



Università  
Ca' Foscari  
Venezia

Master's  
Degree  
in "Innovation  
and Marketing"

Final Thesis

# **Framing Effect and Emotions: Analysis of their Impact on Decision-Making Processes**

**Supervisor**

Ch. Prof. Massimo Warglien

**Graduand**

Ana Strainu  
Matriculation  
number  
873256

**Academic Year**

2019 / 2020

**SUMMARY**

- INTRODUCTION ..... 5**
- CHAPTER 1 – FRAMING EFFECT ..... 9**
  - I. Introduction..... 9
  - II. Framing in risky contexts ..... 9
    - 1. Introduction ..... 9
    - 2. Framing effect ..... 10
    - 3. Loss aversion ..... 13
    - 4. Isolation effect..... 15
    - 5. Decision-making process..... 16
    - 6. Small probabilities, certainty, and pseudo certainty effects ..... 19
    - 7. Graphical representation..... 20
  - III. Attribute Framing..... 22
    - 1. Introduction ..... 22
    - 2. Attribute framing explanation..... 24
    - 3. Differences with risky choices framing ..... 25
    - 4. Attribute framing and brain activation..... 25
  - IV. Goal Framing ..... 26
    - 1. Introduction ..... 26
    - 2. Goal framing explanation ..... 27
    - 3. Type of goals..... 28
    - 4. Goal framing exploitation..... 28
    - 5. Differences with other framing types ..... 29
  - V. Mitigating framing effect..... 30
    - 1. Experiential factors that decrease the framing effect..... 30
    - 2. Informational factors that decrease the framing effect ..... 31
    - 3. Personal factors that decrease the framing effect..... 32
- CHAPTER 2 – FRAMING IN MARKETING ..... 35**
  - I. Introduction..... 35
  - II - Message Framing..... 37
    - 1. Attribute framing ..... 37
    - 2. Goal framing..... 40
    - 3. Message framing and mental associations ..... 43
  - III - Framing and pricing strategies ..... 44
    - 1. Consumer’s reference point in assessing price reductions ..... 44

2. Other pricing strategies .....	48
IV - Framing and Loss Aversion .....	50
V - Framing campaigns in real life companies.....	52
VI - Implementing a framing strategy.....	54
1. Preliminary considerations .....	54
2. Strategy implementation.....	55
<b>CHAPTER 3 - HOW EMOTIONS IMPACT ON DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES .....</b>	<b>57</b>
I - Introduction .....	57
II - Models of emotions' impact on decision making processes.....	60
1. Loewenstein-Lerner model of emotions classification .....	61
2. The Somatic Marker Hypothesis .....	64
3. Affect Integrated Model of Decision-making (AIMD) .....	65
4. Pfister and Böhm's classification of emotions' role in decision making.....	67
III - Basic emotions and their impact on decision making processes.....	68
1. Anger.....	68
2. Disgust.....	69
3. Fear.....	71
4. Happiness.....	71
5. Sadness .....	72
6. How to induce basic emotions .....	73
<b>CHAPTER 4 - EMOTIONAL MARKETING .....</b>	<b>75</b>
I - INTRODUCTION.....	75
II - Customer Experience Management (CEM).....	77
1. Evolvment of CEM.....	77
2. Advantages of CEM.....	79
3. Strategic Experiential Modules (SEMs) .....	80
4. CEM's Strategy implementation .....	83
III - Eliciting specific emotions or emotional states.....	86
1. Visual stimuli.....	86
2. Imagery.....	86
3. Colors.....	87
4. Storytelling.....	90
<b>CHAPTER 5 - CASE STUDY: BASTAMUFFA USING FRAMING AND EMOTIONAL MARKETING STRATEGIES.....</b>	<b>93</b>
I - Introduction .....	93

II - Target Anlysis.....	93
III - Framing and Emotional Strategy.....	96
1. Framing.....	96
2. General emotional strategy .....	96
III - Analysis of Communication Tools.....	100
1. Information and communication materials that accompany the product.....	100
2. Facebook Group .....	102
3. Funnel Mail.....	103
4. E-book and Blog Articles.....	104
5. Website .....	105
IV - How the Framing and Emotional Marketing strategy influenced the company's performance.....	105
V – Emotional Strategy Pattern .....	111
<b>CHAPTER 6 - EXPERIMENT .....</b>	<b>113</b>
I - INTRODUCTION.....	113
II - EXPERIMENT STRUCTURE .....	113
1. Target.....	113
2. Landing Pages Structure.....	114
3. Hypothesis .....	116
III - RESULTS .....	117
IV – CONCLUSIONS .....	117
V – FUTHER RESEARCH .....	118
<b>CONCLUSIONS .....</b>	<b>119</b>
<b>AKNOWLEDGMENTS.....</b>	<b>120</b>
<b>INDEX OF FIGURES.....</b>	<b>121</b>
<b>INDEX OF TABLES .....</b>	<b>122</b>
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY .....</b>	<b>123</b>
<b>SITOGRAPHY .....</b>	<b>138</b>
<b>PERSONAL INTERVIEWS.....</b>	<b>140</b>

## INTRODUCTION

Every day, everyone has to make decisions. These decisions can range from the simplest, for example, concerning what to wear, what to eat, what to watch on television to those more complicated related to the job or other crucial aspects of everyday life.

Deciding which products to buy at the supermarket, clothing stores, or other specialized stores, or what services to require are also more or less daily decisions.

When people make decisions, they have the feeling that they are in complete control of their emotional and cognitive processes and that these decisions are always rational. In reality, this does not happen, as, especially for buying, selling and marketing, people are victims of the mind's irrational processes guiding the choice.

Human beings have not always been aware of this human trait; in fact, the first theories on human behaviour suppose that it is rational. Only over time have researchers grasped the irrational variables of human behaviour.

Some significant theories in this area are dual-process theories. They concern the division of how human thought is born and develops, unconsciously and intuitively or consciously, and as a reflection result, have been the subject of many psychological studies (De Neys, 2006).

According to the latter theory, two thinking systems guide human reasoning: System 1 and System 2. The last is definable as the conscious and logical one; people are concentrated and give significant attention to the mental activities to implement when using it. It is voluntary, slow, serial, effortful, and under control.

On the contrary System 1, is automatic, fast, effortless, and biased by emotions. People, when they use it, give more attention to the peripheral cues of the situation.

(De Neys, 2006).

The two systems are not disconnected; the inputs that System 1 takes from the external environment can become outputs for the System 2 process.

For example, the automatic system stores impressions and feelings, which are then analyzed by the conscientious system and transformed into beliefs and choices.

Furthermore, System 2 systematically organizes thoughts starting from information received externally by System 1 (Khaneman, 2011).

However, since System 1 is faster in processing information, it guides the first response to the impulses, and a subsequent re-processing from System 2 does not always occur. (Valerie A. Thompson, 2014).

System 2 is the most efficient, but it is prolonged. As a consequence, to fasten the process, the human mind instinctively uses System 1. The latter exploits a series of mental shortcuts that allow people to solve problems and make judgments quickly. These speeders, which are called heuristics, can help save time when deciding, at the expense, however, the choice effectiveness. The heuristics lead people to eliminate some alternatives that may be the most suitable ones (Bazerman & Moore, 2009).

From heuristics derive cognitive biases, which are errors of judgment and thinking that arise from using system 1 in making decisions. These shortcuts are so uncertain, but at the same time, they are so fast and comfortable, and this makes it impossible for everyone to give up on them (Bazerman & Moore, 2009).

There are several of them, and one is the framing effect. A person reading the same sentence written in different words or taken from another perspective may take a completely different decision. In this thesis, we will first see the derivation of the framing effect and its influence in the marketing area.

Emotions are another variable that composes the irrational part that guides human being behaviour. The thesis will underline their importance in decision-making processes, focusing on the economic ones.

In other words, this thesis starts from the awareness that when human beings make a choice, they act not only rationally but also and above all, irrationally.

This paper aims to analyze how the framing effect and emotions, which are two crucial factors that compose human irrationality, impact the decision-making process underlying their usage in marketing strategies.

Initially, through a theoretical approach, the two phenomena and their implication in companies' general and communication strategies will represent the study object.

Then, the thesis will present the case of an Italian company that, when starting using framing effect and emotional marketing techniques (marketing strategy that considers the impact of emotions on decision-making processes) together, has gradually more than doubled its turnover in 3 years.

In the end, there will be an experiment on the framing effect to understand whether a landing with positive rather than negative wording has more impact in the launch of a commercial offer of an Italian business consultancy firm; namely, it will be A/B testing. The general purpose is to demonstrate the importance of customer profiling from a psychological perspective. Also, it can make the company understand that a strategy that focuses on the person and its needs rather than the product, in the current historical era, can increase the company performance.





# CHAPTER 1 – FRAMING EFFECT

## I. Introduction

The framing effect is a cognitive bias that leads people to make different decisions depending on how the same situation is presented to them (Plous, 1993). If the two options differ in terms of negative (gains) or positive (losses) connotations, then the difference in choice becomes even more evident. When presented with different frames, people change the way they process information. "Frames are abstractions that work to organize or structure message meaning" (Arowolo & Sunday, 2017, p.1).

Kahneman and Tversky (2000) have divided the multiple theories born to explain the framing effect into three types: formal, cognitive and motivational theories.

The formal theory par excellence is the prospect theory described in the next section. Cognitive approaches, on the other hand, analyse what the mental process that leads to weight gains and losses is. In the end, motivational theories consider individuals' affective sphere, including thus their desires and fears. Therefore, the approach to gains and losses becomes an emotional one (Tversky & Kahneman, 2000).

Levin, Schneider, and Gaeth in 1998 identified three types of framing: attribute framing, goal framing and framing in risky contexts. Each type of framing has different modalities and purposes, thus leading people to different actions. Distinguishing them is useful to explain why some studies, carried out on the diverse types, have had conflicting results (Levin et al., 1998).

## II. Framing in risky contexts

### *1. Introduction*

The framing effect is part of the prospect theory hypothesized by Tversky and Kahneman in 1979 and further explored in 1981 and 1986, which analyses how people make decisions in situations under uncertainty.

This theory highlights how, contrary to what the Theory of Expected Utility affirms, people, when faced with different prospects of uncertain decisions, do not choose by comparing their expected utility values (Neumann & Morgenstern, 1953). Theoretically, following this principle, people will tend to select options that maximize their expected utility (Luce & Raiffa, 1957). The latter is obtained by multiplying the utility of the outcomes by their probability and adding the results (Davis & Hands, 1997). Therefore, they will choose the alternative that provides this highest weighted sum (Luce & Raiffa, 1957).

Expected utility theory explains how the rational human being should act, while prospect theory clarifies what subjects actually do.

Tversky and Kahneman have shown how, in fact, not on all occasions, people choose the alternative that has the greatest expected utility. They explained that this inconsistency of human behaviour is due to the presence of some psychological phenomena characteristic of the human being (Tversky & Kahneman, 1979).

## *2. Framing effect*

First of all, the framing effect defined in the introduction. In the domain of choices under risk conditions, Tversky and Kahneman have shown that the human being tends to be risk-taker in the field of gains and risk-averse in that of losses (Tversky & Kahneman, 1979).

As a demonstration of this theory, Kahneman and Tversky in 1981 carried out an experiment involving students from the universities of Stanford and the University of British Columbia.

The participants had to answer the problem reported here:

"Imagine the U.S. is preparing for the outbreak of an unusual Asian disease, which is expected to kill 600 people. Two alternative programs to combat the disease have been proposed. Assume that the exact scientific estimates of the consequences of the program are as follows:

If program A is adopted, 200 people will be saved.

If program B is adopted, there is 1/3 probability that 600 people will be saved, and 2/3 probability that no people will be saved." (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

The second group was asked to answer the same problem, but the solutions' structure was different:

"If program A is adopted, 400 people will die.  
 If program B is adopted, there is 1/3 probability that nobody will die, and 2/3 probability that 600 people will die." (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

In the first problem, the focus is on the people who could be saved, so the frame is positive, while the second has a negative frame because it highlights the deaths that would occur.

In both cases, the two alternatives presented the same expected utility.  
 Here we find a summary table of the results obtained:

**Table 1** Tversky and Khaneman's Experiment Results (Tversky & Khaneman, 1981)

	A	B
PROBLEM 1 (in terms of saved lifes)	<b>72%</b>	28%
PROBLEM 2 (in terms of deaths)	22%	<b>78%</b>

Not surprisingly, in the first case, 72% of the respondents chose option A, therefore being risk-averse, while in the second case the majority of 78% chose option B, proving to be risk-taker (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

In September 2001, the Bush administration implemented a plan that provided for giving a sum of money to citizens defined as a "rebate" to increase their consumption. The program, however, did not have the desired effect as people, instead of spending that additional sum, saved it. Epley, Mak, and Idson (2006) showed that the frame of the offer had a significant influence. Through some studies, these researchers have provided evidence that if the government had described the payments as "bonuses"

rather than "rebates", many more citizens would have spent that money instead of saving it (Epley, Mak & Idson, 2006).

The reason for this phenomenon is due to mental accounting which "is the set of cognitive operations used by individuals and households to code, categorize and evaluate financial activities" (Tahler, 1999 p. 183). People create these mental accounts for multiple things and assign expenses or income to several of them; this goes against the economic principle of fungibility which assumes that money treatment should be the same regardless of its origin or the intended use of it (Tahler, 1985).

In this case, therefore, the words "rebate" and "bonus" activated separate accounts that had different functions. Only in the case of the term "bonus" that money represented something that could be spent and not saved (Epley, Mak & Idson, 2006).

So, this demonstrates how crucial the frame of a given piece of information is, as it can determine the activation of different mental accounts in people's minds and thus affect their final decisions.

De Martino et al. (2006) carried out a study on the framing effect and the brain areas that it activates. Twenty students had to choose from the two options of the two versions of the same proposal, once they received £50:

*Gain frame:*

1. Keep £20
2. 65% chance of keeping all; 35% chance of losing all

*Loss frame*

1. Lose £30
2. 65% chance of keeping all; 35% chance of losing all

As expected, the results confirmed what prospect theory predicts, risk aversion for the gain frame by choosing mostly the sure option "a" and risk propensity in the loss frame by choosing mostly the gamble "d" (De Martino et al., 2009).

From the fMRI scan emerged that the area activated in processing options was the amygdala. The latter plays a role in the processes of memory, decision-making and emotional responses (Amunts, Kedo & Zilles, 2005).

This part of the brain was activated more in the choice (A) for the safe option (a), and in the second decision, the same thing happened for the uncertain alternative (d); which were the chosen alternatives (De Martino et al., 2009).

A 2011 study on framing effects in monkey risk preferences showed how five capuchins, faced with various choices regarding food that involved two versions of frames, reacted similarly to humans. In the first version the monkeys had to choose between a sure "loss" and a risky "loss" with an equal expected value, and in the second case, the choice was between an assured "gain" and a not sure "gain" of equivalent expected value.

These results suggest that the mechanisms that drive the "framing effect" in humans were already present in primates and maintained during evolution (Lakshminarayanan, Chen & Santos, 2011).

### *3. Loss aversion*

The attitude of being risk-averse in the domain of losses is due to the second psychological effect that leads human beings to behave differently from what Utility Theory predicts, which is called "loss aversion". This effect consists in the fact that people are more motivated to avoid a loss than to gain something. "Losses loom larger than gains" (Tversky & Kahneman, 1979 p.279), that is, those who suffer a loss, for example, a monetary one, will experience greater suffering than the joy of receiving the same amount of money (Tversky & Kahneman, 1979). Loss aversion is best represented by being the result of a preference building process, rather than being a constant, trait, or attribute characteristic (Johnson & Gachter et al., 2006).

Not all people have the same tendency towards loss aversion; some are more affected than others. For example, older people and those with less education tend to be more averse to risk. Instead, the specific knowledge of the attributes of the situation leads to

a decrease in the phenomenon detailed here (Johnson & Gachter et al., 2006). The effect of gender concerning loss aversion, on the other hand, is one of the most debated topics in behavioural economics since different studies have proposed different, even opposite, results. Research carried out by Holger A. Rau sees women as more adverse to losses than men (Holger A. Rau, 2014), while Bouchouicha et al. (2019) agreed that depending on the definition given to "loss aversion", the results vary and even contradict each other (Bouchouicha et al., 2019). Hence not all researchers have obtained the same results, but Holger's version seems to be the most demonstrated.

Loss aversion leads to two other anomalies in human behaviour called status-quo bias and endowment effect (Knetsch & Thaler, 1991).

According to the first one, people tendentially prefer their status quo because they see any change from the chosen reference point as a loss, so stimulating risk-aversion. Basically, we stay in the status quo because the disadvantages of getting out of it have more impact than the advantages (Knetsch & Thaler, 1991).

In 1988 Samuelson and Zeckhauser conducted a study on the status quo proposing to the participants, divided into two groups, two situations, one with a frame that envisaged a pre-existing status quo and another that did not.

The experimenters presented the following statement to half of the volunteers:

"You are a serious reader of the financial pages, but until recently, you have had few funds to invest. That is when you inherited a large sum of money from your great-uncle. You are considering different portfolios. Your choices are to invest in: a moderate-risk company, a high-risk company, treasury bills, municipal bonds."

The other participants had an addition before being asked to choose between alternatives, which stated that a moderate risk company was already subject to a significant portion of portfolio investment, thus creating a status quo situation.

The results demonstrated that in the situation with the pre-existing status-quo, the choice fell on the option that characterized it (Samuelson & Zeckhauser, 1988).

According to the second anomaly resulting from loss aversion, a person is subject to the endowment effect when he is more willing to keep an item that already own, rather than buying the same object when he doesn't have it (Kahneman, Knetsch & Thaler, 1990).

In this case, loss aversion and mere-ownership effect act together (Zelner, 2007). As explained earlier, we have difficulty in leaving our status quo, so loss aversion operates in this sense.

The mere-ownership effect, on the other hand, is the tendency to value an object more positively when you have it than when you don't possess it (Beggan, 1992).

So, on the one hand, we overestimate the value of objects we own; on the other, we don't want to sell them because it would mean changing our status quo. These are the reasons why people's minimum willingness to accept (WTA) to give up an object they own is higher than their willingness to pay (WTP) to acquire the same item (Kahneman, Knetsch & Thaler, 1990).

