satisfactory quality for empirical analysis. The 59 excluded responses lacked quality based on factors such as time spent on the questionnaire, completion of the whole questionnaire and choosing the same alternative throughout the whole experiment. However, all groups within the experiment recorded more than 20 valid responses, which maintained the statistical correctness and confirmed that generalizable results could be obtained from the data (Ritchie & Lewis, 2013).

The final sample of the treatment group of having less money consisted of people between the ages of 19 and 52 years old, where 88.3% were between 19-29 years old and 11.7% between 30-52 years old. The distribution of gender was 64.7% females and 35.3% males. The treatment group of having more money consisted of respondents between the ages of 18 and 35 years old, where 91.9% were between 18-29 years old and 8.1% between 30-35 years old. The genders of the respondents were 65.6% female and 34.4% male. Lastly, the control group consisted of respondents in ages ranging from 19 to 35 years old, where 91.6% were between the ages of 18 to 29 years old and 8.4% were between the ages of 30 to 35 years old. Among the respondents there was an even distribution of gender with 50% females and 50% males.

All three samples indicate homogenous traits considered to be realistically representative for the chosen sample population of students in the Stockholm area, resulting in an applicable sample.

3.5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

In order to assess the collected data from both the pre-studies and the main study the statistical software IBM® SPSS® (version 23) was used. In order to achieve sounder support for the results, indexes were created for all multi-items measurements prior to analysing the data. The indexes internal reliability was ensured by using Cronbach's alpha, where results over $\alpha = .7$ were approved (Malhotra, 2010). The hypothesised effects were tested by using independent samples t-tests in order to detect significant mean differences between the treatment groups. All hypotheses in this study were directed, thus a one-tailed significance level of 5% ($p < .05$) was applied to give empirical support to the hypotheses (UCLA, 2014).

3.6 DATA QUALITY

In order for this study to result in significant conclusions and combat the critique of quantitative research method, it was of great importance to ensure trustworthiness in the performance (reliability) and that it actually studied what was appointed (validity). To secure these two aspects of a quantitative study it is common to achieve high reliability and validity (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Meaning that all measures must be reliable and valid in representing the concepts. The relationship between the two measurements is critical since validity assumes reliability. Following is a description of how this study measured and attained its research quality.

3.6.1 Reliability

Reliability concerns the issue if the results of a study are repeatable, if replicated generating similar results under consistent settings (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Malhotra, 2010). High reliability is achieved through consistency of a measure of a concept and consist of two prominent factors when it comes to quantitative method; stability over time and internal reliability (Bryman, 2012). Stability over time of a study indicates if the measurements are stable over time. The stability of this study was favourably affected by portioning the distribution of the survey over a period of three weeks as opposed to

collecting all data at once (Bryman, 2012). Thus, minimizing the impact of external factors such as news and weather affecting the respondents. To further increase the stability over time a test-retest method was applied, using measures that have already been successful measures of concepts in prior experiments.

Internal reliability concerns consistency of indicators forming the scale, i.e. a respondent's score on one indicator should relate to scores on other indicators. Such consistency creates reliability in the measured constructs. In this study multi-item scales were used in order to measure dependent variables and achieve internal reliability. To further secure internal reliability Cronbach's alpha tests were used in all cases with multi-item scales. Cronbach's alpha is a qualified method for measuring internal reliability of constructs and a value of $\alpha = .7$ or above is desired to be able to ensure sufficient consistency when computing indexes of multiple-item scales (Malhotra, 2010). In this study all construct measurements resulted in values over $\alpha = .7$, hence they were all reliable.

3.6.2 Validity

Validity refers to the accuracy of the subject being studied, which is of importance since a valid conclusion should provide a true measurement, narrative and explanation of what it is arguing to measure. The measure of validity indicates if the study measures what it is anticipated to measure and to what degree the measure is unaffected by random and systematic measurement errors (Söderlund, 2005). Bryman & Bell (2011) identify four types of validity; measurement validity, internal validity, external validity and ecological validity.

Measurement validity refers to whether a measure of concept used actually reflects the concept that it is intended to be indicating (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The measurement validity was secured by applying questions and items,

which previously have been used successfully in other studies and experiments by prominent researchers.

Internal validity concerns the causality between the independent and dependent variables, whether the observed effects are actually caused by the intended independent variables as opposed to any other external factors (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). In this study it refers to what degree the effects on personal self and interpersonal self were caused by the stimuli treatment. In effort to decrease the risk of external factors having impact on the results, three manipulation controls were conducted to confirm that the observed effects were indubitably triggered by the intentional stimuli. Further, randomizing the distributed questionnaires and eliminating responses of unsatisfactory quality ensured the internal validity.

However, some aspects were difficult to control. Respondents were asked not to talk to each other while performing the survey though it is impossible to guarantee that no talking with others occurred, which could decrease focus. The stimuli were exact replicas of a booking site and even though the company logo and name was removed the layout could still evoke subjective attitudes that could impact the results. However, overall, this study is viewed to possess high internal validity.

External validity refers to whether the findings can be generalized and applied beyond the specific research context (Bryman, 2012; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Quantitative studies are appropriate for generalizable results, however there is the concern of representative sample (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Having a homogenous experimental group, as in this study, reduces external validity but is favourable in other aspects. Supporting the external validity is the fact that students were from diverse socioeconomic backgrounds, attended different schools and had a variety of study orientation. The sample was restricted to the Stockholm area, due to limited resources and time, and it is therefore ambiguous if the results are generalizable for other

geographical areas. Thus, the findings in this study can be generalized to this specific experiment sample. Keeping this in mind, the observations should still be considered as an indication of the attitudes and behaviours of people in comparable environments.

Ecological validity refers to whether the social scientific results from a study are applicable to people's everyday natural environment (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Performing a laboratory experiment can therefore raise concerns regarding the ecological validity. In the study at hand, ecological validity was ensured by diligent reliability of the stimuli, applying a real online hotel booking. Furthermore, the survey was never distributed in paper copies, it was solely distributed online. Hence, the environment where the respondents viewed the stimuli was the same as a real online booking situation.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Performing data collection requires several ethical aspects to be taken into consideration. The survey included questions of a sensitive nature and in such cases it is necessary with informed consent from the respondents. Thus, respondents were informed about the research purpose and the sensitive nature of some of the questions, in order to decide whether to participate or not (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Although, the information about the research purpose was kept limited to prevent revealing the true purpose in advance. Lastly, confidentiality was secured by keeping all responses anonymous and not allowing any other party access to the data (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

4. RESULTS

This chapter outlines the empirical findings from the experiment, starting with presenting the results of the manipulation controls. Following are two sections where the effects of money reminders on the consumer's personal self and interpersonal self are presented. The results for the hypotheses were all assessed through the use of mean comparisons and is further displayed in tables.

4.1 MANIPULATION CONTROLS

The first step before analysing the results of the hypotheses was to examine the manipulation controls in order to ensure that the observed effects were actually consequences of the stimuli, ensuring high internal validity. In this case it refers to whether the respondents successfully perceived the prices as low and high and consequently felt as having more or less money after viewing the ad. It was also of importance to investigate the strength of the stimuli, assuring it did not deteriorate over time throughout the questionnaire. The first part in testing of manipulation controls was to test whether the participants perceived the stimuli correctly, i.e. the price being high and the price being low. Due to this manipulation control being asked in the beginning of all condition groups the test could be conducted on the two merged groups. The conducted independent samples t-test clearly indicated a significant difference ($F = 7.13$, $p = .00$) in the perception of the price in the manipulation, being high in the scarcity of wealth condition ($M = 6.30$, $SD = .96$, $n = 85$) and low in the abundance of wealth condition ($M = 2.25$, $SD = 1.34$, $n = 61$).

Table 4: Manipulation Control

Description: How the price displayed in the different ads was perceived. The group primed as rich (More money) were shown a lower price whilst the group primed as poor (Less money) were shown a higher price.

	LOW	HIGH	MEAN
MORE MONEY	1	7	2.25
LESS MONEY	1	7	6.30
			Mean difference = -4.05
			Sign. (2-tailed) .00

The second part in testing of manipulation controls was comparing the means of the same stimuli groups with the manipulation control questions in the beginning and in the end. When measuring the manipulation control a multi-item measurement was used. The respondents were asked 'After having viewed this ad, how do you feel?' with two following statements of 'Rich' and 'Wealthy', to which they indicated on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 = 'Strongly Disagree' to 7 = 'Strongly agree'. The statements were then indexed together, showing a Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = .92$. Results from a two-tailed independent samples t-test indicated that the two groups who were primed with having more money, manipulation control in the beginning ($M = 4.18$, $SD = 1.10$, $n = 36$) and manipulation control in the end ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .94$, $n = 25$), did not show any difference in the strength of the stimulus ($F = .00$, $p = .94$). Likewise, a two-tailed independent samples t-test was conducted for the two groups that were primed with having less money, manipulation control in the beginning ($M = 2.63$, $SD = 1.40$, $n = 35$) and manipulation control in the end ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.19$, $n = 50$), which indicated that there was no significant difference in the strength of the stimulus between them either ($F = 1.56$, $p = .41$).

Table 5: Test if there was a succession effect regarding the manipulation control.
Half of the groups were asked the control question first, half of the group were asked last.

	MIN STRONGLY DISAGREE	MAX STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	
MORE MONEY (CONTROL FIRST)	1	7	4.18	
MORE MONEY (CONTROL LAST)	1	7	4.2 Mean diff = -.02	Sign. (2-tailed) .94
LESS MONEY (CONTROL FIRST)	1	7	2.63	
LESS MONEY (CONTROL LAST)	1	7	2.86 Mean diff = -.23	Sign. (2-tailed) .41

Since the four groups did not indicate any differences under the same treatment, they were merged into two condition groups in order to generate a larger sample, by recommendation of Professor Micael Dahlen. Once the four groups had been pooled into two, the manipulation controls of checking the perceived feeling of wealth, was conducted in order to asses a significant difference between the two condition groups. Results from an independent samples t-test indicated that there was a significant difference in feelings of wealth ($F = 13.01$, $p = .00$) between the two condition groups, having more money ($M = 4.19$, $SD = 1.03$, $n = 85$) and having less money ($M = 2.76$, $SD = 1.27$, $n = 61$). The results indicate a successful stimuli resulting in two treatment groups with feelings of having more or less money.

Table 6: Manipulation control of feeling wealthy. Two groups only i.e. no consideration of succession effect.

	MIN STRONGLY DISAGREE	MAX STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	
MORE MONEY	1	7	4.19	
LESS MONEY	1	7	2.76 Mean diff = -1.42	Sign. (2-tailed) .00

Concluding, the manipulation controls all proved success of the stimuli and therefore making it possible to investigate the hypotheses with high internal validity, ensuring the potential effects were caused by the research stimuli.

4.2 EFFECTS OF MONEY PRIMING ON THE PERSONAL SELF

This part of the chapter examines if money reminders in advertising, making consumers feel as having more or less money, will have a positive influence on the consumer's personal self. It is investigated by empirically testing the proposed effects on parts of the personal self of (H1) Self-esteem and (H2) Mating motives. Given the proven success of the stimuli by the manipulation controls, all positive effects on the personal self are attributed to the money priming in the advertisement. The assessments of the hypotheses were conducted by the use of independent samples t-test mean comparison, accepting significance levels of .05 or less ($p < .05$).

4.2.1 Self-esteem's Impact on Consumption

The generated hypothesis, based on theory, that the participants primed with having more money would indicate higher levels of self-esteem was tested by an independent samples t-test comparing the means of the measurement 'Self-esteem' between the condition groups. As predicted, the results showed that the participants primed with having more money ($M = 7.17$, $SD = 1.00$, $n = 61$) scored a higher mean in self-esteem than the group primed with having less money ($M = 6.79$, $SD = 1.24$, $n = 85$). The test also indicated a significant difference of the means between the two groups ($F = 2.35$, $p = .03$), hence, the hypothesis was accepted.

H1: Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of self-esteem, compared to the ones primed with having less money **ACCEPTED**

Table 7: Test of Self-esteem (10-point scale)

	MIN	MAX	MEAN
MORE MONEY	1	10	7.17
LESS MONEY	1	10	6.79
			Mean diff = .38 Sign. (1-tailed) .03

4.2.2 The Motivation of Mating

Following theory of the positive correlation of power and mating motives it is argued and hypothesized that participants feeling abundance of wealth would have stronger mating motives than the ones primed with scarcity of wealth. In line with the expected outcome, the condition group primed with abundance of wealth ($M = 4.65$, $SD = 2.17$, $n = 46$) indicated higher means of the measurement 'Mating motives' than the condition group primed with scarcity of wealth ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 2.19$, $n = 71$). The hypotheses were also accepted since there was a significant difference of means between the two condition groups ($F = .05$, $p = .04$)

H2: Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of mating motives, compared to the ones primed with having less money **ACCEPTED**

Table 8: Test of Mating Motives (with 7 being highest willingness, 1 lowest)

	MIN	MAX	MEAN
MORE MONEY	1	7	4.65
LESS MONEY	1	7	3.92
			Mean diff = .73 Sign. (1-tailed) .04

4.3 EFFECTS OF MONEY PRIMING ON THE INTERPERSONAL SELF

The following part of the chapter examines if money reminders in advertising, making consumers feel as having more or less money, will have a negative influence on the consumer's interpersonal self. It is investigated by empirically testing the proposed effects on parts of the interpersonal self of (H3) Social connectedness, (H4a, H4b, H4c) Prosocial behaviour in terms of helping others, (H5) Infidelity and (H6) Consumer choice attitudes. Given the proven success of the stimuli by the manipulation controls, all negative effects on the interpersonal self are attributed to the money priming in the advertisement. The assessment of the hypotheses was conducted by the use of independent samples t-test mean comparison, accepting significance levels of .05 or less ($p < .05$).

4.3.1 Social Connectedness

Given the existing theory on reminders of money resulting in social distancing and lower levels of social connectedness, it was expected that the participants in this study who were induced to feel as having more money would feel less socially connected than the participants induced to feel as having less money. Contrary to what was expected, both condition groups indicated equal mean levels of the measurement 'Social connectedness'. The independent samples t-test indicate that there was no significant difference ($F = 2.18$, $p = .17$) of the means between the condition of having more money ($M = 5.80$, $SD = 1.15$, $n = 61$) and the condition of having less money ($M = 5.96$, $SD = .88$, $n = 85$). The condition of abundance did show a slightly lower mean of social connectedness though it was insignificant, consequently the hypothesis was rejected.

H3: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of feelings of social connectedness, compared to the ones primed with having less money **REJECTED**

Table 9: Test of Social Connectedness (with 7 being highest connectedness, 1 lowest)

	MIN	MAX	MEAN
MORE MONEY	1	7	5.80
LESS MONEY	1	7	5.96
			Mean diff = -.34 Sign. (1-tailed) .17

4.3.2 Prosocial Behaviour in Terms of Helping Others

In accordance with recent research, indicating that reminders of money makes people less helpful, it was expected that participants in the abundance group would be less prone to helping others. The purpose was to contribute the current research with testing different groups of people with a variety of closeness to the participants, as opposed to current research that focus on helping strangers. Due to the different degrees of closeness in the objects to help, an index could not be created. Therefore, the questions of helping family members, friends and strangers, were tested one by one. In all of the cases, except one, the abundance condition group did indicate lower means of intent to help others than the scarcity condition group, however, there was no significant difference between the means in any of the cases.