Kahneman, Knetsch and Thaler in 1990 experimented about this effect with 44 students from Cornell University. The experimenters divided the participants into three groups with different functions: sellers, buyers and choosers.

People in the first group hypothetically were the owners of a mug and had to choose from a list of various prices (from \$0,50 to \$9,50) which would be fair enough to push them to sell the product rather than keep it.

Buyers had to choose whether to keep a sum of money received for themselves or to use it to buy the mug, so consequently, they had to indicate the amount they would be willing to give for the object in question (from \$0,50 to \$9,50).

People of the last group, on the other hand, had to indicate what they would hypothetically choose between receiving a sum of money or a mug. So, on a list of prices ranging from \$ 0.50 to \$ 9.50, they had to choose between the cash and the mug.

Not surprisingly, buyers would have spent an average of \$2.87 for the mug, choosers \$3.12, while sellers would have required an average a more significant sum equal to \$7.12 to sell it (Kahneman, Knetsch & Thaler, 1990).

#### *4. Isolation effect*

The third psychological variable that leads people to defy from the Utility theory is the tendency of subjects to isolate consecutive probabilities rather than treat them together. In other words, the human being focuses on what is different and not what unites the alternatives between which he needs to choose. We can call it "isolation effect" (Tversky & Kahneman, 1979).

This effect has a base on how the memory of the human being is structured; we tend to remember situations that are isolated from surrounding items more vividly (Hunt & Lamb, 2001). This theory explains why our attention tends to focus on elements that differ from others. The first to demonstrate this effect through a study was Von Restorff in 1933, when she presented several subjects with a list of categorically similar elements, differentiating one of them with a distinctive feature, demonstrating how the latter was more memorable (Von Restorff, 1933).

##### *5. Decision-making process*

The three psychological phenomena just described have an impact on the decision-making process. When involved in this operation, people have the innate need to create a prospect through which to make the final choice; this allowed Tversky and Kahneman (1979) to identify two stages that compose the decision-making process. The prospect is the combination of alternatives between which an individual must take a decision.

In the first phase, editing, the subject analyses the prospects that he has to cope with and carries out a simplification operation consisting of six procedures.

The first, called "coding", in which people tend to encode the information offered to them in terms of gains or losses depending on their condition at the time of choice or some goal they would like to achieve.

When people carry out the operation of "combination", they tend to associate with each other outcomes that are similar in the entity but differ significantly in their probability of realization.

When involved in the "cancellation" phase, the human being deletes the characteristics common to several perspectives.

During "segregation", the decision-maker isolates all non-risky components of the prospect.



When it comes to "simplification", it happens that the subjects round off probabilities and outcomes to simplify some elements of a prospect that otherwise would be difficult to evaluate. An example of simplification is the elimination of implausible alternatives. In this part, the decision-makers elaborate what are the dominance relations between the alternatives, discarding some of the prospects. Practically, options that prevail in terms of dominance become the choice, and the subjects discard some of the other options.

The human being performs these six operations to organize and reformulate his options to help himself in the next step, which is the evaluation phase.

In this phase, the simplified versions of the prospect resulting from editing are subject to evaluation, and the one with the highest value represents the choice (Tversky & Kahneman, 1979).

The final prospect will depend both on the personal characteristics of the person and on how people perceive total utility. People think in terms of losses and gains, namely, the deviation from a reference point, not in terms of changes in cumulative wealth. This point of reference can be the status quo, any desired point, or a level perceived psychologically as acceptable, and each change of the latter involves prospect adjustments. So, contrary to what Utility Theory predicts, the utility of a decision is not a final state of wealth reached, but any deviation from a reference point (Levy, 1992). In this sense, the information frame a decision-maker receives becomes crucial.

As mentioned before, human beings become risk-taking in the context of losses and risk-averse in that of gains. The frame with which two alternatives appear therefore becomes essential in this sense; if the same thing has a structure posed in positive or negative terms, the choice will be very different. As a consequence, this will lead the subjects to make contrasting decisions depending on the context, thus violating the stochastic dominance (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

The latter is the order that a rational agent with a known utility function gives to random variables. The subject who does not violate stochastic dominance will choose the variable that maximizes the expected utility (Wolfstetter & Elmar, 1970). Being risk-takers sometimes and risk avoiders' other times leads to this situation, as not having a single strategy in making decisions does not maximize utility.

As evidence of this, in 1981, Kahneman and Tversky proposed the following problems to 150 people.

In problem A, respondents had to choose between:

- a. a sure gain of \$240
- b. a 25% chance to gain \$1,000 and a 75% chance to gain \$0

Given the tendency of the human being to be risk-averse concerning positive situations or situations that have this specific type of frame, in this choice, 84% of people chose the alternative "a" (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

While in problem B, they had to indicate what they prefer between:

- c. a sure loss of \$750
- d. a 75% chance to lose \$1,000 and a 25% chance to lose \$0

Contrary to the first decision, in this case, the frame being negative, prompted 87% of respondents to choose alternative "d", expressing the tendency of risk-takers in case of losses (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

Other 86 people had to choose between:

- e. a 25% chance to win \$240 and a 75% chance to lose \$760
- f. a 25% chance to win \$250 and a 75% chance to lose \$750

Since "f" is dominant over the other choice, all participants chose it (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

There is an inconsistency in these choices which emerge by adding and comparing the different options.

If the alternatives "a" and "d" are added together, the result is equal to "e".

$$(100\% * \$240) + [(75\% * -\$1000) + (25\% * 0)] = (25\% * \$240) * (75\% * -\$760)$$

While the sum of "b" and "c" equals "f".

$$(100\% * -\$750) + [(75\% * \$0) + (25\% * \$1000)] = (25\% * \$250) * (75\% * -\$750)$$

So logically for the principle of the choice of maximum utility, the two alternatives that respondents should have chosen are "b" and "c", which didn't happen. Consequently, this demonstrates why having a different risk propensity, depending on whether you are dealing with gains and losses, does not lead to an optimal strategy in making decisions (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

*6. Small probabilities, certainty, and pseudo certainty effects*

One thing that goes against the theory just described is the large purchase of lottery tickets or insurances. In the latter case, people chose a small sure loss, against the alternative of facing the risk of a more considerable cost, going against the principle of being risk-taking in the situations concerning losses. On the other hand, in the second situation, the person gives up a safe amount of money to have a small chance of earning a greater one, thus violating the principle of risk aversion in the domain of gains. This fact is due to people's trend of overweighting small probabilities and underweighting medium/high ones (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

We can summarize the risk propensity of decision-makers with the following table:

**Table 2** Human's Risk Propensity

	<b>Small probabilities</b>	<b>High/medium probabilities</b>
Gains	Risk seeker	Risk averse
Losses	Risk averse	Risk seeker

Another reason why people buy insurance is the phenomenon of pseudo-certainty. An action constitutes preference when it reduces a damage probability, for example from 1% to 0%, against an option allowing a reduction from 2% to 1%. So, individuals prefer alternatives that enable them to entirely reduce the risk of harm, rather than a decrease in the probability of it happening. In this situation, framing becomes an influential factor, because if a seller framed insurance by explaining that it reduces all types of risk, the buyer would choose it in preference to one that covers only one kind of possible harm. Hence pseudo-certainty violates the principle stating that the

description of the problem should not influence the choices of rational decision-makers (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

Another effect linked to the latter violates the axioms of a rational approach to risk: the certainty effect. Tversky and Kahneman (1981) defined it as follows "a reduction of the probability of an outcome by a constant factor has more impact when the outcome was initially certain than when it was merely probable" (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

Increasing the probability of gaining a prize from 0% to 5% has more emotional impact than a change from 5% to 10%. Conversely, moving from a 60% to a 70% chance of winning a prize is less attractive than a passage from 90% chance to a 100% chance; the latter represents a situation of certainty. In this condition, the risk aversion of people increases if the certainty situation changes, compared to the other case presented, since their attitude of overweighting sure outcomes, more than those that are probable (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

### *7. Graphical representation*

The prospect theory, as explained above, is based on the expected utility theory whose formula is the following:

$$E(U) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i u(x_i)$$

While the value formula of prospect theory is:

$$v(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \pi(p_i) v(x_i)$$

Unlike the expected utility formula, the latter presents the  $\pi$ , which is the "weight" attributed to each outcome by the decision-maker when evaluating the various choice alternatives.

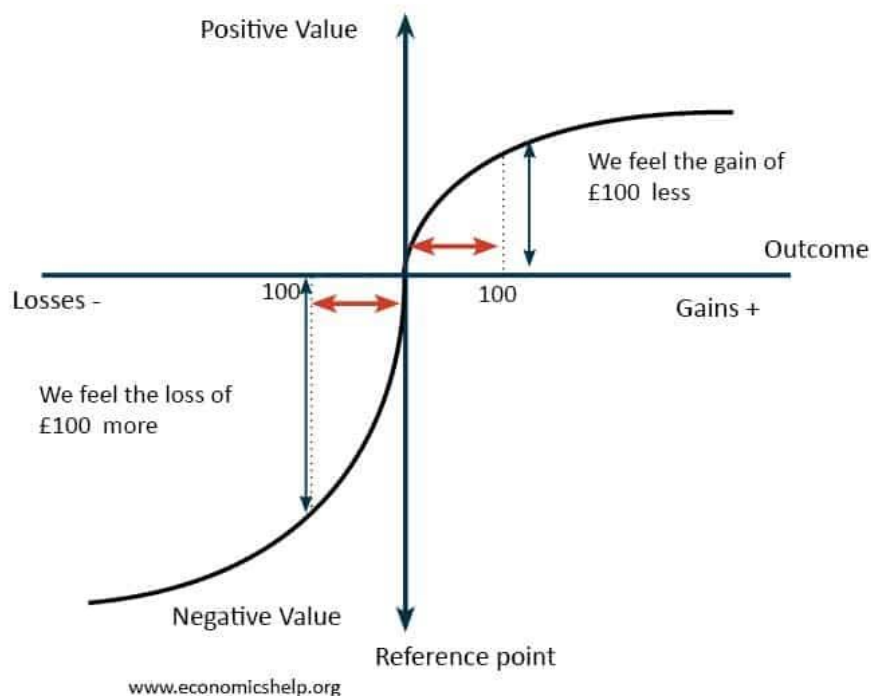
Furthermore, in prospect theory, the term value replaces the concept of utility. The latter refers to both gains and losses relative to a chosen reference point, while "utility"

is used only within the framework of maximum profit. For this reason, we find in the formula the letter "v" instead of "u".

Another difference that characterizes the two theories is that in the prospect one, preferences are a function of the subjective evaluation of the different possibilities of choice.

Moreover, since people create distortions that prevent them from treating probabilities for what they exactly represent, their evaluations do not always correspond to actual probabilities. For example, decision-makers tend to overestimate low chances and underestimate high ones (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

Prospect theory's graphical representation is the following:



**Figure 1** Prospect Theory ( <https://www.economicshelp.org/blog/glossary/prospect-theory/>)

Considering the centre of the graph as the starting situation of the decision-maker (status quo), we can see how the value function is not linear.

Indeed, the function is concave in the region of gains and convex in that of losses.

This fact represents that the impact that small variations close to the starting point have on the decision-maker choice is more significant than large variations far from the status quo. In addition, the concavity of the loss curve indicates that we prefer to deal with the negative things at once. In contrast, the convexity of the gains curve shows that we like to discover pleasant situations multiple times (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981). Thaler in 1985 demonstrated this tendency through an experiment. Losing \$200 at once hurts less than losing \$100 twice, while it makes us happier to earn \$100 twice than earning \$200 at one time (Thaler, 1985).

Besides, loss aversion has its representation in the fact that the loss curve is steeper than the gains curve. So even when gains and losses have the same absolute value, the latter situation has a more meaningful impact on the final choice proportionally (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

### **III. Attribute Framing**

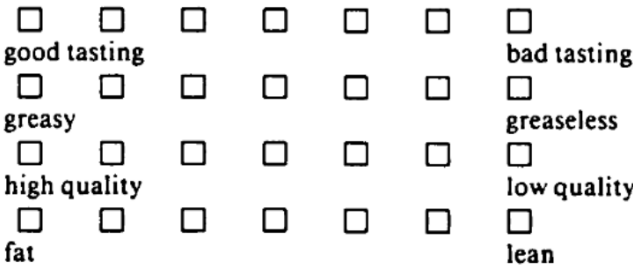
#### *1. Introduction*

The second type of framing is the simplest one, in this case, the frame is applied, in either positive or negative terms, to a single attribute within any given context (Kuvaas, Bård & Selart, Marcus, 2013). Given its simplicity, the attribute framing is useful to test most directly, which is the influence of the positive or negative frame. In this case, the decision-maker tends to choose the alternative described in terms of a positive attribute, to the detriment of the one enlightening the negative characteristics. They have various ways of evaluating options, for instance, allowing or denying the possibility of doing an action or indicating how favourable they would be to it on a given scale (Levin et al., 1998).

The numerous studies carried out on the subject have mainly all confirmed the thesis that human beings are more likely to rate positive frame options more favourably. The fields analyzed are various: economics and marketing (Levin et al. 1985, Levin & Gaeth, 1988; Schoorman, Laurion & Solomonson, 1993), medicine (Garcia-Retamero & Galesic, 2010); Krishnamurthy, Carter & Blair, 2001), diverse types of evaluations (Schneider, Holstrum & Marden, 1993) and so on.

Levin, in 1987 conducted a famous experiment regarding attribute framing and product evaluation. He asked 102 students of the University of Iowa to consider buying ground beef by describing it in two different ways depending on the fat content. More precisely, in one variant proposed to half of the participants, the meat was described as "75% lean" in the other as "25% fat".

Students had to fill in the following scale, indicating among the various pairs of attributes to which of the two (and to what extent) they associated the purchase of the product described.



**Figure 2** Levin’s Scale Experiment (Levin, 1987)

The results showed that those who had the description of the product in favourable terms, therefore the version with the "lean percentage", responded by getting closer to the positive variants of the various attributes. Namely, the ground beef described as "75% lean" was considered greasier, with higher quality, less fat and more good tasting (Levin, 1987).

In 1988, again Levin, jointly with Gaeth, conducted the same experiment involving ninety-six students of the University of Iowa, but with some differentiations. In this version, participants also had to taste the product. Besides, half of them received the description before tasting the product, the other half after. So, there were four variants of the experiment that can be defined as follows: positive frame taste before labelling, negative frame taste before labelling, positive frame taste after labelling, negative frame taste after labelling. Participants were then asked to fill in the same scale presented above in Fig 1. by indicating with an X, the box that was closest to the description of the tasting experience.

The results confirmed that in the case of a positive frame, participants perceived the product as better. In this case, however, the effect of the structure was reduced when consumers were able to taste the product. These results indicate that direct experience or the acquisition of further information on a given situation lead to a decrease in the effectiveness of the framing effect (Levin & Gaeth, 1988).

## *2. Attribute framing explanation*

Levin and Gaeth (1988) provided an explanation to attribute framing concerning how people encode information. The human being has two different ways of codifying positive and negative information. Presenting a message or situation in pleasant ways leads people to favourable associations in memory, contrarily pointing out the negative aspects leads to opposite associations. Furthermore, making such associations leads the human mind to focus on compatible elements of the attribute with the frame, whether it is positive or negative (Levin & Gaeth, 1988).

This trend is the result of the cognitive bias called confirmation bias. The latter is an attitude typical of human nature that leads to trying to confirm a hypothesis by concentrating on evidence in favour, instead of trying to take into account evidence of the contrary. The first reason concerns the fact that the human being continually filters, automatically and unconsciously, the information he has to cope with, even ignoring some that are useful. This propensity is a way to cope with the information overload that people face regularly.

The second one concerns the way people retrieve information from memory, i.e., we are better at remembering some things than others, especially when we deal with a stimulus to which our mind creates an anchor. Individuals tend to depend too strongly on a piece of specific information that is initially offered to them (the anchor) in making subsequent decisions; this trend is the anchoring bias (Bazerman & Moore, 2009).

The response to attribute framing is also coherent with priming (Levin et al., 1998), which is a regulatory mechanism under which the previous processing of a given stimulus, defined as prime, influences the processing of subsequent information (Marquis, 2015).



Therefore, in the framing attribute case, due to the confirmation bias, if subjected to information that describes an object or a situation in a positive way, individuals will tend to pay attention to the factors that confirm this statement. Contemporaneously, priming will lead them to evaluate attributes more positively.

### *3. Differences with risky choices framing*

Unlike risky choices detailed above, in the situation here described, the decision depends on the value of the attribute and not on hypothetical outcomes (Murch & Krawczyk, 2014).

Also, in the attribute framing, the framed focus is on the single characteristic of an object or situation. In the case of risky choice framing, however, there are two options framed in an independent choice set. Therefore, in the first case, the choice is about single attributes of the same thing or event; thus, the assessment of one possibility provides information about the second one. In the other case, a subject expresses a preference between independent options, so that the evaluation of one option does not correlate with the other one (Levin et al., 1998).

Furthermore, in the framing explained by Tversky and Kahneman, the two options differ in riskiness. In contrast, in the case of the one analyzed here, the riskiness is not an object of manipulation (Levin et al., 1998).

### *4. Attribute framing and brain activation*

A neuroimaging study on attribute framing, carried out in 2014 by Murch and Krawczyk, showed that different regions of the brain activate depending on whether the alternative presents a positive or negative frame.

The participants were 21 individuals aged between 19 and 41 years. The experimenters presented them with options from which to choose that described personal characteristics, such as maturity, honesty, friendliness, loyalty and kindness posed negatively or positively. Therefore, they had to indicate which of the options best represented them.

The results showed that participants, firstly, felt that alternatives with positive attributes represented them more than those in negative versions. Then, the processing time of the affirmative options was longer than those with the opposite frame (Murch & Krawczyk, 2014).

Regarding the stimulated areas of the brain, when presented with positively framed attributes, the regions associated with reflexive processing activated. The reflexing system, also called reactive, is quick and intuitive (Lieberman, 2003).

On the contrary, the reflective system is logical, analytical, and systematic (Lieberman, 2003); and the latter was activated when the participants had to process negatively framed attribute statements (Murch & Krawczyk, 2014).