H4a: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help family members, compared to the ones primed with having less money **REJECTED**

Table 10: Test of Prosocial behaviour in terms of willingness to help others (Family)

	MIN	MAX	MEAN
MORE MONEY	1	7	5.16
LESS MONEY	1	7	4.74
			Mean diff = .42 Sign. (1-tailed) .07

H4b: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help friends, compared to the ones primed with having less money **REJECTED**

Table 11: Test of Prosocial behaviour in terms of willingness to help others (Friends)

	MIN	MAX	MEAN
MORE MONEY	1	7	4.84
LESS MONEY	1	7	5.00
			Mean diff = -.16 Sign. (1-tailed) .27

H4c: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help strangers, compared to the ones primed with having less money **REJECTED**

Table 12: Test of Prosocial behaviour in terms of willingness to help others (Strangers)

	MIN	MAX	MEAN
MORE MONEY	1	7	2.92
LESS MONEY	1	7	3.22
			Mean diff = -.30 Sign. (1-tailed) .13

4.3.3 Infidelity Among the Powerful

Following the theories of the close association between money and power, which in turn indicate a positive link with infidelity, it was expected that the participants made to feel as having more money would be more prone to show higher levels of intent to engage in infidelity than the ones induced to feel as having less money. In order to investigate intentions of infidelity the measurement of 'Mating Motives' was tested among participants who had indicated living with a partner or living alone with a partner visiting frequently. Hence, the respondents who lived alone or with roommates, without a partner, were excluded. As opposed to the anticipation, analysing the means did not show any difference among the two condition groups of intents to engage in infidelity. Although, the condition group of having more money did show a higher mean of intent ($M = 3.93$, $SD = 2.24$, $n = 23$) than the group of having less money ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 2.09$, $n = 36$), nevertheless the difference in mean was not of significance ($F = .16$, $p = .29$) and the hypothesis was consequently rejected.

H5: *Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of intent to engage in infidelity, compared the ones primed with having less money* **REJECTED**

Table 13: Test of Infidelity (with 7 being high willingness, 1 low)

	MIN	MAX	MEAN
MORE MONEY	1	7	3.60
LESS MONEY	1	7	3.93
			Mean diff = -.33
			Sign. (1-tailed) .29

4.3.4 Consumer Choice Attitudes

The argument of participants primed with having more money preferring the solo utilitarian option is based on literature stating that individuals primed with money prefer utilitarian products over hedonic products. It was further supported by theory stating that money primes lead to a preference of solitude and spending time alone. As opposed to anticipation, the results from the mean comparison analysis indicated the opposite, the participants primed with having more money indicated a lower preference ($M = 4.42$, $SD = 1.86$, $n = 61$) for the utilitarian solo option, compared to the condition group of having less money ($M = 5.60$, $SD = 1.50$, $n = 85$), with a significant difference ($F = 7.67$, $p = .00$). Given the results, the hypothesis was rejected

H6: *Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of preference of a solo utilitarian consumer option, compared to the ones primed with having less money* **REJECTED**

Table 13: Test of consumer attitudes towards option with obvious utilitarian features (with 7 being most positive, 1 most negative)

	MIN	MAX	MEAN
MORE MONEY	1	7	4.42
LESS MONEY	1	7	5.60
			Mean diff = -1.17 Sign. (1-tailed) .00

Table 14: Test of consumer attitudes towards option with obvious hedonic features (with 7 being most positive, 1 most negative)

	MIN	MAX	MEAN
MORE MONEY	1	7	5.90
LESS MONEY	1	7	5.30
			Mean diff = .60 Sign. (1-tailed) .01

4.4 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

RQ1: Will feelings of having more money impact consumer's personal self for the better, compared to feelings of having less money?	H1: Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of self-esteem compared, to the ones primed with having less money	Accepted
	H2: Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of mating motives, compared to the ones primed with having less money	Accepted
RQ2: Will feelings of having more money impact consumer's interpersonal self for the worse, compared to feelings of having less money?	H3: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of feelings of social connectedness, compared to the ones primed with having less money	Rejected
	H4a: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help family members, compared to the ones primed with having less money	Rejected
	H4b: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help friends, compared to the ones primed with having less money	Rejected
	H4c: Participants primed with having more money will indicate lower levels of intent to help strangers, compared to the ones primed with having less money	Rejected
	H5: Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of intent to engage in infidelity, compared to the ones primed with having less money	Rejected
	H6: Participants primed with having more money will indicate higher levels of preference of a solo utilitarian consumer option, compared to the ones primed with having less money	Rejected (Reversed condition)

5. DISCUSSION

This chapter will discuss the findings of the study, beginning with a conclusion presenting responses to the purpose of the study and its research questions. Followed by a general and specific discussion of the results. Concluding the thesis are the limitations, managerial implications and suggestions for future research.

5.1 CONCLUSION

The overall purpose of this thesis was to build upon existing literature on money priming and introduce it to a marketing context, to test if the same theories would apply. Specifically, investigating if feelings of having more money would have a positive impact on the consumer's personal self and a negative impact on the consumer's interpersonal self, compared to feelings of having less money. Below are the research questions answered followed by a conclusion regarding the purpose of the thesis.

RQ 1: Will feelings of having more money impact consumer's personal self for the better, compared to feelings of having less money?

The empirical findings in this study did indeed support the notion of money priming, in the form of having more money, had a positive impact on the participant's personal self in the aspects of *Self-esteem* and *Mating Motives*, compared to the ones primed with having less money. Respondents indicate of higher self-esteem and confidence in mating motives. Thus, it can be concluded that temporarily inducing feelings of having more money have a positive impact on the consumer's personal self, compared to feelings of having less money.

RQ 2: Will feelings of having more money impact consumer's interpersonal self for the worse, compared to feelings of having less money?

The empirical findings in this study did not support the participants primed with having more money experiencing feeling of less *Social Connectedness*, being less *Prosocial in Terms of Helping Others*, having higher levels of intent towards *Infidelity* nor preferring *Consumer Choice Attitudes* of the utilitarian solo kind. In all cases the data did not find any significant differences, thereby it can be concluded that priming having more money, compared to priming having less money, does not have a negative impact on the consumer's interpersonal self.

After having answered the research questions, it can be concluded that to some extent the current literature on the effects of money priming does apply and generate the same outcomes in a marketing context. It did, as expected, generate a positive impact on the consumer's personal self. However, as opposed to indicated by previous literature, it did not have a negative impact on the consumer's interpersonal self. The results regarding consumer choice attitudes indicated of opposite preferences among respondents, i.e. those primed as rich preferred the hedonic option over the utilitarian. Therefore, it can only be concluded that the general money priming effects partially applies to the marketing setting of priming prices inducing consumers to feel as having more or less money. These findings are interesting for both marketing practitioners and researchers, for which reasons are accounted for in the following sections.

5.2 GENERAL DISCUSSION

The findings from this study opens up the area of money priming in marketing settings, indicating that it indeed affects consumers. It is the first study and first contribution into exploring what unintended effects money priming in advertising may have on a consumer's person and what insights practitioners can benefit from. The results further contribute to knowledge by showing that there are effects on the consumer after merely being exposed to a minor price tag in an advertisement and thus emphasising the need for further exploration by marketing researchers. As opposed to what might be assumed, based on the little current research, consumers primed with having more money have higher preferences for hedonic group options compared to consumers primed with having less money. Thus, it challenges current research (Tong et al., 2013; Hansen et al., 2013) by suggesting that relying solely on it would give misleading indications of consumer choice preferences in a marketing setting and thereby how practitioners should communicate successfully.

In terms of the personal self the study gives further support to existing literature of money reminders positive impact, adding additional aspects of self-esteem and mating motives. However, the negative impact on the interpersonal self was not supported by the data in this study, challenging the existing research claiming (Piff et al., 2010; Vohs, 2015; Vohs et al., 2008, Vohs et al., 2006) that money priming induces bad interpersonal tendencies such as being less helpful and less caring. The results thereby suggest that there may be situations where the expected effects of money priming are moderated, in this case a marketing context. The negative impact on the interpersonal self may also have been moderated by the use of objects of closer relations than previous use of strangers when testing helpfulness and other acts of caring. A further moderating factor contributing to current research is the motivation of mating. The prior documented effect of social distancing when being primed

with money concepts was not supported by empirical data in this study, contrary, participants primed with having more money, compared to having less money, indicated higher levels of mating motives.

Overall, the findings of this study both supports and challenges current research on the topic of money priming. It foremost challenges the bad reputation money priming and advertising (promoting consumption and materialism) have, since this study provided observations of positive effects on the personal self and no negative effects on the interpersonal self.

5.2.1 Effects of Money Priming on the Personal Self

The empirical findings supported the research question of money reminders affecting the personal self for the better in a marketing setting. The results contribute to current research with a new context supporting the notion that money reminders have a positive impact on individual's personal self (Vohs, 2015; Vohs et al., 2006; Vohs et al., 2006). Both the increase in self-esteem and mating motives gives sound support that feelings of wealth trigger the behavioural approach tendency and goal activation. It is also interesting for marketing practitioners knowing that simply a small price tag can have a huge positive impact on the consumer.