## **IV. Goal Framing**

### *1. Introduction*

In this type of framing, the goal or consequence of a specific behaviour is the object of manipulation. The frame accentuates the possibility of the action to lead to positive impacts, or on how the act itself can avoid or prevent a loss. It is a question of highlighting the gains that a specific behaviour brings and the losses that occur if the subject does not implement it; besides, it is helpful in understanding which type of goal is the most powerful. Goal framing is useful when the exploiter wants to promote a specific behaviour or situation (Levin, Schneider & Gaeth, 1998).

This type of frame has four possible alternatives descriptions. The positive frame could describe the consequences as a possibility of achieving a gain or a chance of avoiding a loss by performing an act. The negative one, on the other hand, could depict that not executing an action leads to giving up a possible gain or suffering a loss. Who wants to frame a message can put together the various versions. The subject could use the couple "obtain a gain" in performing the behaviour and "forego a gain" by not doing it, or "avoid a loss" against "suffering a loss". The most used version, as it is more effective, is the one that emphasizes, on the one hand, the possibility of obtaining a gain with the behaviour and on the other hand the sufferance of a loss by not doing it (Levin, Schneider & Gaeth, 1998).

The investigation in this situation is about which frame has a greater convincing impact on achieving the same final result. Most of the studies carried out on this fact established that the negative frame is the one that creates a bigger emotional impact and therefore pushes more to action. Most of the experiments on the subject have regarded the medical field. Still, other domains have also been explored, such as prizes and jobs evaluation (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981), breakfast choice (Tykocinski et al., 1994), smoking cessation (Wilson et al., 1990), marketing and advertising (Grewal et al., 1994; Homer & Yoon, 1992; Ganzach & Karsahi, 1995), trust issues (Chaudhuri et al., 2016) and so on.

A famous example of goal framing in a medical context was proposed in 1985 by Meyerowitz and Chaiken. The latter has shown that women are more likely to undergo breast self-examination (BSE) if they view messages that highlight the negative consequences of not examining themselves, rather than the positive ones of doing so. More precisely, the two versions of the statement, presented to two different groups, were:

A. "Research shows that women who do not do BSE have a decreased chance of finding a tumour in the early, more treatable stages of disease".

B. "Research shows that women who do BSE have an increased chance of finding a tumour in the early, more treatable stages of disease".

The group presented with the negative consequences was more inclined to use this practice compared to the women to which experimenters accentuated positive effects that could arise by not using BPA (Meyerowitz & Chaiken, 1987).

## *2. Goal framing explanation*

The loss aversion mentioned above can explain the reaction to goal framing, a phenomenon also defined as negativity bias to extend it in contexts that do not involve risk. Negative things such as unpleasant thoughts, losses, negative emotions and harmful events influence the human's psychological situation considerably, and processes, more than favourable conditions or circumstances do. Consequently, losses have more emotional impact compared to benefits, pushing more people to perform

acts that allow them to avoid a loss rather than to achieve a gain (Levin, Schneider & Gaeth, 1998).

The example concerning BSE demonstrates this tendency; the participants were more motivated to prevent possible negative consequences of not performing BSE rather than obtaining the positive effect concerning doing it (Meyerowitz & Chaiken, 1987).

### *3. Type of goals*

Lindenberg (2001a) has identified three types of possible goals object of framing: gain, hedonic and normative.

A gain goal regards people's personal resources. Achieving this type of aim means increasing or avoiding the decrease in this type of assets or their efficiency, usually in a middle or long-term horizon. For instance, to achieve this type of goal, people will buy products that cost less, even if they are not the most sustainable ones.

While an improvement in people's current emotional state is what is necessary to achieve a hedonic goal, it regards the subject's feelings and mood in a particular moment and has a short time horizon.

The third category, the normative goals, concern what people think they should do to result appropriate to the others or the self, also looking at what other people do in the same situation.

All three types, if framed, activate different subgoals. Increasing money level, saving it, raising income, and facing financial security threats are some of the possible subgoals of a gain goal frame. Hedonic goal frame leads to the activation of sub aims such as escaping bad thoughts, events and uncertain situations, avoiding an effort, seeking all pleasant situations or feelings. Finally, normative goal frame is responsible for sub purposes related to a behaviour socially accepted, environmentally correct and respectful deserving of being taken as exemplary.

### *4. Goal framing exploitation*

As mentioned previously, using goal framing allows you to push a specific type of behaviour. For instance, it could serve to move people towards a more environmentally friendly attitude. Different studies analysed this possibility.

A recent study by Westin et al. (2020) has proved people's tendency to reduce private car's usage when presented with goal framed messages (Westin, Nordlund, Jansson & Nilsson, 2020).

In another study, Lindenberg and Steg (2007) investigated how the three types of goal framing (hedonic, gain, normative) influence environmental behaviour. Usually, the normative goals push to be more environmentally friendly. In contrast, the other two types lead to do the opposite, since acting pro-environmentally is tedious and involves higher employment of resources. The solution could be to promote messages that reinforce the normative goals or that make the other two types less incompatible with this one (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007).

Also, in an organizational environment, it is possible to use goal framing to improve performance. First of all, by understanding that those who are part of the company have the three types of goals described above and by exploiting them correctly. In the organizational field, the hedonic goal translates into not wanting to get bored and avoid difficult tasks, aiming for an increase in income is related to the area of gain goals, finally, following the normative ones a person thinks about how to create benefits for the company. The primary purpose of organizations should be to ensure that regulatory goals are primary in the minds of employees. To do this, those responsible can use goal framing underlining that by achieving the regulatory goals, employees will reach both hedonics and gain rewards (Lindenberg & Foss, 2011).

##### *5. Differences with other framing types*

Unlike the attribute framing, the goal one does not assume that an action is optimal to perform, while another is not. For the kind of frame analysed here, only one activity is framed, underlining on the one hand what are the positive consequences in performing it and on the other the negative ones in non-executing it.

In the BSE example, if it were attribute framing, the positive frame would have stressed the reasons for performing the screening, while the negative frame would highlight the reasons for not doing it.

While, differently from framing in risky conditions, the goal one occurs mostly in situations in the absence of risk.

Attribute and risky framing focus on the benefit or undesirability of an option or an attribute to change the decision's valence. Goal framing is unique to the other two types since the valence remains the same in both positive and negative frames, but the persuasiveness of the message changes (Levin, Schneider & Gaeth, 1998).

## **V. Mitigating framing effect**

### *1. Experiential factors that decrease the framing effect*

Not in all situations, the framing effect impacts the behaviour of the human being with the same intensity; some factors reduce it.

First of all, as explained in the section relating to the attribute framing with the experiment of Levin and Gaeth in 1988, trying a specific product has decreased the impact of this effect (Levin & Gaeth, 1988). The direct experience in proving an item object of evaluation reduces the impact analyzed here, so description-based framing is stronger than experience-based ones.

This theory also resulted in other studies; for instance, Fu et al. in 2018 conducted three experiments on risky decisions, each with different degrees of description and experience of the framed choice, confirming this trend. They also explained the reasons for this propensity. When individuals experience something, they better control the emotional impact that potential losses create on them, which they overestimate in the case of description-based framing; thus, they handle more efficiently loss aversion (Fu & Yu et al., 2018).

Furthermore, experience leads to a decrease in the underweighting of small probabilities and the certainty effect (Barron & Erev, 2003).

Additionally, individuals reading only a description of an event tend to overestimate and overweight it if it is a rare event. When the experience comes in, this no longer happens (Hertwig & Erev, 2009).

## *2. Informational factors that decrease the framing effect*

The framing effect also decreases when people can carefully evaluate the alternatives available to them, in other words when they have the correct and adequate information to increase their knowledge about an event or an object .

For instance, in the medical field, a study has shown that patients suffer less from the framing effect if they are explained, especially through visual aids, the medical risks of the operation they have to perform (Garcia-Retamero & Galesic, 2010).

The quality of information improves when people can compare various alternatives. Hsee (1988) has proposed to consumers to evaluate the price they would be willing to pay for a dictionary. Some of them had to consider two versions of the dictionary separately, others together. The difference between the two was that one had a torn cover and 20,000 words, while the other had a perfect surface and 10,000 words. Those who had to evaluate the two objects separately placed more value on the dictionary with the best appearance, while the other group would have spent more on the one with more words. This experiment has shown that when human beings assess a situation or an object separately, they tend to give more importance to easy-to-evaluate attributes (such as the experiential aspect of the dictionary cover). In contrast, when the assessment is joint, they care more about hard-to-evaluate characteristics (such as the number of words in a dictionary) (Bazerman & Moore, 2009). From a framing effect perspective, it is therefore essential to know all the options and all their characteristics, in order not to succumb to this bias.

Always in the information domain, when a person receives advice from a reliable source on how to act, this reduces and sometimes eliminates the framing effect. The trustworthiness of the source of information is a fundamental condition; otherwise,

people would not be affected enough to overcome the phenomenon studied here (Druckman, 2001).

The quality of the information also matters. In the case of the risky choices Jou, Shanteu and Harris (1996) have proved that providing a rational explanation for the link between losses and gains decreases the framing effect. For example, the Asian disease problem studied before reformulated by them in a causal schema perspective turns out to be like this:

"Imagine that the U.S. has been attacked by an unusual and deadly disease. Without treatment, a person who has contracted the disease will die in a few days. Six hundred people have been diagnosed as having contracted the disease. Some substance, extracted from living human organs and extremely difficult to obtain, can cure the disease. Unfortunately, there is only enough of this substance for 200 people. No additional source of this substance will become available for at least 18 months, and no other cure or treatment will be found in at least the next two decades. If the patient receives an insufficient dose, there is a chance that the patient may live or may die." (Jou, Shanteu et al., 1996).

### *3. Personal factors that decrease the framing effect*

Another factor that diminishes the effect explained in this chapter is the level of personal or emotional involvement in the choice. The higher the latter, the less the framing effect will be for example, in decisions regarding sensitive issues such as abortion (Marteau, 1989).

Involvement also depends on having to make decisions for oneself or others. Subjects of an experiment conducted by Ziegler and Tunney (2015) reacted less when they had to make money gambling decisions for other individuals (Ziegler & Tunney, 2015).

Jou, Shanteu and Harris (1996) have seen how the framing effect has a different impact on choices concerning another sensitive issue such as that of human lives, compared to options on private property, therefore more generally regarding the field of economics.



This tendency was right, mostly when provided with the causal schema between losses and gains as described in the last paragraph (Jou & Shanteu & Harris, 1996).

Decisions involving personal attitudes mitigate the effect of the different reactions depending on the frame. Levin, Schnittjer and Thee (1988) proposed to the participants of an experiment, divided into two groups, two differently framed statements regarding cheating on an exam. The respondents' answers were generally the same, even if one group had a frame regarding the percentage of those who usually cheats, while the other the share of those who typically doesn't cheat (Levin, Schnittjer & Thee, 1988).

Sometimes even the font of the presented choices diminishes the framing effect. In a large sample, a hard-to-read font mitigates it. The reason is the same that leads to the reduction of the same phenomenon when the message is in a different language. When our brain has to perform a more complicated task, such as reading a text in a language in which it is not fluent, it makes a higher cognitive effort, and this leads to the reduction of the framing effect (Korn & Ries et al., 2018). In general, therefore, a required low cognitive effort takes to an empowerment of the impact of the phenomenon described here (Levin et al., 1998).



## **CHAPTER 2 – FRAMING IN MARKETING**

Framing has many fields of application in everyday life. Here we will analyze one area of usage, namely marketing.

### **I. Introduction**

Framing can have significant effects and roles in marketing strategies. It is useful as a strategy to implement sales or achieve any other goal pursued by a company. Before going into the details of its application in the field here explored, it is important to define what is meant by marketing.

Marketing has assumed different definitions over the years. Some associate it with sales, others with sales combined with advertising, but in reality, it is possible to define it as a two-phase process.

On the one hand, it is "a philosophy, an attitude, a perspective, or a management orientation that stresses customer satisfaction"(Lamb, Hair & McDaniel, 2016, p. 3). On the other, marketing takes form in the activities and processes useful for achieving its goals (Lamb et al., 2016).

The American Marketing Institution in 2007 defined the concept here proposed as "Marketing is the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large. " (Lamb et al., 2016).

Communicating means getting out of your mind map to enter the mind map of others trying to understand: their learning styles, the decision-making ones, their language and the contexts in which they express themselves (Brunello, 2019).

In 1996 Ganzach and Karsahi carried out a useful experiment to understand the importance of framing on consumer choices. The two experimenters tried to induce a specific behaviour through two versions of the same message; so, the framing used is goal one. The subjects of the experiment were the owners of credit cards of a company who had not used them for more than three months, and the aim was to increase their

utilization. Some of the subjects, through a call and subsequently through a summary email, were informed of the benefits of using the credit card compared to the other two substitutes utilized (cash or checks). The remaining individuals, on the other hand, with the same communication tools, received information on the negative aspects of not using the credit card. Six months later, via a new call to the participants, the experimenters tested the results of the two different messages. As predicted by goal framing theory, the loss frame had more effect on consumer behaviour. Those who had received this type of message and started reusing the credit card were more than double the re-users with the other frame. Consequently, this study shows how much the message presentation affects consumer behaviour. Not only that, but the experimenters have also demonstrated that the framing effect is long-term, as it influenced customers' choices up to six months later (Ganzach & Karsahi, 1996).

Depending on its objectives, therefore, a company must think well about how to convey its promotional messages efficiently and effectively, to trigger the desired behaviour in customers. For a better communication strategy, companies should take into account the different reactions to frames that a customer can have.

In 2008 Pervan and Vocino carried out an analysis of the types of advertising frames most used in magazines in the US. The results showed greater use of the single attribute framing, followed by a combination with goal framing, up to the latter utilized individually. In the reality of the analyzed case, those who deal with publicity focus mainly on describing the attributes and characteristics of a product, so they do attribute framing, rather than using goal framing which would focus more on the reasons why a person should buy a product or a service.

The most exploited type of attribute framing is a positive one, describing thus the characteristics in a favourable view. The same is true for goal framing. Specifically, for goal framing, advertisers use the formula of emphasizing what the positives are in doing an action, rather than the negatives of not doing it. They prefer to point out the benefits of using a product rather than point out the downsides of not using it. (Pervan & Vocino, 2008).

## II - Message Framing

### *1. Attribute framing*

In exploiting the framing attribute, as suggested by the literature, most advertisers use positive framing.

In choosing the attributes to frame, it would be appropriate to identify those that are easy to evaluate and compare. By getting people to focus on one specific feature, a company can make one person prefer one product over another (Ariely, Herha & Berman, 2014).

There are several ways to emphasize the attributes, features or benefits of a product. For example, the same concept presented by Levin and Gaeth in the ground beef experiment has applications in food products (Ariely, Herha & Berman, 2014).

In the same vein, in beauty products, marketers emphasize the percentage of the product that is of natural origin. Consumers are more inclined to buy if they see "95% of natural origin" written if it says "5% of artificial origin", the product would be less successful (Smith, 2020).

Experts can also frame statistics. For example, a message stating "7 out of 10 experts have elected this product as the best" will be more effective than "3 out of 10 experts have not chosen this product as the best".

Roger Dooley suggests that an optimal strategy is to use negative framing to present the problem to stimulate loss aversion and offer the solution in an opposite structure. For example: "The Average Cost to Replace a Broken Smartphone is \$322.76" must anticipate the phrase "95% of smartphones with our case survived this drop ..." rather than "Only 5% of smartphones with our case broke when dropped ..." (Dooley, 2015).

Lin and Yang (2014) conducted a study on attribute framing by mean of the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) and eye-tracking.

ELM explores the processes and responses of consumers to persuasive messages such as advertisements. This type of communication can influence a person's attitudes,

depending on how they process the information they receive. This elaboration is a function of two variables: motivation and ability. The first one includes all the reasons that motivate a person to elaborate information, such as personal involvement. At the same time, the ability is the capacity to understand, interpret and evaluate a message. The model divides receivers into two categories. The first are those under the central route of persuasion, namely they are people with high motivation and outstanding ability, therefore capable of high processing of received information. Such consumers pay close attention to the proposed message and evaluate it very carefully.

The subjects under the peripheral route to persuasion, on the other hand, have significantly lower motivation and ability in processing information. These people incur low processing of the information received, relying instead on peripheral cues, rather than carefully analyzing the situation. Some of these cues are imagery, music or the presence of known people in the advertisement (Blech & Blech, 2004).

The other tool used is the eye-tracking that allows an experimenter to understand what the subjects are fixing. Fixation means that something has caught attention; its power is measurable by calculating the duration of the focus. The longer a person observes something intensely, the higher is the involvement and the cognitive effort in analysing information about it. Besides, fixation provides information about consumers' memory, preference, and the decision between alternatives (Lin & Yang, 2014).

The study involved 118 students who randomly received high or low motivation conditions in inspecting two out of six total products used, described with positive or negative frames. The six products involved were utilitarian and included a body fat analyzer, a desk lamp, a semi-automatic espresso machine, an earphone, an air purifier and a digital camera.

Participants had to inspect a product sheet on a website, containing both functional and non-functional attributes. They had all the time they needed to choose whether or not to buy the item. The experimenters tracked the individuals' eye movements during the whole observation process. The subsequent image shows a typical proposed web page (Lin & Yang, 2014).



**Figure 3** Webpage structure (Lin & Yang, 2014)

The results revealed that the intention to buy was higher in the high elaboration condition than in the low one. Also, in this situation, the positive frame pushed more immediate purchase than the other type. Consequently, in the case of elaboration here described, the framing effect has a more significant influence on purchase intention.

In the situation of low elaboration, the eye-movements experience more the consequences of the positive frame. On the other condition, students who received the negatively framed statement stared at more areas of the screen and for a longer time.

There are two main explanations for this tendency. As seen in Chapter 1, since losses have more emotional impact, decision-makers are more concerned with avoiding a loss than chasing gains. Besides, negative framed information elicits a negative emotion which leads to more attention to details (Lin & Yang, 2014).

Usually, e-sellers take advantage of positive framed information to stimulate purchases. In light of the result just described, they could alternatively exploit negatively framed messages to appeal to customers' attention. In addition, the frame should change depending on the clients' processing levels. Another tip for e-sellers stems from the fact that participants were not significantly affected by the framing

effect when analyzing non-functional attributes. Consequently, sellers should emphasize more this kind of characteristics (Lin & Yang, 2014).

## *2. Goal framing*

Differently from the general theories, the literature has not identified homogeneous evidence that a message framed in a certain way, positively or negatively, is more effective in achieving a marketing goal. Some variables make positive framing more powerful, and others favour the negative one.

First, one of the variables is the product type that subjects buy; more precisely, the type of consumption for which a customer acquires it. Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000) identified two categories of consumption: hedonic and utilitarian. Each type of product consumed for one motive or the other evokes in the customer's mind different emotional states (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). Hedonic goods are those that bring benefits to the sensory and affective sphere, while those utilitarian gratify the cognitive area (Woods, 1960). The customers use the latter to obtain functionality and instrumentality, while the hedonics products lead the client to be amused, excited and entertained (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000).

Hedonic goods could lead to a sense of guilt for desiring to purchase or having consumed them, while utilitarian ones do not, as clients buy them to satisfy primary needs (Strahilevitz, 1999). Consequently, framing becomes more crucial in advertising the hedonic goods, since the message has to overcome the possible sense of guilt that could stop consumers from buying. Lee, Liu and Cheng (2018) have experienced that in the case of these goods, both the positive and negative frames can decrease the sense of guilt that can develop. In the same study, these researchers defined that positive framed information is more efficient in driving the purchase of utilitarian goods (Lee et al. 2018).

Another aspect influencing the framing effect's power is the regulatory focus. People can have two types of motivation focuses. The first, the prevention focus, is suitable for people who are interested in responsibilities and safety. On the other hand, people with



promotion focus are interested in topics such as aspirations and achievements (Shah, Higgins, & Friedman, 1998).

Prevention-focused people are, therefore, more interested in preventing a loss because they feel more agitated in the presence of adverse outcomes. For this reason, a negative goal framing will impact more on this kind of person (Idson, Liberman, & Higgins, 2000).

The promotion-focused ones, on the other hand, are more driven to pursue gains, as they take more pleasure in receiving a positive outcome. Consequently, the prevailing frame is a positive one (Idson, Liberman, & Higgins, 2000).

When there is a match between a person's goal, and the aim's implementation, the motivation to achieve it increases. For this reason, exploiting the right frame, depending on the purchase push that a person has, encourages him to pursue this action and to value it more (Higgins, 2002).

Lee, Liu and Cheng (2018) studied the interrelation between positive and negative framing, regulatory focus and product type.

The participants of the experiment belonging to the promotion-focus consumers group showed a greater intention to purchase the products, whether they were hedonic or utilitarian, in the case of positive framing.

In the case of prevention-focused individuals, the purchase intentions were different depending on the product type. In the case of hedonic goods, the negative goal frame had more impact. People had more incentive to buy if the statement pointed out the possible losses of not pursuing this action. The result is consistent with the primary purpose of those who are prevention-focused, that is precisely to prevent harm. The reaction of customers is different in the case of utilitarian goods, here the framing that describes the advantages of acquiring the product prevails (Lee et al., 2018).

This study has various implications for the implementation of marketing strategies. First of all, an advertiser would have some benefits in segmenting its target group between promotion-focused personalities and prevention-focused ones. Then, in creating the ads, marketers should think about what type of product they are proposing and use the most suitable frame according to this characteristic. Finally, the ideal would

be to succeed in matching regulatory focus, message framing and product type to have a unified and coherent strategy (Lee et al., 2018).

A study by Chang (2008) linked the greater effectiveness of positively framed advertisements to an affect priming process model. The advertised product was a pair of sneakers, and the frame type regarded "owning" against "not owning" and "use" versus "not use" statements. Cheng also stressed two other factors: psychological outcomes such as increasing self-esteem and social recognition and featured attributes including comfort and style.

The positive affect elicited by positively framed messages was higher than the one evoked by the other type of statement. In particular, when faced with information enlightening the possible positive outcomes of owning the product, the participants reacted in a more predisposed way (Chang, 2008).

The different reactions to positive and negative messages can also depend on the degree of power a person has. Two studies showed that who is invested or has a greater sense of power has a higher predisposition towards positive framed messages. These kinds of people, when faced with a negative frame, ask themselves more questions about the motivations of those who posted the message, thus becoming more sceptical (Li, Jain, Shen et al., 2020). So, advertising creators need to pay more attention when using negatively framed messages if their target is influential people.

Issue involvement is another force that changes the degree of persuasion of the different frames.

A consumer is involved when he attributes significant importance to the product or service he is approaching, demonstrating a high interest in it and its hedonic or symbolic purpose.

Engagement is a continuum with two extremes high or low; depending on where a person is, it will trigger different behaviours (Tonetto & Stein, 2010).

When individuals are more involved with the object sought, they will activate a more detailed information analysis process, but only those that are most relevant (Chaiken, 1980).

Tonetto in 2010 tested goal framing related to engagement, showing that for consumers are more involved, the message with earning frames produces greater levels of persuasion. On the other hand, the less involved subjects did not show many differences in behaviour in front of two different structures (Tonetto & Stein, 2010).

Dardis and Shen (2008) found that the loss frame was more persuasive than gain frame in a context of high involvement only in conjunction with informational evidence.

This research supports other studies that state that the negative frame is not always functional in contexts characterised by high involvement.

The need for informational evidence to reach a level of persuasion is due to the high level of data analysis performed in contexts highly valued by consumers.

Therefore, those involved in marketing for products with a significant value for consumers should consider using negatively framed messages only if they add the type of information here analyzed (Dardis & Shen, 2008).

### *3. Message framing and mental associations*

As seen in the previous chapter with the example of "bonus" and "rebate", using terms that lead to the mental associations the message conveyor looks for becomes crucial.

Another experiment demonstrated how different words lead to varying associations in people's minds. Loftus and Palmer in (1974) asked forty-five students (split into two groups) to watch videos of two cars having a frontal crash between them.

They then had to estimate the speed at which the two cars were going in an application presented in two versions.

- A. "How fast were the cars going when they contacted each other?"
- B. "How fast were the cars going when they collided, or smashed?" (Lunsingh, 2017).

The mean speed estimation in the "smashed" frame was 40.8mph and 31.8mph in the "contacted" condition. Those who had the frame with "stronger" words tended to say that the machines were running at a higher speed (Lunsingh, 2017).

So, if applied in the marketing field, the message must activate the right mental accounts that lead to the purpose desired by the business or marketer.

Consequently, if an advertiser wants to elicit specific associations in consumers' minds, he should try to search for the word or association of words that lead him to achieve the desired purpose, even trying various versions.

Sometimes, the right combination of words is a slogan that if repeated and well valued can lead to meaningful results, as it was for L'Oréal. The message "Because you're worth it" has led many women to buy this company's products. In this way, they felt valued and saw in the products the possibility to solve their problems related to self-esteem and beauty. Besides, this company that produces articles aimed at personal care has employed beautiful and famous women who say this phrase. This fact increases the impact on customers' self-esteem because being told that "you are worth" by a person you admire has more value and arouses a more favourable attitude towards the product.

Using the right words can also lead to arousing an emotional state. For example, Red Bull, with its slogan "Gives you wings" makes consumers feel adventurous and conveys the courage and strength to try new things.

### **III - Framing and pricing strategies**

Not only the message but also the price or the reduction of it can be represented in different ways, therefore with diverse frames. This fact can lead, as in other cases, to varying reactions from consumers. Using framing in pricing strategies can be very efficient to align people's behaviour to companies' needs.

#### *1. Consumer's reference point in assessing price reductions*

According to Grewal and Marmorstein (1994), a person perceives a price reduction differently depending on whether he evaluates the presented information in absolute or relative terms.

For example, if a person processes the discount in absolute terms, \$30 less on a \$100 wardrobe will impact the same deal on a \$300 phone. Conversely, if there was a percentage utilization, implementing a relative process of the price reduction, in the first case, 30% and in the second 10%, consumers would perceive the discount on the wardrobe as more favourable.

Usually, the general tendency of humans is to assess price changes in relative rather than in an absolute manner. So, it is more psychologically pleasurable for a person to have a discount of \$30 on \$100 rather than \$300. Psychophysics-of-price heuristic is the name of this tendency of consumers to assess the price savings in proportion to the item's initial price (Grewal and Marmorstein, 1994).

Consequently, the value people place on a price reduction inversely depends on the value of the discounted item (Grewal and Marmorstein, 1994) as demonstrated also by Kahneman and Tversky (1981).

They asked 181 people divided into two groups of 93 and 88 individuals, to respond separately to the subsequent problems:

1. "Imagine that you go to purchase a jacket for \$125. The jacket salesman informs you that the jacket you wish to buy is on sale for \$120 at the other branch of the store which is 20 minutes drive away. Would you make a trip to the other branch?" (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).
2. "Imagine that you go to purchase a calculator for \$15. The calculator salesman informs you that the calculator you wish to buy is on sale for \$10 at the other branch of the store which is 20 minutes drive away. Would you make a trip to the other branch?" (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

The results saw only 29% of the 93 participants who had the jacket version available to make the trip. In the other group, 68% of 80 individuals would have liked to drive 20 minutes to save on the calculator. This fact happens because preserving \$5 on a relatively close reference sum such as \$15 gives more pleasure rather than on a value of \$125 (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

Chen, Monroe and Lou (1998) investigated which way is most efficient in presenting discounts between absolute and relative values, considering two items that differed in cost.

The 119 participants in the experiment, divided into different groups, each had diverse conditions. The various scenarios contemplate that there were two different types of product, one with a high price (a PC) and the other less expensive (a box of floppy disks). Then, the discount appeared either in percentage or absolute values. Finally, the price reduction took the form of either a discount or a coupon.

Those who had the condition that presented the higher-priced product indicated that they perceived the absolute price reduction expressed in dollars as more significant. Conversely, in the low-price situation, the percentage discount seemed more powerful. When a person transforms 10% into absolute values, the resulting figure is larger if calculated on a higher price, so the savings are more elevated.

Furthermore, those who received a coupon were more willing to positively change their attitudes towards the purchase, compared to those who had received the discount. This preference has several reasons; first of all, through coupons, people do not perceive a price drop and therefore, do not tend to change their reference price downwards. Consequently, they do not perceive a reduced quality of the product that could appear in the event of a price drop. Then, customers perceive the seller as more trustworthy as the coupon does not suggest that it inflated the previous price to make the discount seem more significant. Moreover, this kind of promotion seems more like a permanent price reduction than the other. One tactic could be to offer the coupon to a small number of people, triggering a perceived sense of exclusiveness (Chen, Monroe & Lou, 1998).

Gal (2018) proposed a similar experiment in which the possible savings were \$15 on a \$50 bike helmet or a \$1500 electric bicycle. Precisely as in the experiment described above by Tversky and Kahneman, although rationally the decision-makers would have had to think only about the savings compared to the costs of moving, they confronted them with the initial prices. As a consequence, carrying out this operation led the majority who had the helmet as a product to choose to move, unlike those who had the electric bike (Gal, 2018).

In the same experiment, the author proposed another type of problem.

Two groups of respondents had to imagine going through the shopping mall and finding a pair of shoes strongly desired for an extended time.

Then they had to decide whether to acquire or not the item depending on the condition proposed.

The two different statements were:

“A: These shoes originally costed € 100, but now they are on sale for € 70 in the store.

B: The shoes originally costed € 100, but currently the shop has a special discount and they cost only € 35. Unfortunately, you don't have credit card or cash to buy them immediately. When you return to the store on the next day, you would find, that the special discount has expired, and the shoes are now on regular sale for € 70.” (Gal, 2018).

The results showed that in the first case 80% of the participants would have bought shoes, in the second the percentage drops significantly, stopping at 34%.

Therefore, despite the final price being the same, consumers have had different purchasing behaviours. The explanation lies in the reference point, which in the first case is \$100 while in the second it changes from this identical sum to \$35. So, in the second case, it was no longer convenient to pay \$70 after the product had previously assumed half the price. It is easy for consumers to adopt a new benchmark, but it becomes difficult to depart from it (Gal, 2018).

So, the theory suggests the importance of the reference point when sellers want to present a discount to a customer. Also, the mere presence of a promotion signal increases sales. This trend changes depending on whether the subject is on the peripheral route to persuasion or the central one. In the first case, the simple presence of a promotion sign is enough, while in the second case it must be accompanied by a substantial reduction in price, to obtain a reaction (Inman et al., 1990).

In reality, these two principles lead to the fact that sales will increase if the same price seems discounted.

For example, the sales deriving from the following alternatives regarding the same product will generate different sales volume:

- A. A dress costs \$50
- B. The same dress that cost \$90 is now on sale for \$50.

The alternative B would lead to a higher number of dresses sold.

*2. Other pricing strategies*

A study conducted by Allard, Hardisty and Griffin (2019) showed some techniques to exploit the phenomenon here analyzed since it affects the client's decisions forcefully. The experiment developed in three different conditions. In all of them, volunteers had to choose between a 23" computer monitor costing \$199.99 and another 27" costing \$259. The difference was in the price proposal, framed in various ways.

In the first version, the two prices appeared to consumers in absolute values, namely \$199 and \$259, and the majority of respondents (58%) chose the cheaper alternative. In the second variation of the experiment, the cheaper version remained in absolute value, while the other presented the statement "\$60 more". In the last condition, the only thing that changed from the second one is that beyond the phrase "for \$60 more" there was also the price in absolute values (\$259). In the last two conditions proposed, the respondents chose the more expensive alternative, only that in the last one the percentage of preference was 52% against 58% of the other which didn't indicate the price in absolute value.

Below there is a summary table of the three versions of the experiment:

**Table 3** Allard et al. Experiment's Results (Allard et al., 2019)

1st version		2nd version		3rd version	
Cheaper	More expensive	Cheaper	More expensive	Cheaper	More expensive



\$199.99	\$259	\$199.99	For \$60 more	\$199.99	For \$60 more (\$269)
<b>58%</b>	42%	42%	<b>58%</b>	48%	<b>52%</b>

This study, therefore, indicates that by showing the price difference, a seller entices the consumer to buy more expensive products.

The explanation of this is due to two characteristics of the human being. Firstly, the areas of the brain in charge of decision-making struggle in making complicated mental calculations. Also, due to relativity bias, people perceive the statement "for \$ 60 more" as a relatively small sum compared to the full price (Allard et al., 2019).

Gal (2018) analyzed how people react to the same product if proposed with different prices. Participants of group A had to imagine having to choose between 3 wines, respectively priced \$3, \$6, \$9. Group B, in addition to the same alternatives, had an additional \$18 bottle.

In group B the median value of the chosen price was \$9, while in group A it was \$6. Only 2% of the participants chose the \$18 wine; however, the mere presence of a product with a premium price prompted consumers to select more expensive wines on average. When faced with different prices for the same product, people will tend to choose the one that represents the average. In this sense, there is a framing effect in presenting the alternatives, because more of them appear to the consumers, changing their attitudes (Gal, 2018).

Consequently, this suggests that sellers should offer a wide range of products, including one with a premium price. Although it will not represent the majority of the choice, its mere presence will change consumers' attitude towards other items (Gal, 2018).

Weisstein, Monroe and Kinney (2013) have researched framing and the dynamic pricing technique, which refers to a seller's practice of adopting different prices for the same product depending on the buyer. Sellers mainly use this methodology to sell perishable goods, such as in the hospitality and travel domains, but it is also becoming common in the opposite field in online retailing.

Given the facility to find data nowadays, it is easier for consumers who are disadvantaged by this technique to receive, for example, via social networks some feedback on others' post-purchase experience, thus making the comparison easier.

In this case, framing becomes useful to increase the perception of price equity, trust and the desire to buy again in these buyers. The two versions of frames should make transactions as less similar and comparable as possible (Weisstein, Monroe & Kinney, 2013).

#### **IV - Framing and Loss Aversion**

As seen in the first chapter, linked to the framing effect there is the loss aversion. It too is part of marketing strategies that every human being can find in its daily life.

Marketers exploit this psychological trend by pretending that some deal or some product is about to end. For example, using sentences like "Last day of offers", "Only two left in the stock! Order now", "Don't miss out this deal". Alternatively, or in addition, they point out that an offer or a mega discount has a set duration. For instance, they frame the message like this: "70% off! Only for today!". Usually, when it comes to online offers, advertisers include a timer that marks the offer's expiry. In the offline context, this happens by indicating the day or time when the discount will end. This time indicator serves to elicit loss aversion (Rosenfeld et al., 2018).

The urgency that these messages create unleashes in the human mind the mechanisms of the psychological phenomenon just mentioned. The fear of losing something (in this case an opportunity to save) pushes us to take immediate action, for example by making us add the product to the cart if we are online or buy it physically if we are in the supermarket (Rosenfeld et al., 2018).

To use loss aversion efficiently, a company must first emphasize that loss is inevitable unless the required action occurs.

Then it has to create a sense of ownership of the product or service in the customer (Ariely et al., 2014). As a demonstration of its importance, the personal experience of Davide Recchia, an Italian copywriter specialized in direct response marketing, is

useful. He has seen how the statement "If you do one thing you get 100 euros more" usually works more than "If you don't do something you lose 100 euros". (Recchia, 2020). The explanation lies in one of the consequences of loss aversion: the status quo bias related to the ownership effect explained in the first chapter. In the second version of the message people, unconsciously, due to the way the sentence is structured, imagine themselves as possessors of those 100 euros, which increases their attachment to them, more than in the first version.

Finally, the customer needs to put time and effort into the item the seller wants him to value.

An example applied to a company which deals with tracking corporate expenses through an app is: "Every day, you're spending money for your business. Every day that you don't track your expenses, you're losing tax benefits." (Ariely et al., 2014).

However, those who frame the message to arouse loss aversion must pay attention to the frequency with which they undertake this technique. Novemsky and Kahneman (2005) underline that only in the case in which there is a real perception of loss the phenomenon described here is triggered (Novemsky & Kahneman, 2005). When consumers deal with "last offer" messages with exaggerated frequency, they no longer believe that it is real, and the mechanism that leads them to try avoiding a loss is not triggered.

There are four marketing strategies that take advantage of loss aversion that work most effectively.

In online sales, one technique is to send an email reminding the possible customer that he still has goods in his cart. The mere fact that an item is present in the cart could have triggered the endowment effect discussed in the first chapter; therefore, the asset in question takes on a greater value than the others as it is considered partially owned. The only thing missing is a final push that can lead to deciding to buy.

By describing in the email what are the things that a person is missing out by not purchasing the product, the probability of the purchase will increase (Elias, 2018).