In line with our reasoning, the empirical data strongly supported that inducing having relatively more money results in higher levels of Self-esteem compared to the ones induced with having relatively less money. Hence, the empirical data supports our reasoning and contributes to research with the finding that increased feelings of monetary wealth have the same effect as increased feelings of power. Also, the results provided empirical support for the correlation between self-esteem and power (Zhang, 2009; Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003) and adding to the literature that manipulated power in the form of feelings of abundant wealth will heighten self-esteem. Lastly, it also contributes to money priming literature

by adding another aspect of the personal self that experience a positive impact of money priming.

In accordance with our expectations, the empirical data supported that elevated power and self-esteem also would lead to sexual forwardness in terms of Mating Motives. These findings challenge Vohs's conclusion of the social distancing effect of money reminders, which they may differ in the context of mating motivation. The empirical findings in this study suggest that the social distancing with reminders of money may be moderated when the goal activation of mating motives is triggered by heightened behavioural approach tendencies. The data clearly indicated that individuals who feel rich have greater interest in attractive potential mates than the ones who feel poor.

5.2.2 Effects of Money Priming on the Interpersonal Self

Contrary to the expected outcome, the analysis of empirical data did not support the notion that money reminders would significantly affect the consumer's interpersonal self for the worse. There were tendencies in the direction as theories suggested, though they were not significant.

Regarding Social Connectedness, Capaldi & Zelenski's (2015) results showed that individuals who had been money primed did not perform a significant difference in the inclination to participate in sustainable actions, however those individuals articulated feelings of being less socially connected to others. However, results of this study showed no significant difference between the treatment groups in terms of perceived social connectedness. A possible reason explaining this might be that the respondents knew they were never going to spend their own money in the experiment. They were only spending their own time, thus they perceived that they partially became primed with the concept of time instead of money, which according to Mogilner (2010), activates motives to spend time with friends and family.

Mead & Stuppy (2014) showed in their study that money reminders can have a positive impact on interpersonal harmony when placed in the context of an exchange or when the exchange function is prevailed by collective aims. By responding to the survey the respondents were exchanging help for a reward and unlimited feeling of gratitude. Even though this notion is farfetched, it is not impossible since the sample of respondents were students who have, are going or will be going through the same process of chasing survey responses for thesis'. Therefore, the feeling of an exchange for future favours to be returned or gratitude could have moderated the effect of money priming.

As opposed to suggested outcome based on theories, results of the empiric data indicated no support for reminders of money reducing the enthusiasm towards *Prosocial Behaviour in Terms of Helping Others*, as was articulated by Pfeffer et al. (2009) and Vohs et al. (2006). The result from this study contradicts current literature by suggesting that participants primed with having more money are not less helpful towards other people, neither strangers nor family, compared to participants primed with having less money.

The empirical data did not support the hypothesis regarding a positive correlation between perceived power and *Infidelity* in this study. It may be explained by the fact that current research is based on actual power positions (Lammers et al., 2011; Lammers & Maner, 2016). Hence, the results may have been moderated by the sample of students lacking actual power positions in the workplace and that a small temporary increase of power is not sufficient in order to gain significant results when it comes to infidelity. The effects might also have been moderated by the non-existent interaction with the models. Kunstman & Maner (2010) did indeed prove that induced power in a work related situation resulted in greater sexual thinking, though their experiments were conducted with real life interaction between the subjects. Still, it is of interest to observe that there was a positive indication in the results with a slightly higher mean of intent towards infidelity among the ones primed

with having more money, which could be interpreted as if the stimuli had been more effectual the result would have been significant.

Furthermore, contrary to the presumed outcome of *Consumer Choice Attitudes*, the empiric results did not support the hypotheses regarding consumer choice attitudes towards the options depending on feelings of having more or less money. Interestingly, in both cases, data showed the reversed relationship. In other words, those who were primed with having more money had significantly more favourable attitudes towards the hedonic choice compared to the ones primed with having less money, who significantly preferred the utilitarian choice. Given the little research performed so far regarding money priming's effect on consumer behaviour, Tong et al. (2013) argued that there might be situational differences that moderate the results. It could therefore be concluded that a marketing context is one, which generates different outcomes than what would be expected by the mere current research. This further emphasises the importance of marketing researchers and practitioners to investigate the effects of money priming in a marketing context since it may differ from the stated general effects of money priming in current literature.

5.3 LIMITATIONS

Performing a laboratory experiment has its limitations due to the artificial and highly controlled environment of the experiment. Subsequently, a discussion of the limitations of the study at hand follows.

Firstly, as mentioned, the experiment was conducted in a very organized setting with manipulated ads and therefore does not represent a real-life setting, which can influence the results. In order to attain as much of a real life setting as possible it was of great importance to use credible stimuli. Thus, in combination with budget constraints of the study, images of a real online hotel booking were used with a slight manipulation, only the price. This made

the credibility of the stimuli high, although the respondents could have had biased connotations of the layout in the images even as the brand logo had been removed. In opposite, using a fictive neutral advertisement could have reduced the impact of prior connotations; nonetheless it would perhaps have lacked credibility. Furthermore, in regards to the laboratory setting and constraints of the study, respondents were only exposed to the advertisement once. Exposure over a longer period of time and several occasions could probably have strengthened the effects. Additionally, using a variety of ads and different consumer options would have strengthened the representation of the study.

Secondly, parts of the study concerned private and sensitive topics; in such instances there is always the limitation of participants answering what they believe is expected of them, by social conventions, and not what they truly think. Even though participants were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality, participants may still be hesitant in fear of being judged and criticized.

Thirdly, the sample limits the study, as it was a highly homogenous group and a sample of 183 participants. While 183 respondents are a high number it is still a too small and homogenous sample to determine any certain conclusions from, yet the findings should still be viewed as strong indications. The observations in the study are limited to being representative and generalizable for the sample environment, university students in the Stockholm area.

5.4 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings in this study provide insights for marketing practitioners on the effects on consumers of price exposure and money reminders in advertising. The implications entail, compared to previous research within marketing, how it affects consumer's personal self and interpersonal self. Previous research has stressed the importance of consumer's self-esteem's impact on consumption attitudes and behaviour. This study found that exposing consumers to low and high prices and hence feelings of having relatively more or less money resulted in different levels of self-esteem. The participants exposed to low prices had higher levels of self-esteem compared to the ones exposed to high prices. Hence, the mere exposure to prices can alter consumer's self-esteem and can thus be used as a tool for self-esteem advertising.

The effect of increased mating motives after feelings of having more money, compared to feelings of having less money, is an interesting observation for the dating industry. The results from this study suggests that people who are induced with feelings of having more money are more inclined to be interested in mating. Hence, the consequence being that practitioners who want to attract people to use dating services should communicate in ways that make the consumers feel rich and powerful - 'the power of the swipe' (reference to the popular dating app Tinder).

The two conditions of having more or less money also resulted in differences in attitudes towards consumer options. The empirical data indicated that individuals who felt rich preferred a hedonic group activity while the ones who felt poor preferred a utilitarian solo activity. This is a clear signal for marketing practitioners that individuals exposed to low prices, and hence feel rich, value joyful group activities and focus in marketing efforts should therefore be on the peripheral aspects of products and services. Likewise, it is important to consider that consumers exposed to high prices and hence

feeling poor value functional single activities and practitioners should in those situations focus on enhancing central aspects in their marketing. It is vital for marketing practitioners to know what type of consumer options are most preferred by consumers in different situations and mind-sets in order to provide consumers with attractive offerings, adjusted for different settings that may alter consumer choice attitudes.

5.5 FUTURE RESEARCH

The objective of this study was open up the unexplored research area of the unintended effects of prices and money priming in advertising. More precisely contribute to research by examining how exposure to an advertisement containing high or low prices affect consumer's personal self and interpersonal self. Due to time, budget and resources, focus had to be given on a range of pre-chosen effects and manipulations, while generating attention to the topic and open up for future research. With regards to the delimitations, findings and limitations of this study there are several areas in where future studies could take on, where this thesis has opened up for possible further research.