A second technique is structuring the message so that it is genuinely believable that the offer is limited time and make it that way. The frame must focus on the pain of missing the opportunity (Elias, 2018).

Another way regards the technique of conveying that there is a shortage of the product, but without necessarily creating urgency. So simply pointing out that a product or service is limited in quantity (Elias, 2018).

An example of this technique is given by Seth Godin's book "What does it sound like when you change your mind". The product had 800 pages and cost \$400. Through proper communication, the author conveyed that the book was in limited quantities, valuable and worth it, thus managing to sell many copies in a few days (Elias, 2018).

The fourth strategy is linked to a phenomenon explained by Carmon, Wertenbroch and Zeelenberg (2003) according to which just imagining making a choice creates an attachment to it. The latter can be created by assessing the advantages of a choice, anticipating the experience of consumption, or exposing to the features of the possible options. When consumers can visualize, recall, simulate, and foresee the utilization experience during the consideration of the possible alternatives of choices, tend to bond to it (Wertenbroch et. al, 2003).

Marketers, then, should find a way to spark the imagination of the possible choice, so that they see it as an improvement on their current condition. Thus, when presented with the call to action, they will be more likely to answer in affirmatively, because they felt into loss aversion phenomenon for the mere fact of having imagined a better future.

## **V - Framing campaigns in real life companies**

An American advertisement for a large SUV of the Ford model F-150 V6 appeared in two versions, both to highlight the low fuel consumption. In the first, advertisers framed this fact by describing that a user can save 1 gallon of gasoline every 22 miles, written as "22 MPG combined fuel economy".

The problem is that by describing this saving in this way, the consumers associate it with the most used cars according to them and to which they are most accustomed, that is, small or medium-sized cars and SUVs, instead of with the right product category. Compared to these categories, savings are relatively low, and therefore advertising becomes inefficient.

Instead, by shifting the comparison to the right category and describing the product as the best in its class in fuel economy, advertising makes the product seem the right choice to make (Finkle, 2019).

In 2001 Apple launched its mp3 model called iPod, which was a huge success. This product was the turning point in our way of listening to music, which became pocket-sized. Apple wasn't the first to launch such products, but it was the company that did it best.

In 1997 Dell tried the launch of an mp3 type which did not succeed as hoped, pushing the company to eliminate its production with the consequent market withdrawal of the product.

The difference between these companies is the effectiveness of the communication used to promote the product in question. Dell described its message, emphasizing their prowess at making computers and tech devices easy to use, thereby trying to get consumers to buy a new kind.

On the other side, Apple described the same type of object emphasizing first of all the desire to change the status quo "thinking differently", by creating a beautiful, easy to use and user-friendly product. Then adding "And we happen to make great computers" in the promotional message, as reported by Sinek (2001, p.45).

Both messages describe the company's ability to make computers, but in Dell's communication, this skill is the central part, in Apple, its description is only an accessory thing; here the focus is on the fact of pushing the customer to identify and feel part of the company. The simple difference is that the iPod company demonstrates that it wants to do business with and for people who believe in what they do, as opposed to merely selling a product to those who need it (Sinek, 2009).

The author assumes that the low success of the platform TiVo is due to its communication. TiVo is a digital video recorder developed and marketed by Xperia and introduced in 1999. To promote it they broadcast a message structured like "We have a product that pauses the TV, avoids ads, rewinds live TV, memorizes your television habits without even asking. " The format is similar to that used by Dell.

Sinek assumed that if the product were advertised using the following statement: "If you are the kind of person who likes to be in total control of every aspect of your life, we have a product for you" and then moving on to the description of the features, it would have been more successful.

The author suggests that communicating first "why", then "how" and finally "what" of a product is more efficient than starting from the "what". The explanation lies in the fact that "people don't buy what you do, they buy why you do it" (Sinek, 2009).

## **VI - Implementing a framing strategy**

### *1. Preliminary considerations*

There is no single and effective framing strategy for every company, as it depends a lot on the type of product it proposes and its target. More precisely, the needs and attitudes of the segment in question matter. Therefore, each company has to analyze these two variables and try to identify the best framing mix. By trying and testing various options, marketers will be able to find the optimal framing solution that best suits their objectives, even if they fail initially.

However, everything must start from an initial analysis of the target to understand what the levers are, desires and needs, even unexpressed, that guide them in making decisions. It will then be possible to find the best way to persuade them, which is very different from manipulating them. Manipulating takes on a negative meaning as it is synonymous with cheating. Persuading, on the other hand, allows the company to make its point of view understood through dialogue and reasoning with who is the recipient of the communication. "To emerge, you need to be able to listen, accompany and understand the consumer, but above all talk to him" (Leandro, 2020).

In addition to considering the target in implementing an optimal message framing strategy, another factor to consider is the level of awareness of the product in which it stands.

The awareness ladder, composed of six steps, provides information about where the desired segment is in the buying process. In step 0 called "No Problem", prospects do not feel a need, so marketers have to find the right way to understand that there is a problem.

Moving to the next step, people are aware of the problem but do not know the solutions. In this phase, a useful strategy is to try to represent the perceived problems.

Step two is characterized by possible solutions knowledge, but the target is not aware that the company can solve the problem. Whoever creates the message should focus on highlighting the business's solutions to the specific issues.

At point three, advertisers should point out the potential benefits of the proposed product in solving the problem, since the target is not aware of it.

At the next point, although consumers know the benefits of the item offered, they still have some hesitation. In this case, the goal is to show how their life could change for the better with the company's solution.

Finally, there is the last step, that is the final purchase (Hunt, 2011).

While a company analyzes its target, it is also important to frame its mission statement. This sentence has to be short, powerful, and it has to go to the point to represent the company's reason for being. This paper becomes useful to communicate value to the customer using the right words. The important thing is then to be consistent with what is declared.

Some statements from famous companies which are, for example:

- Facebook's mission is to empower people to share and make the world more open and connected.
- Google's mission is to organize the world's information and make it universally accessible and useful (Webb, 2016).

## *2. Strategy implementation*

Some commercial texts that need an included title, this element must be as catchy as possible, especially if it is about online writing that people access through that header.

It is advisable to include consumers' problems in the title to increase the interest achievable.

In addition, some standardized formulas generally work since their frame activates other cognitive biases.

One example is "How to do A without B". Usually, action A is something a person wants, while activity B usually requires effort. For instance, "How to lose weight without doing sports". Another variation could be "How to lose weight by eating the things you like most".

Another title type is: "If you are A, then B can solve your problem". The application of this message could be: "If you are a student, this study method can boost your academic achievement." In this case, the first part of the sentence leads the recipient to identify himself, and the second one leverages his pain, emphasizing that the product can lead to the solution (Recchia, 2020).

The title "Who else wants to" followed by a positive outcome caused by the product elicits the bandwagon effect (Recchia, 2020). A person is subject to it when he adopts ideas, customs, and behaviours just because other people behave similarly. This effect arises from people's tendency to align their actions and thoughts with those of a group (Investopedia, 2019).

In the subsequent phase in searching the best framing approach, a company must take into account what can be the object of the different message structure. One can divide the most used possible frames into five broad categories, of which the various possible reactions need consideration.

First of all, the first two are gain and loss frames, widely discussed above. Then we have the goal frames which can be normative, hedonic and gain ones, as stated in the first chapter. Besides, there is the value frame, that is the technique of underlining or referencing something that has value for its recipient. People react more if the information is about things that they consider important. In the end, there is the temporal frame, which connects to the fact that individual's value more instant gains. They will prefer to have an immediate small reward rather than a larger one delayed over time. By trying various mixes of these five types, a marketer can find the best solution depending on their target audience (Finkle, 2019).



## **CHAPTER 3 - HOW EMOTIONS IMPACT ON DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES**

### **I - Introduction**

Over time, experts have attributed many meanings to emotions. Cabanac (2002) reported that there are 92 different definitions of emotions. He cited (Larousse Dictionary, 1990) which defined it as "sudden trouble, transient agitation caused by an acute experience of fear, surprise, joy, etc.". While (Oxford English Dictionary, 1987) stated that emotion is a "mental feeling or affection (e.g., pain, desire, hope, etc.) as distinct from cognition or volitions" (Cabanac, 2002).

Emotions are also definable as changes in the body and brain states in reacting to different stimuli (Damasio, 1994).

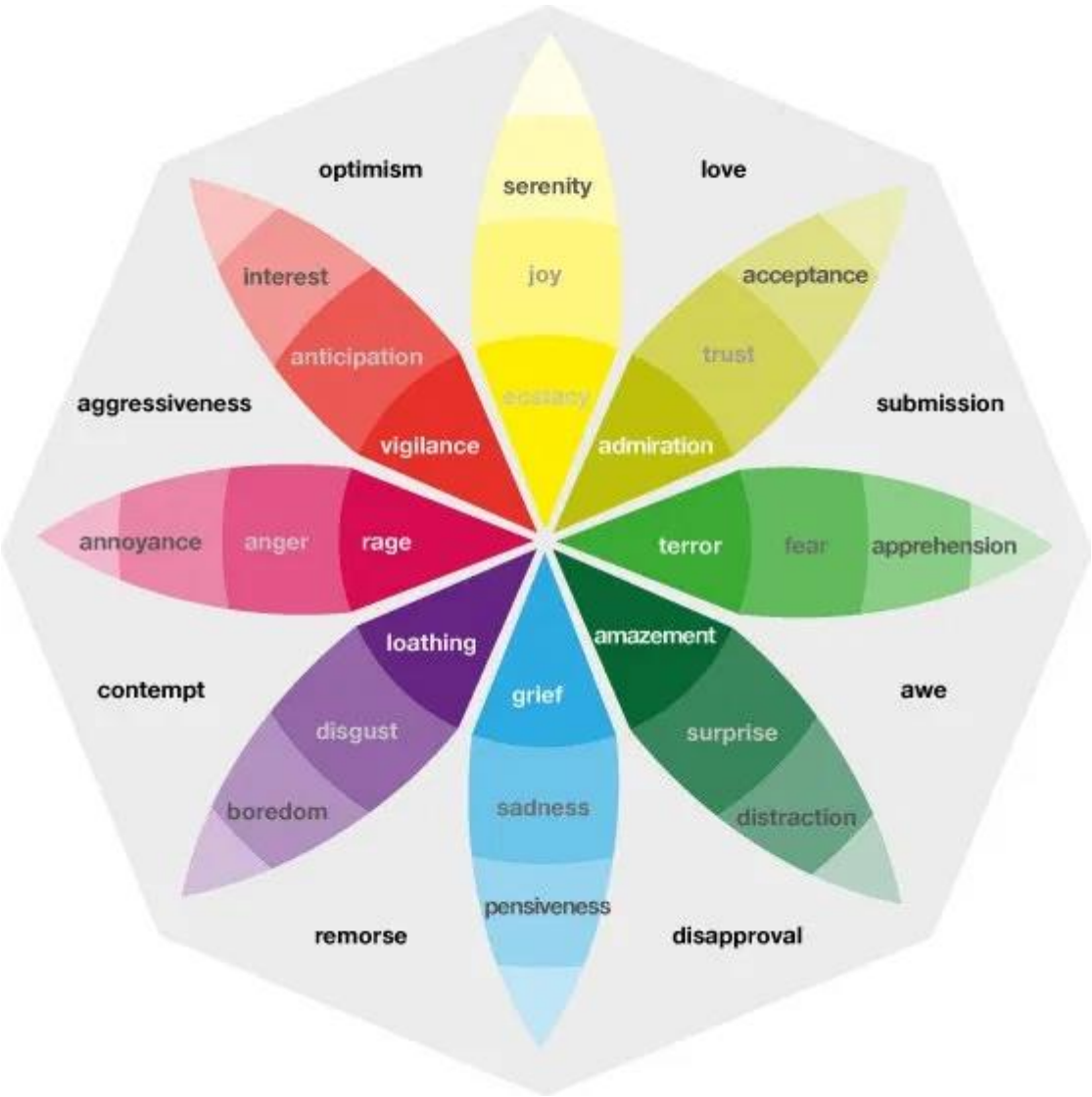
In general, those who defined them did so by referring to them as a state of mind and then making a list of what they are (Cabanac, 2002). In the vastness of all possible emotions, researchers identified six of them defined as basics: anger, fear, sadness, happiness, disgust, and surprise (Robbins & Judge, 2013). They have a common feature; namely, their expressions are the same across cultures. Each of these basic emotions activates a subset of different feelings and tendencies that lead those experiencing that emotion to react and respond to stimuli following the same pattern. Consequently, the body's reactions, cognitive, and those related to the decision-making process to these basic emotions are the same for all humans (Ekman, 1992).

Plutchik (2001) explains the complexity of emotions with a model called "The Emotion Wheel". Similar to the researchers who have identified six basic emotions, this psychologist has identified eight divided into four pairs that represent opposites:

1. Happiness - Sadness
2. Trust - Disgust
3. Anger - Disgust
4. Surprise - Anticipation

Plutchik arranged these emotions as in Figure 4 in the centre of the petal of which it is part. The other two parts of each petal represent an emotion related to the central one

but vary in intensity. At the centre of the flower, there are variants of the principal emotion that are more intense, while in the end there are those less intense. Each emotion has its opposite feeling in the opposite petal. By combining the primary emotions, the result is secondary emotions. For example, by combining trust and joy, love is born. In the drawing, each secondary emotion is placed between the two primary ones that compose it (Plutchik, 2001). Then the psychologist added colours to the model to show how, just like colours, each emotion can have different shades (Plutchik, 2001).



**Figure 4** Plutchik' Emotions Wheel  
 (<https://www.mandala.click/2018/06/02/mandalaemozioniplutchik/>)

As a matter of simplification, researchers categorize emotions according to two criteria: positivity or negativity. In practice, they are evaluated on a valence scale with two extremes that, in addition to the positive and negative terms, can include similar labels. Some examples of different extreme categories are: helpful versus harmful or pleasurable against painful (Pfister and Böhm, 2008).

Emotions define the people's emotional state. There are also two other terms to consider describing a person's emotional state besides emotions: moods and affect. Emotions and the other two terms used are strictly interrelated. The term affect describes the general feeling state that one person experiences, including emotions and moods. "Emotions are intense feelings directed at someone or something. Moods are less intense feelings than emotions and often (though not always) arise without a specific event acting as a stimulus" (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p.98).

Some characterizing factors distinguish the last two defined phenomena.

- *Cause*: emotions are caused by specific events, while the mood's reasons are generic and unsure.
- *Duration*: The emotions' duration is generally short (seconds or minutes), while the moods can last even hours or days.
- *Specificity*: Emotions are usually specific and various. The mood can be either positive or negative.
- *Expressivity*: emotions, unlike moods, are usually expressed through a facial reaction.
- *Nature*: The nature of emotions is action-oriented; that of moods is cognitive (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

By connecting the three elements just described together, we can say that affect is a mood dimension that consists of emotions. The affect can be high/low positive or high/low negative. The high positive affect will include excitement and happiness; while in the low one, there are, for example, boredom and tiredness. There are anxiety and nervousness in the high negative affect; in the low part, we find instead, for instance, relaxation and tranquillity (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Some factors can influence moods, emotions and consequently also the general affect. First, a person's personality can lead them to experience certain emotions or moods more frequently (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

The level of stress also influences the emotional state of individuals, tending to worsen it. Another negative factor is the low quantity and quality of sleep. Active social activities and physical activity, on the other side, increase the quality of the affective state (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

In the end, demographic factors such as age and gender are also indicators of a different attitude towards mood and emotions. Women experience more of those who are positive than men. Over time, older people can better control negative emotions, so they experience them less or less intensely than younger people (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

The brain involved in the management of emotions is that of the limbic system in which there are structures (Dalgleish, 2004) such as the amygdala that choose which external information has an emotional significance and produce emotions (Ledoux, 1995). Then we find the hypothalamus that drives the physical response to emotions (Armony, 2013) and another element is the hippocampus responsible for memory (Fischer et al., 2002).

Emotions and, more generally, the emotional state can cause modifications in cognition, judgment, experience, behaviour and physiology (Lench, Flores & Bench, 2011). Consequently, as some of these areas are part of the making-decisions processes, the latter is influenced too by them.

## **II - Models of emotions' impact on decision making processes**

Rational models don't take into consideration emotions as predictors of decision-making processes. In reality, however, as demonstrated by various studies, the emotional state has a strong impact when a subject is evaluating alternatives to choose

from. Consequently, over time, new models and studies aimed to capture the role of emotions in decision-making constructs.

Here are some of the most significant theories published on this topic.

### *1. Loewenstein-Lerner model of emotions classification*

Lerner and Loewenstein (2003) categorized emotions that can occur during decision making into two divisions: anticipated emotions and immediate ones.

The first category refers to the *expected emotions* that a decision arouses. It is about anticipating what moods will be associated with the possible gains or losses that a choice will create.

For example, a person who is considering whether to transfer some of its savings into risky high-tech stock funds will consider what are the possible emotional scenarios that this choice will entail, one of which could be the regret if the investment fails (Lerner & Loewenstein 2003). Furthermore, those who are thinking of joining a weight loss program will think about the positive emotions that success will give and the negative ones that would exist in the opposite case (Mellers & McGraw, 2001).

The problem of basing one's decision analysis on anticipated emotions is due to two factors. First, by deciding this way, people don't consider other different factors, which could prove crucial.

Secondly, due to some cognitive errors, individuals usually fail to make exact predictions of their emotional state when faced with the choice's outcomes (Han & Lerner, 2010).

These cognitive errors are of three types. Firstly, decision-makers will tend to compare possible outcomes with what could have happened rather than their current situation. A particular example comes by a trend seen in the 1992 Olympic winners. Those who achieved the third position seemed happier on average than those who got second. The latter compared the outcome achieved to the failure to reach first place, while the others thought mainly about the pleasure of not having missed the opportunity to take a medal.

Secondly, decision-makers tend to have an emotional reaction, not for the absolute consequences of the decision, but the relative ones.

Finally, people tend to evaluate decisions differently, depending on the delay of their outcomes over time. These kinds of choices, called intertemporal choices, lead to two processes in people's minds which have an important impact on anticipated emotions: hyperbolic discounting and affective forecasting (Lerner & Loewenstein 2003).

Hyperbolic discounting leads people to prefer smaller rewards, which they receive early, over more considerable outcomes for which they have to wait longer.

People discount alternatives which have delayed outcomes, to reflect the differential importance from the immediate ones. Classical theories have hypothesized that this happens according to a fixed discount factor to discount the delay's dimension.

These theories contrast with the trend that sees many individuals choosing \$100 in the actual moment over \$110 the next day and far fewer preferring \$100 in 30 days to \$110 in 31 days. So even if the sum is the same, people are more willing to wait an extra day for alternatives far in time.

The hyperbolic theory includes a second discount factor reflecting the reduced value relative to when the delay happens to solve the incongruence just mentioned.

(Loewenstein & Donoghue, 2002).

Affective forecasting refers to the predictions that individuals have about their future emotional state, such judgments have often proved inaccurate. People tend not to correctly predict what impact future events will have on their affect. As a side effect, they may put too much energy into something they overestimated the positive emotions (Lerner & Loewenstein 2003).

Two components build the affective forecasting: the emotional valence predictions, which can be positive or negative, and the specific emotions felt jointly with their duration and intensity (Lerner & Loewenstein 2003).

The most significant difficulty for individuals is to forecast the intensity and duration of future emotional reactions accurately. For example, there may be an underestimation when a person who has a bad mood imagines that he has the opposite one. More frequent is the tendency to overestimate, defined by researchers as impact bias (Lerner & Loewenstein 2003).

There are two reasons for this bias: focalism and ignorance of sense-making.

The first is about the tendency to overestimate the number of thoughts attributed to an event in the future. On the other side, sense-making ignorance refers to the decision-makers' failure in making sense of unforeseen events when they occur (Wilson & Gilbert, 2005).

The second category, *immediate emotions*, refers to the real feelings a person experiences in decision-making processes. Besides cognitive components, this typology also includes somatic ones, i.e., changes in facial expressions or the automatic nervous system (Han & Lerner, 2010).

The type of emotions here analyzed have two types of inputs: anticipatory influences and incidental ones.

Anticipatory influences give rise to integral emotions that emerge when a subject considers the consequences of the decision. Although they derive from the same action that arouses the expected emotions, they are different for certain factors.

The main difference lies in the fact that the emotions described here are experienced by the subjects, while the expected ones result from their imagination.

Moreover, integral emotions are not sensitive to probabilities as is the other type.

Then, these emotions are susceptible to timing and vividness to possible rewards or losses from an action. The more an event approaches and its vividness increases, the more the real emotions felt by people increase in intensity when imagining it (Keltner & Lerner, 2010).

The second input factor is about the incidental influences that concern all those variables that have no connection with the decision itself, but which in any case have the power to impact it by changing its course (Lerner & Loewenstein, 2003).

The effects of immediate emotions on the process analyzed here are two. On the one hand, they directly affect the actions relatively to the type of emotions experienced and the value the decision-maker attributes to choices. This indicator will lead people to have more optimistic attitudes if his affect is positive and vice versa if it is negative.

The higher the intensity of an emotion, the harder it becomes for the individual to overcome the influence of them, letting them take control.

The second type of consequences is indirect as it affects three structural factors of the decision-making process. These three elements are: the quality and intensity of the procedure, the informational research, and the forecasting of consequences (Lerner & Loewenstein, 2003).

## *2. The Somatic Marker Hypothesis*

Damasio in 1991 proposed a theory called "The Somatic Marker Hypothesis (SMH)" which hypothesizes how emotional processes may influence decision making.

People feel emotions when they respond to various stimuli that lead to reactions on both the brain and body level. Basically, the brain transforms physiological changes, such as differences in heartbeats, into emotions. These physiological changes are definable as somatic markers.

Over time, these changes and, consequently, the unleashed emotions lead to an association between them and specific situations in which they occurred. Identifying somatic markers leads individuals to recall events and situations in which they have previously occurred. This fact affects their behaviour, so it can also direct to different choices when decisions-making processes arise. Decision-makers, depending on whether the markers lead to positive or negative associations, will avoid or move towards a particular alternative.

Responses to somatic markers occur in two ways, due to two different mental connections.

The first, called the "body loop", creates emotions from associations with specific changes in the body's reactions. For example, seeing a dangerous object associated with sensations of fear will lead a subject to have the bodily responses that this emotion creates, thus causing it.

The second one, defined as "as-if body loop," does not require physiological triggers to elicit emotions, but this action occurs simply through the feeling's mental image. Unlike the situation described above, just imagining being in front of a fearful object triggers fear because the mind anticipates the expected body's physiological responses. This

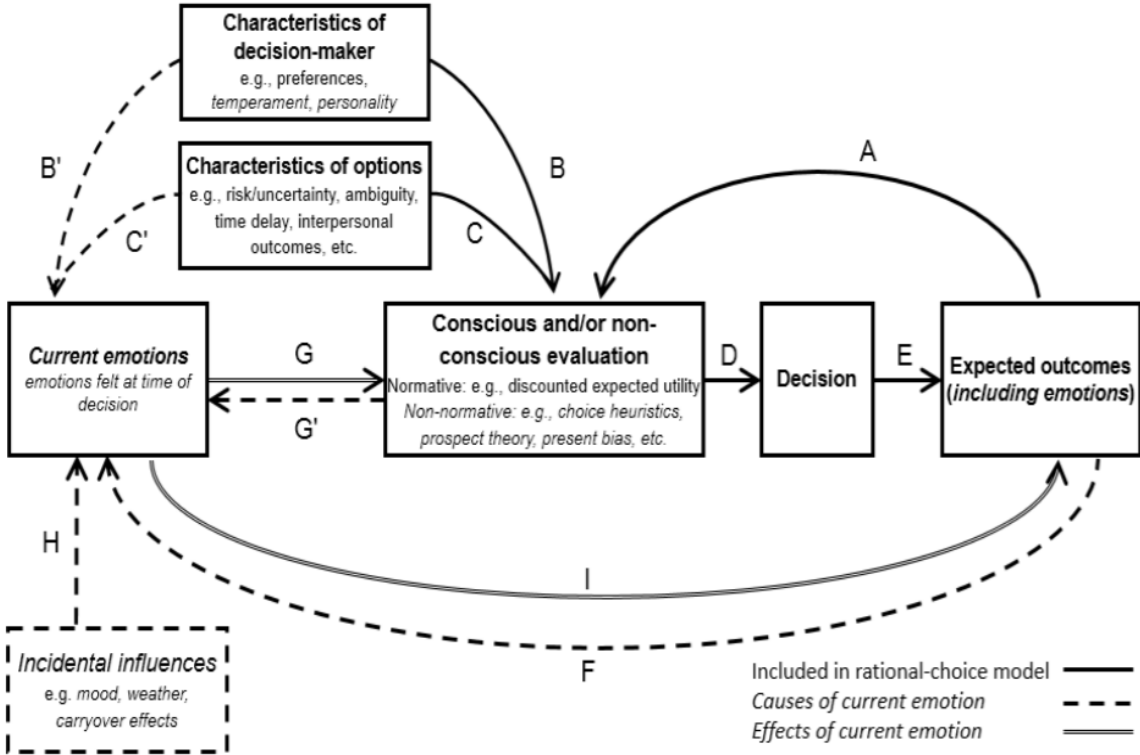


anticipation of the body's reactions is useful in making decisions because it pushes an individual to respond to stimuli more quickly without needing an event to happen (Damasio, 1994).

The recognition of these somatic markers, therefore, proves useful in circumstances of uncertainty and complexity. The moment the human brain identifies one of them, it can recognize the situation and make emotional associations, leading to rapid reactions and responses (Dunn et al., 2016).

*3. Affect Integrated Model of Decision-making (AIMD)*

The Affect Integrated Model of Decision-making (AIMD), showed in Figure 5 and proposed by Lerner et al. (2014), is a summary decision-making model that considers both rational ones and those concening emotions, including that of Lowenstein and Lerner and that of Damasio just described.



**Figure 5** The Affect Integrated Model of Decision-making (AIMD) (Lerner et al., 2014)

Some assumptions characterize the model:

1. The choice between given options is one-time.
2. The model does not consider any emotions felt after the selection.
3. The model doesn't explain the reflexive behaviour (Lerner et al., 2014).

The solid lines (A, B, C, D) in AIDM represent the rational models of decision making, namely the Discounted Utility Model and Expected Utility Model, which are normative and represent conscious valuation. In the same category, we find the non-normative models that give rise to non-conscious evaluation, specifically prospect theory and choice heuristics with the related biases.

The union of these models can be summarized as follows: when faced with a decision, decision-makers choose by evaluating the options' utility. On the one hand, this factor receives influences by the alternatives' characteristics, such as their success probability and their time delay. On the other hand, there are the peculiarities of the individual's personality, such as his attitude to risk, his personality or his time preferences (Lerner et al., 2014).

Together these factors lead the decision-maker to make a decision that will have an expected outcome. Here emotions are introduced; the subjects will evaluate the expected utility of the result of choice, considering the possible emotional response to it (i.e., expected emotions), following also the tendency theorized in the Somatic Marker Response by Damasio.

This variable's introduction leads to a departure from rational models; preferences are no longer considered stable but constructed (Lerner et al., 2014).

In addition to expected emotions, as previously seen in Lerner and Loewenstein classification, the model also includes the current feelings that individuals experience together when they carry out a decision-making process.

As sources that impact on current emotions, we find again the decision-maker's characteristics and those of the options present. In this part of the model, their effect is represented by lines B 'and C'. Besides, the predicted emotions (represented in the model by line F) influence the current ones. In the end, line G' represents that

contemplating the decision can cause frustration, especially when the alternatives are similar, leading to a greater choice difficulty.

Line H represents the impact that the incidental influences have on felt emotions, which could be given by moods, whether or carryover effects.

Current emotions influence results assessment as represented by line G. More specifically, they condition the type of processing used, the prioritization of information useful for the decision and the predominant motivational aims in the final choice. The line I shows that these kinds of emotions impact on expected outcomes (Lerner et al., 2014).

Lerner and his colleagues have provided an example useful in explaining the model: “Imagine that someone experiencing sadness due to the death of her cat is offered an intertemporal choice: she can receive \$50 now or receive \$100 in 1 month. As noted above, her decision could be affected by personal characteristics, such as her own discount rate; if she has a high discount rate, she would be less likely to choose the delayed amount (Line B). In accordance with ATF, the woman’s sadness, though incidental to the decision (Line H), would increase her motivation to attain rewards immediately, even at the expense of longer-term gains (Line G). However, the anticipatory influences of expected positive outcomes might mitigate the woman’s sadness by triggering a positive feeling in the future, such as excitement over the prospect of receiving money either way (Line F). Conversely, current sadness might also temper such expectations, making both outcomes seem less rewarding (Line I). Finally, frustration about waiting for a time-delayed reward (Line C') and anxiety about the size of the discrepancy between the rewards (Line G') may further color her current emotions. The ultimate decision will be predicted by the combination of her sadness-modified discount rate, her monetary goals, and how she values the potential rewards (Line J).” (Lerner et al., 2014, p.45)

#### *4. Pfister and Böhm’s classification of emotions’ role in decision making*

According to Pfister and Böhm (2008), emotions have four functions in guiding people in choosing between alternative options.

The first role is to provide information. Positive or negative emotions create different informational factors when a person faces a decision. They provide information on the pleasure or pain associated with the choices; thus, impacting the preference construction process.

The second is to improve the speed. In certain situations, especially if dangerous, emotions push decision-makers to make choices more quickly.

Third, emotions are useful for people to evaluate the relevance of a decision. Through feelings, people can perceive what the relevant elements in the process of choosing between various alternatives are.

Finally, certain emotions lead to making the best decision for oneself or the one definable as optimal in others' interest (Pfister and Böhm, 2008).

### **III - Basic emotions and their impact on decision making processes**

As mentioned before, there are six basic emotions: anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness and surprise. Each of them acts differently on decision-making processes, and in the next section the analysis is going to focus on the first five of them.

#### *1. Anger*

Anger is an emotion that occurs when people respond to a provocation, be it real or perceived. This reaction is powerful and uncomfortable and usually results when a person experiences frustration, fear or pain (Mental Help.net, 2021).

Depending on its management, it can become a positive or negative force.

In the first case, anger can help people make decisions, resolve conflicts or problems, and be a self-defence mechanism. When not correctly controlled, this feeling leads individuals to have emotional problems and issues in relationships with others (Videbeck, 2011).

When a person feels angry, its body reacts by increasing its heart rate, blood pressure, and breathing (Yadav, 2017). His face takes on an expression that suggests that the person is willing to fight and the flow of blood moves into the hands to make them ready to act (Ekman, 1999).

Anger acts on the decision-making process differently than would be expected due to its belonging to the category of negative affect. Theoretically, this category's emotions should lead to pessimistic expectations, unlikely those causing positive moods that should trigger optimistic ones.

Instead, even if anger falls within the range of negative emotions, it has some common characteristics with happiness, which belongs to the opposite category. For example, it increases confidence and the perception of power (Bazerman & Moore, 2009).

Lerner and Tiedens (2006) found that anger acts on some sub-categories of the decision-making process and the judgment mechanisms.

In the domain of perception of risk, an angry person is more likely to be a risk-seeker. In addition, those in this emotional state have more optimistic perceptions than those experiencing other emotions in future life events or terrorism.

The emotion studied here also affects the depth of processing. More precisely, the angry person more easily falls into heuristics processes which, for example, lead to stereotyped judgments. Also, those who are angry activate more punitive attributions by exaggerating their perception of other individuals' guilt.

Relative to this last effect, such subjects tend to attribute the blame for an event to other people by minimizing their involvement.

Another impacted field is attention. The person pays less attention and tends to rely on superficial cues rather than accurately evaluate the quality of the arguments. Furthermore, individuals in this emotional condition give greater attention and importance to topics related to the emotion described here.

Finally, in relating to others, anger pushes individuals to feel more of belonging to a group, and consequently, this fact increases the tendency to take action towards external members. The angry person hardly associates positive traits with those outside their target group.

Also, anger decreases the level of trust that subjects have in other people (Lerner & Tiedens, 2006).

## *2. Disgust*

Disgust triggers feelings of aversion and reluctance towards the object or situation that creates it (Rozin, Haidt, & McCauley, 2000).

Disgusted people have physical responses such as nausea, vomiting, sweating, and lowering of blood pressure. The reaction is instinctive and is aroused by specific smells, tastes and visions. Not only that, but this emotion is also expressible towards ideas, behaviours and people (Rozin, Lowery & Ebert, 1994).

Disgust is mainly associated with a repulsion of an unpleasant food even if it is not only experienced in this context. In fact, the general facial expression that creates this emotion simulates the gesture of spitting or touching the nose to cover an unpleasant smell (Ekman, 1999).

The natural reaction to disgust is to avoid the object or situation that causes that emotion. This action can occur through the expulsion or removal of the thing in question, the distancing from it or by changing attention to something else (Rozin et al, 1999).

Consequently, in the context of decisions, individuals will tend to move away from alternatives that somehow disgust them.

This attitude also manifests itself when the decision's alternatives are not those that lead to the emotion described here. Indeed, those who are in an emotional state of disgust due to external contexts will tend to be less conservative and want to move away from the alternatives of the decision they have to make (Bazerman & Moore, 2009).

An experiment conducted by Lerner et al. (2004) demonstrated this propensity.

Half of the participants (sellers) owned an object hypothetically and had to decide whether to sell it and at what price. The other half (potential buyers) did not own the item in question and choose between receiving it or getting a sum of money in return. In the first phase, the experiment aimed to induce disgust in the participants through a video that showed the use of an unsanitary toilet. The second phase had the goal of analysing whether the induction of this emotion would affect the choice that the experiment subjects had to make.

The results showed that after the video, people in the first group created the desire to move away from the things they owned, while in the other group, there was a tendency to avoid buying new objects. Indeed, the sellers' willingness to sell was higher as they were willing to sell the items at a lower price to get rid of them. Jointly, potential buyers have lowered the price of their willingness to pay (Lerner et al., 2004).

### *3. Fear*

Fear is an emotion that occurs when a person feels a sense of threat or danger. A frightened person suddenly opens his eyes to increase his vision, and his face turns pale. The body prepares for the act of running away with the blood that creates more influx in the legs (Ekman, 1999; Lerner & Keltner, 2001).

Regarding the scope of decisions, a frightened person will make less risky decisions, as this emotion leads to risk aversion behavior. Furthermore, these people are more pessimistic in judging the future (Lerner & Keltner, 2001).

This emotion distorts the perception of certainty and control that are lowered, leading the person to perceive negative events as dependent on the situation in which they occur and not predictable (Lerner & Keltner, 2001).

### *4. Happiness*

The definition of happiness has many facets; usually, it refers to two different contexts that differ in this emotional state's duration.

In the first case, happiness is understood as a sense of general satisfaction that a person has in his life (Ghram, 2014). The second refers to an emotion felt at a precise moment linked to feelings like joy or pleasure.

Those who feel happy find on their face the expression of a sincere smile that manifests itself with a spontaneous contraction of the eye orbicularis muscle. The rest of the body feels a sensation of relaxation. (Ekman, 1999).

A happy person is in a positive mood and he inclines to be risk-averse by choosing the options with lower risk (Mogilner, Aaker & Kamvar, 2011). In addition, he or she tends to decrease the time he takes to choose (Meghana & Rinju, 2011).

Happiness induces people to be more confident about positive events happening, tending to focus little on immediate problems (Mogilner, Aaker & Kamvar, 2011).

Moreover, this emotion influences in a positive way people and objects evaluation as well as pushing towards healthier alternatives both in personal and working life (Mogilner, Aaker & Kamvar, 2011).

### *5. Sadness*

Sadness is one of the negative emotions and definable as psychological pain. It is associated with or characterized by feelings such as "loneliness, distress, depression, anxiety, grief and anguish." (Arias et al., 2020, p.1)

In the context of triggered behaviours, this emotion leads people to isolate themselves socially, aspire to lower rewards and have a slower gait.

The face responds to the emotion studied here by raising the inner eyebrows, relaxing the jaw, and lowering the mouth's corners. The body instead collapses, and the walking slows down (Arias et al., 2020). Sadness is expressible through the act of crying (Jellesma & Vingerhoets, 2012).

In the decision-making domain, the emotion described here can impact economic decisions.

In the same experiment explained in the section dedicated to disgust and conducted by Levin et al. (2004), experimenters also tried to see the effects of sadness on attachment to an object.