In this study it was observed that priming having more or less money had effects on the consumer's personal self and interpersonal self, hence it would be interesting to extend the experiment of this study by investigating potentially other aspects of the consumer's self and how these are affected by the exposure. Another way to further elaborate on the experiment is to use a different stimulus, e.g. another type of advertising, other type of product or service. In this case a fairly hedonic high involvement activity was used. Another interesting extension of this study could be to choose a more utilitarian low involvement product as advertising stimulus (Rossiter & Percy, 1991).

This experiment was distributed online through a survey tool, another way of examining unintended effects, if having a larger budget, is to try a real advertising setting in e.g. magazines, newspapers or through posters. Another real-life alteration, which could modify the effects, is if the preference of product was tested in an actual purchasing setting, not as a reward as in this thesis. According to some theories (Dhar, 2000) certain products can tend to be favoured over others in reward settings and thus might have affected the outcome. By studying consumers in an actual purchase setting, where they spend their own money, other consequences may be revealed.

Finally, an interesting additional aspect would be to compare the effects of money reminders and ads not containing prices. What would be the difference in the effects on consumers and brands, depending on if the ads contain prices or currencies compared to those who are without. Are the reminders of consumption and association to the products enough to provoke the same effects that were generated in this study or do these only prevail when prices are displayed?

Concluding, money priming is an interesting and important research area, which has been given relatively little attention until recently, ignoring the fact that most of us are being affected by reminders of money on a daily basis, both offline and online. Further plotting of effects and results would generate higher awareness, sounder support and insights of the unintentional impact of advertising on consumers, both positive and negative.

6. REFERENCES

6.1 BOOKS

Bhattacharjee, A., 2012. *Social Science Research: Principles, Methods, and Practices*. 2nd ed. Tampa, FL: University of South Florida.

Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E., 2011, *Business Research Methods*, 3rd ed., Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Churchill, G. A., & Iacobucci, D. (2005). *Marketing research: Methodological foundations*. Mason, OH: Thomson/South-Western.

Grdäs, C., Haglund, L., Engdahl, N., & Christensen, L. (2010). *Marknadsundersökning: En handbok*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.

Malhotra, N. K. (2004). *Marketing research: An applied orientation*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Prentice Hall.

Malhotra, N. K., & Birks, D. F. (2007). *Marketing research: An applied approach*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.

Söderlund, M., (2010), *Experiment med människor*, Liber, Malmö

Söderlund, M. (2005). *Mätningar och mått: I marknadsundersökarens värld*. Malmö: Liber ekonomi.

Webster, M., & Sell, J. (2007). *Laboratory experiments in the social sciences*. Amsterdam: Academic Press/Elsevier.

6.2 JOURNAL ARTICLES

Amato, P. R., & Previti, D. (2003). People's reasons for divorcing gender, social class, the life course, and adjustment. *Journal of Family Issues*, 24(5), 602-626.

Anderson, C., & Berdahl, J. L. (2002). The experience of power: Examining the effects of power on approach and inhibition tendencies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(6), 1362.

Anderson, C., & Galinsky, A. D. (2006). Power, optimism, and risk-taking. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 36(4), 511-536.

Argo, J. J., & White, K. (2012). When do consumers eat more? the role of appearance self-esteem and food packaging cues. *Journal of Marketing*, 76(2), 67-80.

Banister, E. N., & Hogg, M. K. (2003). Possible selves: Identifying dimensions for exploring the dialectic between positive and negative selves in consumer behaviour. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 30(1), 149-150.

Barach, J. A. (1967). Self-confidence and reactions to television commercials. *Risk Taking and Information Handling in Consumer Behavior*, Donald F.Cox Ed., Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, Boston,

Bargh, J. A., & Chartrand, T. L. (1999). The unbearable automaticity of being. *American Psychologist*, 54(7), 462.

- Bargh, J. A., Gollwitzer, P. M., Lee-Chai, A., Barndollar, K., & Trötschel, R. (2001). The automated will: Nonconscious activation and pursuit of behavioral goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81(6), 1014.
- Bargh, J. A., Raymond, P., Pryor, J. B., & Strack, F. (1995). Attractiveness of the underling: An automatic power \times sex association and its consequences for sexual harassment and aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(5), 768.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(3), 497.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Vohs, K. D. (2015). The meanings of money: Behavioral, interpersonal, cognitive, motivational and affective consequences of money-related thoughts. Manuscript under review, Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University.
- Bhat, S., & Reddy, S. K. (1998). Symbolic and functional positioning of brands. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 15(1), 32-43.
- Bishop, M., & Barber, N. (2012). A market segmentation approach to esteem and efficacy in information search. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 29(1), 13-21.
- Boksem, M. A., Smolders, R., & De Cremer, D. (2012). Social power and approach-related neural activity. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, 7(5), 516-520. doi:10.1093/scan/nsp006 [doi]
- Brady, S., Lord, C., & Hill, S. (2011). Evaluating others based on attractiveness: Power enhances preference for physically attractive partners. Poster Presented at the Annual Meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, San Antonio, TX.
- Burgoyne, C. B., & Lea, S. E. G. (2006). Money is material. *Science*, 314(5802), 1091-1092. doi:10.1126/science.1135429
- Campbell, D. E., & Wolbrecht, C. (2008). See Jane run: Women politicians as role models for adolescents. *The Journal of Politics*, 68, 233-247
- Cano, A., & O'Leary, K. D. (2000). Infidelity and separations precipitate major depressive episodes and symptoms of nonspecific depression and anxiety. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 68(5), 774.
- Chartrand, T. L., & Bargh, J. A. (1999). The chameleon effect: The perception-behavior link and social interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76(6), 893.
- Chatterjee, P., & Rose, R. L. (2012). Do payment mechanisms change the way consumers perceive products? *Journal of Consumer Research*, 38(6), 1129-1139.
- Chatterjee, P., Rose, R. L., & Sinha, J. (2012). Why money meanings matter in decisions to donate time and money. *Marketing Letters*, 24(2), 109-118.
- Dahl, D. W., Argo, J. J., & Morales, A. C. (2012). Social information in the retail environment: The importance of consumption alignment, referent identity, and self-esteem. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 38(5), 860-871.
- Depue, R. A. (1995). Neurobiological factors in personality and depression. *European Journal of Personality*, 9(5), 413-439.
- DeVoe, S. E., & Pfeffer, J. (2009). When is happiness about how much you earn? the effect of hourly payment on the money-happiness connection. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 35(12), 1602-1618. doi:10.1177/0146167209346304 [doi]

- Dhar, R., & Wertenbroch, K. (2000). Consumer choice between hedonic and utilitarian goods. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37(1), 60-71.
- Dubois, D., Rucker, D. D., & Galinsky, A. D. (2010). The accentuation bias: Money literally looms larger (and sometimes smaller) to the powerless. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 1(3), 199-205. doi:10.1177/1948550610365170
- Durgee, J. F. (1986). Self-esteem advertising. *Journal of Advertising*, 15(4), 21-42.
- Feinberg, R. A. (1986). Credit cards as spending facilitating stimuli: A conditioning interpretation. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 12, 348-356.
- Furnham, A. (1984). Many sides of the coin: The psychology of money usage. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 5(5), 501-509.
- Galinsky, A. D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Magee, J. C. (2003). From power to action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(3), 453.
- Galinsky, A. D., Magee, J. C., Gruenfeld, D. H., Whitson, J. A., & Liljenquist, K. A. (2008). Power reduces the press of the situation: Implications for creativity, conformity, and dissonance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 95(6), 1450.
- Galinsky, A. D., Maddux, W. W., Gilin, D., & White, J. B. (2008). Why it pays to get inside the head of your opponent: The differential effects of perspective taking and empathy in negotiations. *Psychological Science*, 19(4), 378-384. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02096.x [doi]
- Gasiorowska, A., & Helka, A. M. (2012). Psychological consequences of money and money attitudes in dictator game. *Polish Psychological Bulletin*, 43, 20-26.
- Gasiorowska, A., Zaleskiewicz, T., & Wygrab, S. (2012). Would you do something for me?: The effects of money activation on social preferences and social behavior in young children. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 33, 603-608.
- Gordon, K. C., Baucom, D. H., & Snyder, D. K. (2004). An integrative intervention for promoting recovery from extramarital affairs. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, 30(2), 213-231.
- Gruenfeld, D. H., Inesi, M. E., Magee, J. C., & Galinsky, A. D. (2008). Power and the objectification of social targets. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 95(1), 111.
- Gruenfeld, D. H., Keltner, D. J., & Anderson, C. (2003). The effects of power on those who possess it: How social structure can affect social cognition.
- Guéguen, N., & Jacob, C. (2013). Color and cyber-attractiveness: Red enhances men's attraction to women's internet personal ads. *Color Research & Application*, 38(4), 309-312.
- Guinote, A. (2007). Power and goal pursuit. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33(8), 1076-1087. doi:10.146167207301011 [pii]
- Han, S., Gupta, S., & Lehmann, D. R. (2002). Consumer price sensitivity and price thresholds. *Journal of Retailing*, 77(4), 435-456.
- Hanley, A., & Wilhelm, M. S. (1992). Compulsive buying: An exploration into self-esteem and money attitudes. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 13(1), 5-18.
- Hansen, J., Kutzner, F., & Wänke, M. (2013). Money and thinking: Reminders of money trigger abstract construal and shape consumer judgments. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 39(6), 1154-1166.