To arouse the desired emotion, they used a video from the movie *The Champ* showing the protagonist's mentor's death.

As a reaction to this emotion evoked in them, the sellers decreased the price demanded to sell, while the potential buyers increased their willingness to buy.

This experiment is congruent with a natural approach to sadness that the human being has. This emotion leads to focus on the self, devaluing it and overthinking. The last



actions trigger the desire to enhance the self and motivate people to change. This fact increases the tendency to give more value to the goods the subject could purchase (Cryder, Lerner, Gross, & Dahl, 2007).

In the risk attitude domain, the sad individual chooses alternatives with high-risk and high reward (Loewenstein, Weber, Hsee, & Welch, 2001; Raghunathan & Pham, 1999).

## *6. How to induce basic emotions*

Over time, numerous researchers have studied emotions in their various fields of application. In succeeding in this purpose, it was very often necessary to induce them, especially in experiments conducted in laboratories.

The aim is not always to trigger a specific emotion but a general emotional state that can be either positive or negative.

Some of the methods adopted in inducing emotions or emotional states are videos, images, autobiographical recall, music, imaginary and situational procedures.

The combination of these tools leads to a more effective result in eliciting the desired effect.

Here there is a list of how researchers use these tools to carry out experimental research. The same methodologies can be used in various other contexts, for example, in marketing, as we will see in the next chapter.

- **Video:** Through an experiment, Gross and Levenson (1995) have identified a series of clips taken from various films that have proved most useful in inducing basic emotions. Such multimedia contents have been repurposed in various other experiments as the scene from *The Champ* was used, as explained above, to generate sadness in Levin's (2004) study.

Basically, in the video clips indicated by Gross, each situation provided that the protagonist was in a situation when he felt the specific emotion that he wanted to arouse in the experiment's participants.

Therefore, researchers aim to push impersonification and consequently empathy, eliciting thus the same emotion in those who undergo the experiments.

- **Images:** For experimental purposes, the researchers use a series of photographs provided by the International Affective Picture System (IAPS). The latter, created by the University of Florida, is a set of standardized coloured images which evoke emotions and are internationally accessible (Lang et al., 2008). The same principle of impersonification is applicable here.
- **Music:** Following the same principle as the IAPS, applying it to sounds, the University of Florida has developed International Affective Digital Sounds (IADS). The latter collects a series of standardized sound stimuli that allow triggering emotions internationally recognized and accessible (Bradley & Lang, 2007).
- **Autobiographical recall:** This technique requires the experimenter to ask people undergoing the study to imagine situations where they experienced a specific emotion or felt a certain way (Siedlecka & Denson, 2019).
- **Imagery:** Imagery is similar to autobiographical recall but does not contemplate that the situation to be imagined is necessarily part of the person's experience (Siedlecka & Denson, 2019).

## **CHAPTER 4 - EMOTIONAL MARKETING**

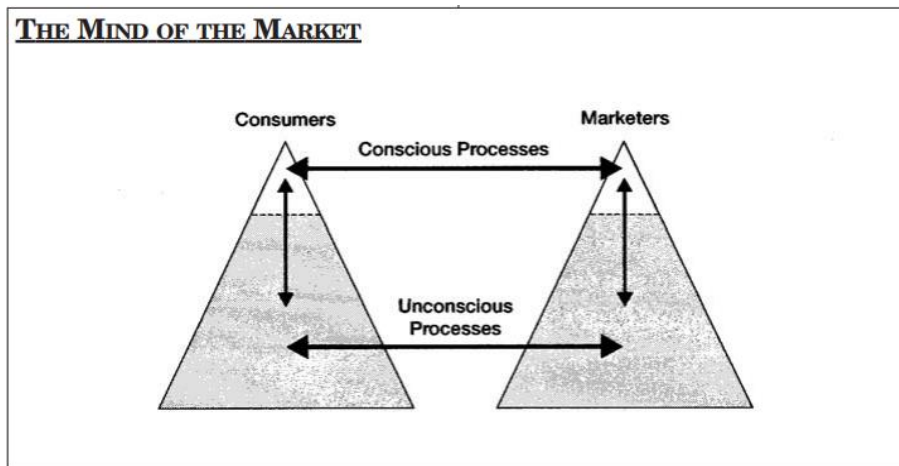
### **I - INTRODUCTION**

Emotional marketing is a technique that experts in this sector use in advertising campaigns, branding, and, more generally, in the customer's experience with the product or service.

It is based on the use of tools and tactics that affect people's unconsciousness in their emotional sphere, which plays a fundamental role in purchasing decisions. Indeed, the purpose of this approach is to create a unique and memorable experience for the customer that exceeds their expectations while anticipating and satisfying their unconscious desires (Schmitt, 1999).

It works because, as seen in the previous chapters, the human being makes decisions not only based on the rational cognitive process but above all, on the unconscious one. Therefore, the purpose of the tool discussed here is to stimulate areas of the brain that are not guided by rationality so that the consumer relies on them and thus arouse new unforgettable emotional experiences or associations with pleasant past situations. In both cases, the desired result is to push the person to buy (Gallucci, 2005).

This principle, therefore, also applies to decisions relating to the purchase of a product or service. According to Zaltman (2003), people make 95% of their purchases unconsciously. Indeed, as reported in Figure 6, the conscious part is represented by the top of the pyramid. Generally, people think they are aware of their reasons for buying. In reality, they are simply looking for rational reasons to justify what they took by following the opposite mental process (Zaltman, 2003).



**Figure 6** The Mind of Market  
 (<https://media.imaxws.com/912/howcustomersthink.pdf>)

Ruys and Stapel (2008) demonstrated the influence of emotions in choices, especially those triggered subliminally.

As a matter of fact, this study aimed to refute the belief that emotions cannot be evoked on an unconscious level. The reason for this belief lies in the assumption that it is precisely the awareness of an emotion that creates it.

To demonstrate this, they subjected 100 students from the University of Tilburg to a sequence of visual stimuli in the form of flashes of light. The aim of the experiment declared to the volunteers was to indicate on which part of the screen the light appeared. In truth, the experimenters showed them pictures for fractions of a second, intending to trigger emotional responses. Eventually, the subjects had to fill in a sequence of words. Those who received positive emotional stimuli favored words that expressed the corresponding type of emotion. The same was true for those who had received negative emotion elicitation, leading them to choose terms related to the stimulus received (Ruys & Stapel, 2008).

In Donald Clane's words, "The essential difference between emotion and reason is that emotion leads to action while reason leads to conclusions" (Clane, 2010 p.253).

So, as also seen in the previous chapter, a person's emotional state, even if he is not aware of it, will greatly influence his decisions, including purchasing one. In fact, a specific emotion among those described in the previous chapter, or emotional

involvement with the company or the product the consumer is considering buying, will be the determinants that will allow him or her to make a purchase or not and which product between two similar ones to choose.

So, as Clane suggested, these variables will push subjects to act instinctively and often immediately without getting stuck in the slowness of the decision-making processes of System 1, namely the rational one.

## **II - Customer Experience Management (CEM)**

### *1. Evolvement of CEM*

Emotional marketing represents the evolution of marketing born in the context of a new approach to the consumer born from the need to respond to some changes.

The approach to the target that involves the design and management of emotional (or experiential) marketing strategies takes the name of Customer Experience Management (CEM) (Ferraresi & Schmitt, 2006).

Firstly, following the logical thread of the awareness that people do not make rational decisions, the marketing approach changed and is continuously evolving.

Considering individuals as rational thinkers led to a product-based marketing idea. Approaching this concept, in 1960, Jerome McCarthy divided marketing activities into four categories called the 4 P (McCarthy, 1964).

- *Product*: that is, the good or service sold on the market.
- *Price*: the amount of money the client is willing to pay in order to get that good or service.
- *Place*: activities that aim to communicate the product's or service's characteristics and benefits or service to the customer and persuade him to buy it.
- *Promotion*: the operations that make the product available to the consumer or the shops and points of sale, including the relative intermediate steps.

The awareness of human irrationality made the focus change from product to consumer. It is no longer about looking for the right customers for the product but the perfect product for the chosen target.

Lauterborn (1993) represents this change by transforming the 4 P into the 4 C.

- *Product → Consumer*: Consumers want to buy value or desire a solution to their problems. Companies should be able to impersonate themselves in their consumers to understand what their needs are. In addition, also understanding the accessory services that would please the consumer or those that are not yet provided even by the competition. In this way, offering them would lead to the competitive advantage of being the first provider of a service that works.
- *Price → Cost*: It refers to the cost that the consumer has to bear to purchase a particular product rather than that of a consumer.
- *Place → Convenience*: The concept of place is broadened to include a new way of trading and buying born with the advent of new technologies, including thus e-commerces.
- *Promotion → Communication*: In addition to the tools that promote the product or service and require the final recipient to be passive, the new category also includes all the activities in which business and consumer interact Jarad, (Ghayth, 2020).

Secondly, in an era where innovation and technology have led to a trend towards the standardization of products that differ mainly in price, it becomes important to find ways to differentiate.

The competition will shift on the promotional level and on the company's ability to offer the consumer an emotional connection that pushes him to prefer its product not considering the mere act of purchase, but because there is a sharing of emotions and values (Marketers, 2015).

In this way, at the same price, emotional marketing techniques can lead to choosing one product or another. In some cases, this technique will lead customers to select the

product that costs the most because the experience and emotional involvement created are worth paying the premium price.

Thirdly, the consumer has also changed over time. Nowadays, those who buy are more selective, more attentive, process information more carefully, have deeper and more complex needs and desires. Over time it has also changed its relationship with brands and those who produce products or services. There is no longer the passive influence of a brand; now, the consumer wants to act, interact and co-create value with the company. Buyers like to be “cuddled,” feel unique, and receive exclusive attention (Aronne, 2020)

## *2. Advantages of CEM*

The benefits of customer management carried out in this way are manifold. They are all based on the fact that by emotionally involving the consumer, their loyalty towards the company grows and this causes:

1. An increase in revenues because a loyal customer will be more willing to:
  - Repurchase the product, thereby increasing the repurchase rate.
  - Respond favourably to up-selling or cross-selling proposals
2. Lower costs:
  - Management costs: The costs of keeping an existing customer are lower than those of finding new ones.
  - Communication costs: The company has less need to communicate to make itself known to new customers because it invests in existing ones with which it already has a relationship. By doing so, one of the most consistent slices of communication costs for a company decreases.

3. Increase of positive Word of Mouth (WOM):

The more people satisfied with the product or service, the more natural it will be to talk about it with friends and acquaintances. If, in addition, the company gives small incentives to do so, the power of this tool can become strong. (Aronne, 2020)

### 3. Strategic Experiential Modules (SEMs)

According to Schmitt (1999), by managing the irrational levers of purchasing, consumers can live five types of experiences: sense experience, feel experience, think experience, act experience, and relate experience.

CEM is the strategy that allows to plan, manage and monitor the results of these experiences.

#### **Sense Experience:**

This type of experience involves the human being's five senses: sight, hearing, touch, taste, and smell. Consumers' senses can be elicited at all stages of the buying process, starting with the pre-purchase and ending in the post-purchase phase. To do this effectively, a company needs to know how to achieve sensory impact (Schmitt, 1999).

Muller exploits this technique using words and slogans that invite the consumer to imagine the sensations of tasting its products. For example, as in Figure 7, the Corner product is described as creamy and crunchy.

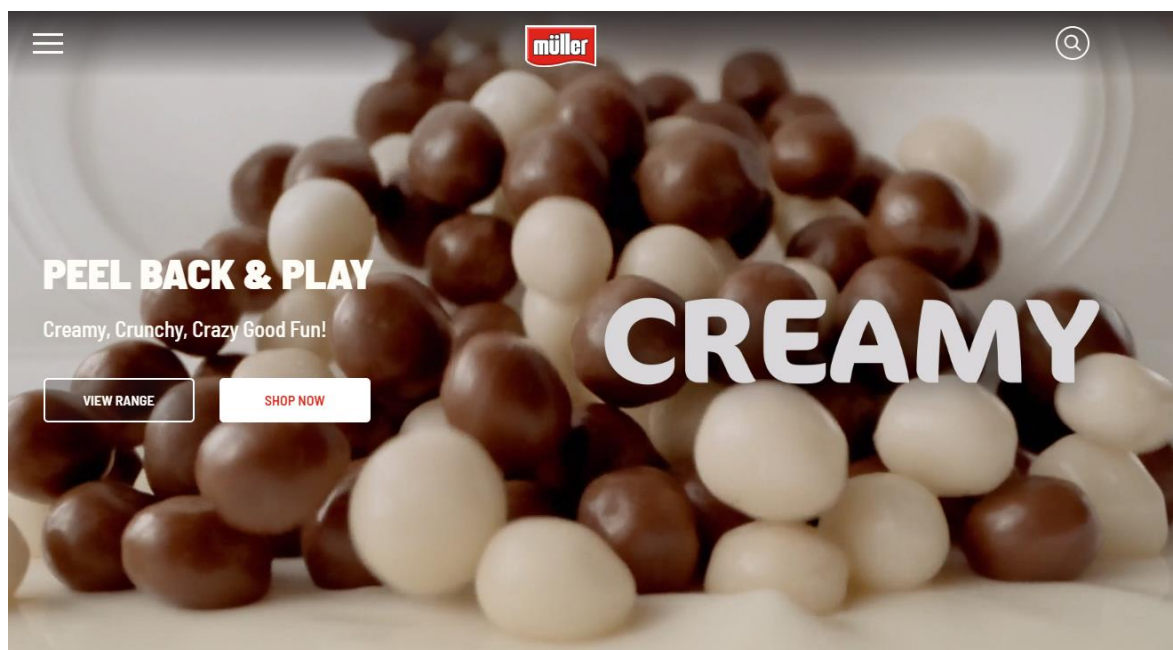


Figure 7 Muller's advertising campaign (<https://www.muller.co.uk/>)

#### **Feel Experience:**



This kind of experience is meant to involve emotions and feelings. In fact, through emotional stimuli, those who communicate with consumers try to empathize with them. The purpose of the promotional tools used in this sense is to stimulate a specific emotion or mood (Schmitt, 1999).

### **Think Experience:**

Marketers tickle the consumer's thinking by creating creative, cognitive, and problem-solving experiences. The latter provoke, surprise, and intrigue the recipient pushing him to convergent and divergent thinking (Schmitt, 1999).



**Figure 8** Carpisa's Advertisign Campaign <https://endelab.com/il-marketing-esperienziale-sense-feel-think-act-relate/>

Carpisa in 2017 created a particular think experience. Those who bought a bag could subsequently implement and send a communication plan to the company. The best among the participants was awarded a one-month internship at Carpisa (Silvestri, 2018).

### **Act Experience:**

In this case, the experience is linked to physicality and mind together. The goal is to push consumers to act differently from their standards, leaving the comfort zone to improve their lifestyle by trying new things possibly related to the company's product. The stimulus created by this type of involvement is the most lasting because it also

stimulates the consumer on a mental level by strengthening the connection between the company and the buyer. The messages used are motivational, persuasive, stimulate the instinct, and are accompanied by the representation of the behavior that the advertiser wants to push (Schmitt, 1999).

A perfect example of the Act Experience is Nike that pushes people to do sports through images and videos. Furthermore, the logo itself refers to action as it is "Just Do It."



**Figure 9** Nike's Advertising Campaign (<https://www.thedrum.com/creative-works/project/wieden-kennedy-portland-nike-dream-crazier>)

### **Relate Experience:**

The experience, in this case, is the consumer's relationship with other people, including other consumers, for example, by joining a community of users with the same interests and aspirations. The subject will appreciate it because it satisfies three innate desires in human beings: personal success, belonging to a group or social class, and enhancement of one's image.



**Figure 10** People in front of an Apple Store  
(<https://www.neurosciencemarketing.com/blog/articles/positive-framing.htm> [s://endelab.com/il-marketing-esperienziale-sense-feel-think-act-relate/](https://endelab.com/il-marketing-esperienziale-sense-feel-think-act-relate/))

An example is given by Apple, which has managed to create a real community around its products. Whoever buys for this company does not just do it for the product itself, but to be part of the Apple community that stands out for the status and lifestyle that its buyers want to aspire to (Silvestri, 2018).

One way to implement this strategy is to create a Facebook group where customers are encouraged to share content. Any positive User Generated Content (UGC), from a simple sharing to a comment or a review, creates trust in others and arouses a strong sense of belonging (Tuten & Solomon, 2012).

#### *4. CEM's Strategy implementation*

To implement a strategy that arouses one of these experiences, Schmitt (1999) identified some tools available to the company called Experience Providers (ExPro).

1. **Communication:** The first concerns the internal or external communication tools available to the company.

2. **Identities:** They are about the visual and verbal identity of the company, including, for example, logos and names.
3. **Products:** In this case, the experience is linked to the external aspect of the product, so it includes design, packaging, and brand characters.
4. **Co-branding:** This category includes event marketing and sponsorships, product placement.
5. **Environment:** They are all the places where the product or service can be present. It, therefore, includes shops, offices, public spaces, buildings, means of transport, and trade booths.
6. **Websites and other online tools:** Schmitt was referring to internet sites and all electronic tools (Schmitt, 1999). Nowadays, the category includes all social media and other technological tools that allow the company to communicate and interact with the consumer. Through these methodologies, content managers can use videos, images, music, etc...which, as seen in the previous chapter, can arouse specific emotions. Furthermore, through the internet, these contents can be made viral, gaining visibility not by investing in direct advertising but by sharing users, which involves fewer costs and is much more powerful.
7. **People:** The people who manage a customer become fundamental in his perception of the experience. If customers have a relational experience where they feel listened to, flattered, and well followed, they will have a positive attitude towards the company (Schmitt, 1999).

The multitude of these tools clarifies to what extent a company can create an emotional experience with the consumer. As seen in the previous chapter, emotions can be multi-faceted, and the general emotional state depends on many factors. Furthermore, the company must be careful to be consistent in every means of communication it uses; otherwise, it can generate confusion and alienate the customer.

Consequently, given all these complexities, it is easy to get the wrong approach, but implementing a well-thought-out strategy can minimize the margin of error.

For a correct strategy implementation, as stated in the chapter on marketing in framing, also, in this case, the study of the characteristics of one's target becomes important. Only by knowing which are the right emotional levers that push the desired segment to buy, a company will carry out a tailor-made experiential marketing campaign that involves it at a deep level.