- Heatherton, T. F., & Polivy, J. (1991). Development and validation of a scale for measuring state self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(6), 895.
- Higgins, E. T., & Brendl, C. M. (1995). Accessibility and applicability: Some "activation rules" influencing judgment. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 31(3), 218-243.
- Higgins, E. T., Klein, R., & Strauman, T. (1985). Self-concept discrepancy theory: A psychological model for distinguishing among different aspects of depression and anxiety. *Social Cognition*, 3(1), 51.
- Hilgard, E. R. (1962). Impulsive versus realistic thinking: An examination of the distinction between primary and secondary processes in thought. *Psychological Bulletin*, 59(6), 477.
- Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic consumption: Emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *The Journal of Marketing*, 92-101.
- Holbrook, M. B., & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption: Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9, 132-140.
- Homburg, C., Hoyer, W. D., & Koschate, N. (2005). Customers' reactions to price increases: Do customer satisfaction and perceived motive fairness matter? *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 33(1), 36-49.
- Jiang, Y., Chen, Z., & Wyer, R. S. (2014). Impact of money on emotional expression. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 55, 228-233. doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2014.07.013
- Janis, I. L. (1954). Personality correlates of susceptibility to persuasion. *Journal of personality*, 22(4), 504-518.
- Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Anderson, C. (2003). Power, approach, and inhibition. *Psychological Review*, 110(2), 265.
- Khan, U., Dhar, R., & Wertenbroch, K. (2005). A behavioral decision theory perspective on hedonic and utilitarian choice. *Inside Consumption: Frontiers of Research on Consumer Motives, Goals, and Desires*, 144-165.
- Kim, J. -., & Kim, J. (2012). Human factors in retail environments: A review. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 40(11), 818-841
- Kirmani, A., & Wright, P. (1989). Money talks: Perceived advertising expense and expected product quality. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16, 344-353.
- Kouchaki, M., Smith-Crowe, K., Brief, A. P., & Sousa, C. (2013). Seeing green: Mere exposure to money triggers a business decision frame and unethical outcomes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 121(1), 53-61.
- Kraus, M. W., Piff, P. K., Mendoza-Denton, R., Rheinschmidt, M. L., & Keltner, D. (2012). Social class, solipsism, and contextualism: How the rich are different from the poor. *Psychological Review*, 119(3), 546.
- Kunstman, J. W., & Maner, J. K. (2010). Sexual overperception: Power, mating motives, and biases in social judgment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 98(2), 282.
- Langner, C. A., & Keltner, D. (2008). Social power and emotional experience: Actor and partner effects within dyadic interactions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 44(3), 848-856.
- Lammers, J., & Maner, J. (2016). Power and attraction to the counternormative aspects of infidelity. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 53(1), 54-63.

- Lammers, J., Stoker, J. I., & Stapel, D. A. (2010). Power and behavioral approach orientation in existing power relations and the mediating effect of income. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 40(3), 543-551.
- Lammers, J., Stapel, D. A., & Galinsky, A. D. (2010). Power increases hypocrisy: Moralizing in reasoning, immorality in behavior. *Psychological Science*, 21(5), 737-744. doi:10.1177/0956797610368810 [doi]
- Lammers, J., Stoker, J. I., Jordan, J., Pollmann, M., & Stapel, D. A. (2011). Power increases infidelity among men and women. *Psychological Science*, 22(9), 1191-1197. doi:10.1177/0956797611416252 [doi]
- Lammers, J., Stoker, J. I., & Stapel, D. A. (2009). Differentiating social and personal power: Opposite effects on stereotyping, but parallel effects on behavioral approach tendencies. *Psychological Science*, 20(12), 1543-1549. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9280.2009.02479.x [doi]
- Lee, E., Ahn, H., & Nam, M. (2013) The effect of money priming on consumers' choice.
- Lee, R. M., & Robbins, S. B. (2000). Understanding social connectedness in college women and men. *Journal of Counseling and Development: JCD*, 78(4), 484.
- Lerner, B. (2011, January). Power, physical attractiveness, and sexual overperception. Poster presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, San Antonio, TX.
- Liu, J., Smeesters, D., & Vohs, K. D. (2012). RETRACTED: Reminders of money elicit feelings of threat and reactance in response to social influence. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 38(6), 1030-1046.
- Magee, J. C., & Galinsky, A. D. (2008). 8 social hierarchies: The Self-Reinforcing nature of power and status. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1), 351-398.
- Magee, J. C., & Langner, C. A. (2008). How personalized and socialized power motivation facilitate antisocial and prosocial decision-making. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 42(6), 1547-1559.
- Magee, J. C., Galinsky, A. D., & Gruenfeld, D. H. (2007). Power, propensity to negotiate, and moving first in competitive interactions. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33(2), 200-212. doi:33/2/200 [pii]
- Maner, J. K., Gailliot, M. T., Menzel, A. J., & Kunstman, J. W. (2012). Dispositional anxiety blocks the psychological effects of power. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 38(11), 1383-1395. doi:10.1177/0146167212453341 [doi]
- Maner, J. K., Gailliot, M. T., Rouby, D. A., & Miller, S. L. (2007). Can't take my eyes off you: Attentional adhesion to mates and rivals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 93(3), 389.
- Maner, J. K., Kaschak, M. P., & Jones, J. L. (2010). Social power and the advent of action. *Social Cognition*, 28(1), 122.
- Maner, J. K., & Mead, N. L. (2010). The essential tension between leadership and power: When leaders sacrifice group goals for the sake of self-interest. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 99(3), 482.
- Maner, J. K., Gailliot, M. T., Butz, D. A., & Peruche, B. M. (2007). Power, risk, and the status quo: Does power promote riskier or more conservative decision making? *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33(4), 451-462. doi:33/4/451 [pii]
- Maslow, A. H., Frager, R., Fadiman, J., McReynolds, C., & Cox, R. (1970). *Motivation and personality* Harper & Row New York.

- McFerran, B., Dahl, D. W., Fitzsimons, G. J., & Morales, A. C. (2010). I'll have what she's having: Effects of social influence and body type on the food choices of others. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 36(6), 915-929.
- Mead, N. L., & Stuppy, A. (2014). Two sides of the same coin: Money can promote and hinder interpersonal processes. *The psychological science of money* (pp. 243-262) Springer.
- Mogilner, C. (2010). The pursuit of happiness: Time, money, and social connection. *Psychological Science*, 21(9), 1348-1354. doi:10.1177/0956797610380696
- Mogilner, C., & Aaker, J. (2009). The time vs. money effect: Shifting product attitudes and decisions through personal connection. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 36(2), 277-291. doi:10.1086/597161
- Mok, A., & De Cremer, D. (2015). Overlooking interpersonal hurt: A global processing style influences forgiveness in work relationships. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 24(2), 267-278.
- Molinsky, A. L., Grant, A. M., & Margolis, J. D. (2012). The bedside manner of homo economicus: How and why priming an economic schema reduces compassion. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 119(1), 27-37. doi:10.1016/j.obhdp.2012.05.001
- Nattinger, A. B., Hoffmann, R. G., Howell-Pelz, A., & Goodwin, J. S. (1998). Effect of Nancy Reagan's mastectomy on choice of surgery for breast cancer by US women. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 279, 762.
- Park, J. K., & John, D. R. (2011). More than meets the eye: The influence of implicit and explicit self-esteem on materialism. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 21(1), 73-87.
- Penner, L. A., Fritzsche, B. A., Craiger, J. P., & Freifeld, T. R. (1995). Measuring the prosocial personality. *Advances in Personality Assessment*, 10, 147-163.
- Percy, L., & Donovan, R. J. (1991). A better advertising planning grid. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 31, 11-21.
- Pfeffer, J., & DeVoe, S. E. (2009). Economic evaluation: The effect of money and economics on attitudes about volunteering. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 30(3), 500-508.
- Piff, P. K., Kraus, M. W., Côté, S., Cheng, B. H., & Keltner, D. (2010). Having less, giving more: The influence of social class on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 99(5), 771.
- Pryor, J. B., & Stoller, L. M. (1994). Sexual cognition processes in men high in the likelihood to sexually harass. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 20(2), 163-169.
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. M., & Ormston, R. (2013). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers* Sage.
- Reutner, L., Hansen, J., & Greifeneder, R. (2015). The cold heart reminders of money cause feelings of physical coldness. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, , 1948550615574005.
- Scherhorn, G. (1990). The addictive trait in buying behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 13(1), 33-51.
- Simpson, J. A., & Gangestad, S. W. (1991). Individual differences in sociosexuality: Evidence for convergent and discriminant validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(6), 870.
- Simpson, J. A., Gangestad, S. W., & Lerma, M. (1990). Perception of physical attractiveness: Mechanisms involved in the maintenance of romantic relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(6), 1192.

- Sivanathan, N., & Pettit, N. C. (2010). Protecting the self through consumption: Status goods as affirmational commodities. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 46(3), 564-570.
- Smith, P. K., & Bargh, J. A. (2008). Nonconscious effects of power on basic approach and avoidance tendencies. *Social Cognition*, 26(1), 1-24.
- Tong, L., Zheng, Y., & Zhao, P. (2013). Is money really the root of all evil? the impact of priming money on consumer choice. *Marketing Letters*, 24(2), 119-129.
- van Laer, T., de Ruyter, K., & Cox, D. (2013). A walk in customers' shoes: How attentional bias modification affects ownership of integrity-violating social media posts. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 27(1), 14-27. doi:10.1016/j.intmar.2012.09.002
- Venkatesan, M. (1968). PERSONALITY AND PERSUASIBILITY IN CONSUMER DECISION MAKING. *Journal of Advertising Research*. Chicago
- Vohs, K. D. (2015). Money priming can change people's thoughts, feelings, motivations, and behaviors: An update on 10 years of experiments. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 144(4), e86-e93. doi:10.1037/xge0000091
- Vohs, K. D., Mead, N. L., & Goode, M. R. (2006). The psychological consequences of money. *Science*, 314(5802), 1154-1156. doi:10.1126/science.1132491
- Vohs, K. D., Mead, N. L., & Goode, M. R. (2008). Merely activating the concept of money changes personal and interpersonal behavior. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 17(3), 208-212. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8721.2008.00576.x
- Wilkey, B. (2011). Power's effect on motivating romantic approach. In Close Relationships preconference at the annual meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, San Antonio, TX.
- Wojciszke, B., & Struzynska-Kujalowicz, A. (2007). Power influences self-esteem. *Social Cognition*, 25(4), 472.
- Wojciszke, B., Baryla, W., Parzuchowski, M., Szymkow, A., & Abele, A. E. (2011). Self-esteem is dominated by agentic over communal information. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 41(5), 617-627. doi:10.1002/ejsp.791
- Wyer, R. S., & Srull, T. K. (1989). *Memory and cognition in its social context*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Zaleskiewicz, T., Gasiorowska, A., Kesebir, P., Luszczynska, A., & Pyszczynski, T. (2013). Money and the fear of death: The symbolic power of money as an existential anxiety buffer. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 36, 55-67.
- Zelenski, J. M., Dopko, R. L., & Capaldi, C. A. (2015). Cooperation is in our nature: Nature exposure may promote cooperative and environmentally sustainable behavior. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 42, 24-31.
- Zeithaml, V. A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *The Journal of Marketing*, 2, 2-22.
- Zhang, Y., & Shrum, L. (2009). The influence of self-construal on impulsive consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35(5), 838-850.
- Zhou, X., Vohs, K. D., & Baumeister, R. F. (2009). The symbolic power of money: Reminders of money alter social distress and physical pain. *Psychological Science*, 20(6), 700-706. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9280.2009.02353.x

Zurbriggen, E. L. (2000). Social motives and cognitive power–sex associations: Predictors of aggressive sexual behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78(3), 559.

Åkestam, Rosengren & Dahlen (forthcoming), "Think About it: Exploring the Extended Effects of Gay Portrayals in Advertising", *European Journal of Marketing*.

6.3 ELECTRONIC RESOURCES

80% booking holidays online, finds study. (2012, August 3). Retrieved March 15, 2016, from <http://www.travelweekly.co.uk/articles/41280/80-booking-holidays-online-finds-study>.

Borgström-Hansson, C., & Wirtén, H. (2014, September 30). DN Debatt. "Svenskarnas konsumtion pressar jorden allt hårdare" Retrieved April 12, 2016, from <http://www.dn.se/debatt/svenskarnas-konsumtion-pressar-jorden-allt-hardare/>

Fast fashion. (n.d.). Retrieved May 12, 2016, from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fast_fashion

Fredén, J. (2016, April 19). Sociala medier gynnar reklambranschen. Retrieved May 01, 2016, from <http://sverigesradio.se/sida/artikel.aspx?programid=83&artikel=6414886>

Grenholm, S., & Grenholm, A. (2015, July 26). DN Debatt. "Vinsterna av effektivisering äts upp av ökad konsumtion" Retrieved March 12, 2016, from <http://www.dn.se/debatt/vinsterna-av-effektivisering-ats-upp-av-okad-konsumtion/>

Hooker, L. (2015, March 16). Does money make you mean? Retrieved May 4, 2016, from <http://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-31761576>

Jacobsson, M. (2003, December 5). Konsumtion gör ingen människa glad. Retrieved March 4, 2016, from <http://www.svd.se/konsumtion-gor-ingen-manniska-glad>

Miller, L. (2012, July 1). The Money-Empathy Gap. Retrieved May 5, 2016, from <http://nymag.com/news/features/money-brain-2012-7/>

Sorbe, J. (2016, January 12). Stora prisskillnader på mat i PRO:s undersökning. Retrieved May 05, 2016, from <http://ekuriren.se/jobbpengar/1.3736191-stora-prisskillnader-pa-mat-i-pro-s-undersokning>

Tjäder, A. (2015, December 26). Röda priser lockar många. Retrieved May 12, 2016, from <http://www.vf.se/nyheter/karlstad/roda-priser-lockar-manga>

UCLA: Statistical Consulting Group (2014) One-tailed and two-tailed tests. Retrieved 2016-04-20 from http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/mult_pkg/faq/general/citingats.htm

Mer reklam på nätet än i tv 2017. (2016, March 21). Retrieved April 15, 2016, from <http://www.svt.se/nyheter/utrikes/mer-reklam-pa-natet-an-i-tv-2017>

Starkman Ahlstedt, K. (2015, November 4). Nu vill svenskarna ha lyx på vinterresan. Retrieved May 15, 2016, from <http://www.mynewsdesk.com/se/ticket-privatresor/pressreleases/nu-vill-svenskarna-ha-lyx-paa-vinterresan-1246951>

Svensken drömmer om att resa. (2014, October 1). Retrieved February 15, 2016, from <http://www.gp.se/livsstil/resor/svensken-drömmer-om-att-resa-1.240943>

Wells, G. (2015, June 10). The Dating Business: Love on the Rocks. Retrieved May 10, 2016, from <http://www.wsj.com/articles/the-dating-business-love-on-the-rocks-1433980637>

7. APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Real advertisements used as inspiration for Ving ads tested in the pre-study



Appendix 2 – The two Ving ads tested in the pre-study



UPPLEV MAURITIUS!

Turkosa laguner, vajande kokospalmer & vita stränder

Boende fr **3.760:-**

Villa med 1 sovrum
för 7 nätter med
uteplats, havsutsikt
och privat pool



UPPLEV MAURITIUS!



Turkosa laguner, vajande kokospalmer & vita stränder

Boende fr **79.760:-**

Villa med 1 sovrum
för 7 nätter med
uteplats, havsutsikt
och privat pool

Appendix 3 – The two booking ads that were tested in the pre-study and also used in the main questionnaire

Shanti Maurice Villas ★★★★★
 Saint Felix , Rivere des Galets, Chemin Grenier, Mauritius



Shanti Maurice Villas ligger i Chemin Grenier, 10 km från nationalparken Black River Gorges. Det finns utomhuspool, bubbelpool och ett spacenter på boendet. WiFi är gratis i alla utrymmen.

Villorna har platt-TV med satellitkanaler. Vissa har en terrass och/eller en uteplats med havsutsikt. Det egna badrummet har badrockar. Du har tillgång till gratis gästparkering.

Shanti Maurice Villas har ett fitnesscenter och en restaurang.

Boendetyyp	Max. ▼	Pris för 7 nätter
Villa med 1 sovrum 376 m² Uteplats Havsutsikt Plattskärms-TV	2	SEK 79 756

Shanti Maurice Villas ★★★★★
 Saint Felix , Rivere des Galets, Chemin Grenier, Mauritius

Shanti Maurice Villas ligger i Chemin Grenier, 10 km från nationalparken Black River Gorges. Det finns utomhuspool, bubbelpool och ett spacenter på boendet. WiFi är gratis i alla utrymmen.

Villorna har platt-TV med satellitkanaler. Vissa har en terrass och/eller en uteplats med havsutsikt. Det egna badrummet har badrockar. Du har tillgång till gratis gästparkering.

Shanti Maurice Villas har ett fitnesscenter och en restaurang.

Boendetyyp	Max. ▼	Pris för 7 nätter
Villa med 1 sovrum 376 m² Uteplats Havsutsikt Plattskärms-TV	2	SEK 3 756

Appendix 4 – People displayed in the questionnaire



Appendix 5 – Main Questionnaire

Tack för att du deltar i den här studien som är en del utav en masteruppsats! Du kommer att få se en bild och sedan ta ställning till hur du upplever olika påståenden och frågor. Det finns inga rätt eller fel svar. Svara bara spontant utifrån hur du känner. Alla svarande kommer förbli anonyma.

STIMULUS WAS SHOWN

Vad är ditt intryck av:

	1 Lågt	2	3	4	5	6	7 Högt
Priset	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Vad är ditt intryck av:

	1 Inte alls attraktivt	2	3	4	5	6	7 Mycket attraktivt
Resmålet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Mitt intryck av bilden är

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Dåligt: Bra	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Negativt: Positivt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ofördelaktigt: Fördelaktigt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Efter att ha sett annonsen, hur känner du?

	1 Håller inte alls med	2	3	4	5	6	7 Håller helt med
Rik	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Förmögen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Hur känner du dig just nu?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ledsen: Glad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Olycklig: Lycklig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
På dåligt humör: På gott humör	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Oempatisk: Empatisk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Egoistisk: Omtänksam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kall: Varm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Hur skulle du prioritera följande alternativ under en ledig helg?

	1 Låg prioritet	2	3	4	5	6	7 Hög prioritet
Göra en vän en tjänst och hjälpa hen med sin flytt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sträckkolla serier/filmer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Volontärarbete/Ideellt arbete	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gå på massage	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Laga mat åt min familj	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Unna mig att köpa något som jag velat ha	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Belöningar används flitigt som motivation och incitament till deltagande i olika sammanhang. Tänk dig in i följande situation: Du har frivilligt engagerat dig i ett initiativ utanför skolan/jobbet och för väl utförd prestation belönas med följande: Fyra personliga matlagningslektioner hemma hos dig, du och en kock. Vänligen ta ställning till följande påståenden:

	1 Håller inte alls med	2	3	4	5	6	7 Håller helt med
Jag tycker om belöningen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Belöningen känns värdefull för mig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Belöningen är attraktiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Belöningar används flitigt som motivation och incitament till deltagande i olika sammanhang. Tänk dig in i följande situation: Du har frivilligt engagerat dig i ett initiativ utanför skolan/jobbet och för väl utförd prestation belönas med följande: En middag för dig och tre vänner lagad hemma hos dig av en kock. Vänligen ta ställning till följande påståenden:

	1 Håller inte alls med	2	3	4	5	6	7 Håller helt med
Jag tycker om belöningen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Belöningen känns värdefull för mig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Belöningen är attraktiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Vänligen ta ställning till de olika påståendena.

	1 Håller inte med	2	3	4	5	6	7 Håller med
Jag känner att jag hör ihop med andra människor	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jag känner att jag är en del av en gemenskap	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jag känner att jag är viktig för andra människor och andra människor är viktiga för mig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Det är viktigt med självförverkligande	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Det är viktigt att vara framgångsrik	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Det är viktigt att vara ekonomiskt förmögen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Vänligen ta ställning till de olika påståendena.

	1 Stämmer inte alls	2	3	4	5	6	7 Stämmer helt
Jag har alla saker jag verkligen behöver för att njuta av livet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jag skulle vara lyckligare om jag hade råd att köpa fler saker	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Det stör mig ibland ganska mycket att jag inte har råd att köpa alla saker jag skulle vilja ha	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Är du kvinna eller man?

- ☐ Kvinna
- ☐ Man

Vad är din ålder?

Vilken typ av boendesituation har du?

- ☐ Singelhushåll (ensamboende utan partner)
- ☐ Särbo (ensamboende med partner på besök ibland)
- ☐ Sambo (med partner)
- ☐ Sambo (med rumskompisar)

Vilken är din huvudsakliga sysselsättning just nu?

- ☐ Arbetar som anställd
- ☐ Egen företagare
- ☐ Studerande
- ☐ Pensionär
- ☐ Arbetssökande eller i arbetsmarknadspolitisk åtgärd

Hur stor är din månadsinkomst före skatt?

- ☐ 0 -14 999 kr
- ☐ 15 000 - 29 000 kr
- ☐ 30 000 - 44 999 kr
- ☐ 45 000 - 59 999 kr
- ☐ 60 000 kr eller mer

Som tack för för att du har bidragit med dina svar till vår enkät, har du möjligheten att vara med i utlottningen utav ett presentkort. Välj mellan följande två alternativ och ange din mailadress i fältet, så kontakter vi dig om du blir den lyckliga vinnaren.

- ☐ Bartenderkurs för dig - en helkväll med instruktioner från proffsbartenders (även alkoholfria drinkar om önskas)
- ☐ Cocktailprovning för dig och en vän (även alkoholfria drinkar om önskas)

Ange mailadress

Vi arbetar med ytterligare ett projekt. Där gör vi en mycket kortare undersökning som vi verkligen skulle uppskatta hjälp med. Skulle du kunna tänka dig att hjälpa oss med att fylla i 6 snabba frågor?

- ☐ Ja
- ☐ Nej

Answer If Vi arbetar med ytterligare ett projekt. Där gör vi en mycket kortare undersökning som vi verklige... Ja Is Selected following questions were displayed, otherwise survey was finished

Hur skulle du beskriva ditt självförtroende just nu?

	1 Inte alls bra	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 Mycket bra
	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Vänligen ta ställning till följande frågor (där 10 är mycket attraktiv och 1 inte alls attraktiv)

	1 Inte alls attraktiv	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 Mycket attraktiv
Hur skulle du betygsätta dig själv?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hur tror du att andra skulle betygsätta dig?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Betygsätt dessa två personer på en skala 1-10 (där 10 är mycket attraktiv och 1 är inte alls attraktiv)

Picture of two people were displayed (see appendix 4)

Person 1

	1 Inte alls attraktiv	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 Mycket attraktiv
	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Person 2

	1 Inte alls attraktiv	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 Mycket attraktiv
	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Hur troligt är det att du skulle överväga att göra följande aktiviteter med den person, av de två ovan, som intresserar dig mest? (oavsett betyg)

	1 Inte alls sannolikt	2	3	4	5	6	7 Mycket sannolikt
Sitta bredvid på bussen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gå på promenad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
"Netflix and chill"	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ta ett glas vin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Se en film på bio	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gå på dejt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gå hem med från krogen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>