One way to define a specific target is to create a buyer persona who are archetypal who represent a segment (Tuten & Solomon, 2012).

The latter is an example of a useful template in creating a buyer persona that includes all the useful information needed for a complete analysis.











<i>Buyer Persona Canvas</i> <sup>TM</sup>		Created For:		Date
				Iteration #1
<b>Buyer Persona</b>  Who are our buyers? What is the archetype of our buyers? What is their archetypal background? What is their archetypal experience? What is their archetypal balance of professional and personal lives? What are their areas of focus and responsibilities? What are the archetypal roles in organizations?	<b>Goals</b>  What are our buyer's business goals? What are our buyer's personal goals? What organizational goals affect their buying behavior?	<b>Buying Process</b>  What buying process do our buyers follow? What is their archetypal buyer's journey? How does procurement govern the buying process?	<b>Buyer Thinking</b>  Which attitudes hurt/help us on the part of buyers? What perceptions & beliefs do our buyers have? How does buyer thinking affect buying behavior?	<b>Why Buy</b>  How do our buyers make choices? What risks affect buying choices? How do our buyers balance consequences and payoffs? How does buyer thinking affect "why" choices? What are the unlocked drivers for decisions? What are the unarticulated "why" reasons for decisions?
	<b>Initiatives</b>  What are the archetypal initiatives of our buyers? What are the archetypal strategies of our buyers and industry? Which programs & projects are important?	<b>Timing</b>  What are the seasonal patterns of our buyers? How does formal budget planning affect timing? What is normal end-to-end buying cycle?	<b>Channels</b>  Which channels do our buyers use? Where are our buyers socially? What external sources do they frequent?	
<b>Influencers, Stakeholders, Buying Team</b>  Who are key stakeholders? Who are internal influencers? External influencers? Who participates on buying team? What role does buyer persona have on buying team? Who participates in the approval process?			<b>Content and Information</b>  What information and data references do buyers rely on? How do buyers utilize and share content? What types of content affects purchase decisions? What are content buyers seek and when? How buyers obtain and receive information?	

Figure 11 Buyer Personas Template (<https://exelab.com/domande-per-creare-buyer-personas/>)

Marketing managers can obtain this information in various ways:

- Through an interview with existing customers.
- Through questionnaires;
- By asking seemingly random questions when dealing with a client.

- Data analysis (Tuten & Solomon, 2012).

Also, it is necessary to make an operational plan highlighting how, with what resources, timing, and how to monitor the various experiential tactics.

### **III - Eliciting specific emotions or emotional states**

In this section the object of the analysis are the tools through which an emotional experience can be created, or specific emotions elicited.

As seen in the previous chapter, images, imagery, music, and videos can arouse emotions. Besides, the use of colors and storytelling can also achieve the same purpose.

#### *1. Visual stimuli*

Visual stimuli such as images or videos are very important because they are processed by the human brain 60,000 times faster than words (Ionos, 2020).

Depending on the ultimate goal, marketing managers can use videos to trigger a positive or negative emotional state.

As seen in the previous chapter, in the case of happiness, a person decreases the decision-making time; consequently, it will take him less time to decide to share a video that made him feel this emotion.

For example, Coca-Cola uses this strategic line by always creating content, such as videos, that instil happiness, sharing, and other positive feelings (Ionos, 2020).

Sadness, on the other hand, triggers empathy, developing brand attachment. An example of its use is the sad commercial of the German supermarket chain Edeka developed in 2015. The video tells the story of an old father abandoned by his family for Christmas who pretends to be dead to reunite them under one roof. After the release of this multimedia content, the brand value has increased (Ionos, 2020).

#### *2. Imagery*

In marketing, imagery can be used as a tactic not so much by making us imagine a specific emotion but a possible imaginary situation where the customer has solved his problem. In this case, the mind will activate the mechanism according to which just imagining an ideal situation leads to an emotional attachment to it. Consequently, the loss aversion mechanism will start, and therefore the feeling of fear will appear, resulting in affection to the object. In other words, the fear of losing the ideal situation will make the customer buy the product (Recchia, 2020).

### *3. Colors*

An important variable to consider is the influence that color has on emotions. It has been shown that the perception of colors triggers biochemical reactions on the human body, as our brain associates color with emotions (Chang & Lin, 2010).

In a research conducted by CCICOLOR - Institute for Color Research, 92.6% of the participants stated that they give importance to visual factors when purchasing a product. 84.7% said color is one of the predominant visual factors in purchasing choice (Morton, Colorcom, 2019).

Another research conducted by the same institute shows that people unconsciously judge people, environment, or products in 90 seconds and that color represents between 62% and 90% of the total judgment (Morton, Colorcom, 2019).

These results are not surprising if we consider that color can trigger emotions, sensations, and memories (Gallucci, 2005).

The human mind has an instinctive reaction to colors when a person sees one color. The perception of one of them gives signals to the amygdala, which is responsible for the elicitation of emotions (Ramachandran et al., 2012).

Each individual, according to his previous emotional state or his characteristics, will react to colors differently. However, our brains tend to associate certain emotions with each color.

Peri (2014) described these associations of the human mind with some of the basic colors.



- **Red:** This color has two associations, one positive and the other negative. Positively it represents energy, strength, and passion, on the other hand, anger, fear, and denial.
- **Pink:** color associated with delicacy, tenderness, often combined with the female gender.
- **Orange:** the emotional states it triggers are joy and positivity, giving an idea of friendliness.
- **Yellow:** stimulates joy, optimism, energy, and a good mood.
- **Green:** This color inspires positivity and peace and is associated with respect for the environment and health.
- **Blue:** conveys serenity, calm, freedom, and trust.
- **Purple:** It stimulates imagination and creativity.
- **Grey:** This color does not stimulate strong emotional responses; for this reason, it can be associated with characteristics such as balance and control (Peri, 2014).

As can be seen in Figure 12, colors are an important tool in branding. Given their effect on memory, they help to make the brand better remembered. Furthermore, depending on the company's purpose and the image it wants to convey, it is crucial to use the most suitable one.

There have been cases of companies that have changed the color of their brand to change the association in the minds of consumers. For example, McDonald's has begun to use green instead of red to decrease the association with junk food and strengthen that of green and healthy (La Repubblica, 2016).



# COLOR EMOTION GUIDE



Figure 12 Color Emotion Guide (<https://www.pinterest.it/pin/67905906854277635/>)



Figure 13 McDonald's logo chagement (<https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/The-new-logo-of-McDonald's-I'm-lovin'-it-The-of-vs.-Bouwman/cf1d55980ebd71cf0b4c1948ddb33b8401f50fa6/figure/2>)

#### *4. Storytelling*

One of the techniques used to trigger emotional involvement is that of storytelling. There are various storytelling tactics that are used in books and multimedia content and that can also be used in a company's communication materials.

One of the most significant is that of the hero's journey.

Christopher Vogler (2004) has identified this storytelling technique, deepening Campbell's studies on the structure of stories and myths.

And this pattern is the same used in ancient myths (Iliad, Odyssey, Epic of Gilgameš...), in biblical stories, in books, and in films.

Firstly, it is based on the use of archetypes that are basic characters that the reader can identify with. The use of them leads people to identify themselves and therefore also to be captured by the product or service.

Among the main characters we find the hero that is the protagonist of the story, who must face an enemy and who is helped by a mentor and some allies (Volger, 2004).

Secondly, the main character has a precise path to follow jointly with the other characters. Volger underlines how this scheme makes history compelling and stimulating. Telling the journey manages to create empathy and identification, pushing others to make a change.

Through these stages, the hero must overcome a challenge to get out of the ordinary world (a kind of comfort zone) and make an adventure that he will live with not a few difficulties and then come out the winner (Volger, 2004).

Who writes should underline the difficulties because they make the story more real, and it is easier for those who read it or see it depicted to imagine themselves in the same situation and therefore empathize.

This way of telling creates emotions in the receiver because he identifies himself with it and leads him to remember and make associations with the company more easily since the human mind tends to remember stories more easily.

This technique can be particularly interesting to tell the mission and vision of the company.

Another way to best implement it is by making the customer the hero of the story. All people take action to avoid pain, gain a benefit, or escape from something. However, some conflicts prevent him from achieving what he wants. In this situation, the company comes into play in the role of mentor. Consuming the product is the way for the hero (customer) to overcome his conflicts and reach his final goal (Recchia, 2020).



# **CHAPTER 5 - CASE STUDY: BASTAMUFFA USING FRAMING AND EMOTIONAL MARKETING STRATEGIES**

## **I - Introduction**

The Italian company BastaMuffa, which sells products that eliminate mould, has tripled its turnover in three years by implementing framing and emotional marketing techniques.

The elements that differentiate this company from others that deal with the same thing is that BastaMuffa products do not act on the effects of mould but the causes. For this reason, the problem does not return as in the cases of using other products or solutions. In addition, the products are natural, which allows the customer to apply them even to closed windows, even managing to sleep in the same room.

In order to highlight these characteristics, its slogan is: "Bastamuffa is the only company specialised in solving the causes of the condensation mold problem with a tailor-made treatment, easy to apply and without toxic substances".

The company does not simply sell the products but a treatment using them that consists of five phases.

1. Free technical analysis of mould (online questionnaire + video call with technician + photo)
2. Analysis to find out the severity of contamination
3. Sanitising products (to sanitise the affected walls)
4. A thermal coating that creates a protective layer (against humidity and condensation)
5. Specialised treatment to maintain the wall warmer

People can gradually choose whether to go ahead with the treatment and have a definitive solution or stop eliminating the already existing mould.

## **II - Target Analysis**

As seen in the previous chapters, both to implement a framing strategy or an emotional marketing strategy, it is necessary to know the customer thoroughly. To achieve this, the managers used a profiling questionnaire.

In 2017, the latter contained seven generic questions; now, it exceeds 30. In addition to including questions relating to demographics and the characteristics of mold, some aim to perceive the features of the target's "pain." By the latter, we mean the problem or frustration that drives him to have an interest in the company's product, which in this case is mold in the home.

Among the characteristics sought are:

- **Duration:** "How long have you had mold?"
- **Attempts to resolve:** "How often do you clean mold?", "What do you do when you have high humidity in the house?", "What kind of treatment have you done in the past?"
- **Secondary problems:** "Which are your health problems caused by mold?", "Do you suffer from ailments that can be aggravated by exposure to mold?"
- **Problem Attitude:** "What urgency do you have in taking the problem off and getting the job done?"

These data are important because they lead to understand among all those who have mold at home, which is the slice that is most frustrated by the problem and, consequently, will be more likely to buy the product.

Furthermore, by analyzing the problem more specifically, we understand the specific levers that will also be those that will emotionally lead the customer to act.

Most of these questions are multiple-choice and present various alternatives that have emerged by seeking information and, above all, by listening to customers and gathering information on the most common characteristics through calls.

As shown in Figure 14, the data were summarized and analyzed by dividing the questions by male, female, and type of negotiation. The last category refers to the breakdown by customers who have bought, those who answered no, and the NO VALS

are customers who have booked an appointment but have not responded. This last data is important to understand the main characteristics of those who buy more easily. Dividing by females and males is functional because different levers generally push them in purchasing. Consequently, having separate data allows you to draw the most useful information to communicate differently to one or the other type of target.

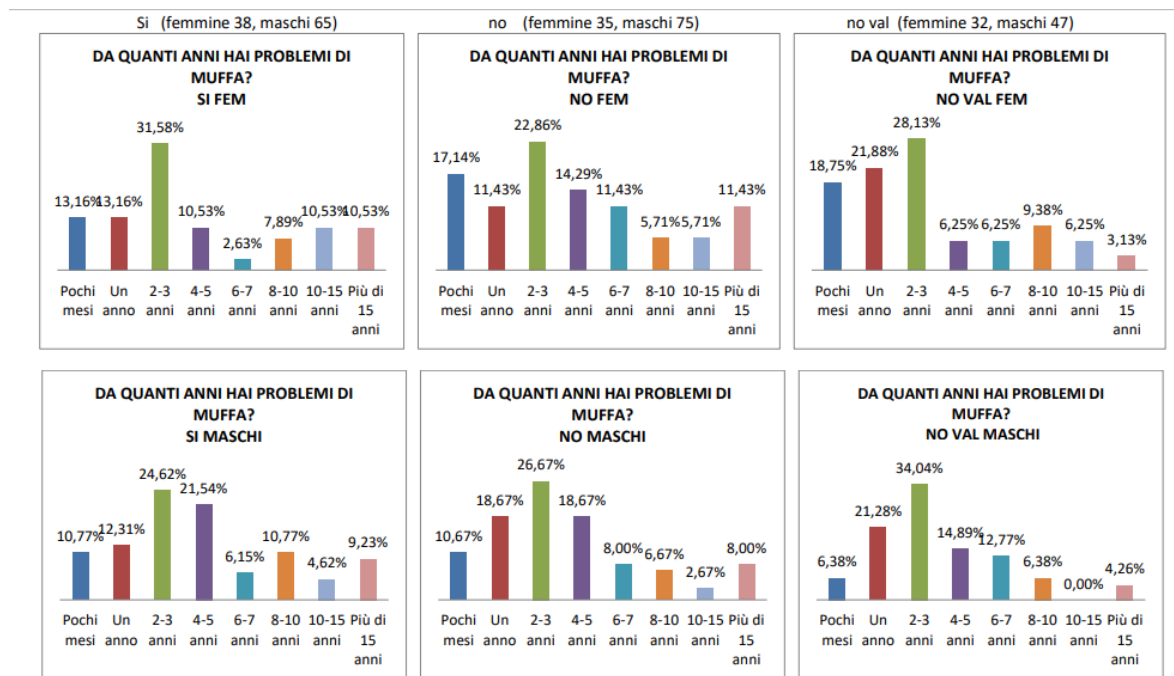


Figure 14 BastaMuffa's Survey Results

The data shows that the biggest frustrations of those who tend to buy more are:

- Concern about existing health problems
- The desire to protect young children from the dangers of mold
- The frustration of the problem that comes back despite the numerous attempts to eliminate it.

As a basic behavioral characteristic, this company's customers can be included among the "gregarious," i.e., people who buy only after the product has already been tested and appreciated by others.

This category of people has more difficulty buying, but they hardly change companies if they are satisfied. They are people who like to be followed and supported in their buying process. In addition, they prefer to receive reassurance and security rather than being told that they have done something wrong.

### **III - Framing and Emotional Strategy**

#### *1. Framing*

Before analysing the target, the company used an approach as a communicative basis, summarised with the statement "if you don't get rid of the mold, you are a nullity" to try to unleash the desire for revenge in the target, but give the features described above this is not the best mode.

Indeed, the sought segment prefers to be reassured. For this reason, this way of communicating has been replaced with the message, "if you get rid of the mold, you are a hero".

Then, considering the fear that customers had for their family's health, the marketing experts introduced that whoever eliminated mould became a hero for their family.

By doing so, consultations and consequently their customers have increased from 490 to 2000 per year. With the same investments, the company has more than doubled its earnings.

Also, when communication started to focus more on "doing good for the family", the number of women who began buying went from 8% to 40%; all this only using a different frame for the same concept. This fact makes it clear that changing words can also reach different targets.

#### *2. General emotional strategy*

The emotional strategy follows a basic pattern based on the greatest frustrations and general characteristics of the target described above. Depending on the tool or tactic, it can have small variations.

It can be defined as an emotional rollercoaster, as it takes the person from positive to negative emotional states at various stages.

The pattern focuses and starts with the client's problem and the biggest fears that this creates: the fear of health consequences and/or the frustration of trying to solve the issue several times to see the mould come back.



You do this by telling what the consequences of mould are on your health, what happens if you don't act and how serious the problem can become if not considered.

This fact creates fear in the client that realises the real gravity of the phenomenon.

Starting with the problem is efficient because customers do not buy thinking about the product itself, but because the latter can solve a customer's problem.

Then, through words and/or images, the customer or potential customer is brought into a positive emotional state as they are told that there are various solutions to this problem.

At that point, however, the person's emotions are thrown down again because they are told why all those solutions don't work. Those who have already tried them more than once enter a state of frustration because they realise the time and money spent trying in vain to solve the problem but without succeeding.

At this point, the copywriter explains that BastaMuffa's solution works because it acts on the causes and not only on the consequences, triggering positive feelings again in the individual.

People hardly believe in "miraculous" solutions. For this reason, positive reviews are shown from those who have tried the product and were satisfied with it. In 10 years of activity, more than 9000 people have adopted this method, benefiting enormously and eliminating mould forever.

Again, to confirm credibility, the company has decided to guarantee the product for five years, so it inserts and emphasises this factor in the various tools it uses to communicate.

It is also not the classic "Satisfied or Reimbursed", but "Satisfied or Satisfied". This slogan means that in case of proven non-functioning of the treatment due to the products' causes, BastaMuffa provides the possibility to redo the treatment free of charge until the problem is definitively resolved.

To strengthen the sense of security that the warranty gives, BastaMuffa uses the free analysis tool.

"You will not spend € 1 until you are sure it will work in your home too!" is the slogan he uses to fortify this concept and get people to book the free analysis through the site.

The fact that the analysis is not paid is another tool to reach the client's emotional sphere. In this way, they perceive that the company is primarily interested in offering them a solution to the problem, not just selling the product.

As we have seen before, the target is gregarious; consequently, these latter factors are crucial for this type of customer to be convinced to buy because they act on his need for security and social proof.

On the other hand, the whole swing of emotions makes the customer feel less guilty when he buys the product.

Consistent with the communication change mentioned above, from the customer's point of view, following the pattern of "Vogler's Hero's Journey", he is described as a hero. The company becomes the mentor since it supports him in his battle against mould.

From this concept, we can deduce another important point of the general strategy: the customer is supported throughout his journey by a company's collaborator who follows him. Every person interested in the product is assigned to an operator who performs the first free technical analysis call. The latter becomes responsible for the potential customer in every possible purchase phase. The collaborator is ready to answer any doubts regarding applying the product or other questions using the Whatsapp messaging platform.

Another way to support the person is through an e-mail funnel involving sending various e-mails that follow the customer's path of applying the products, giving advice and instructions. From an emotional perspective, this follow-up ensures that the client does not feel abandoned in his imaginary battle against the enemy.

Furthermore, those involved in communication use the technique described in the first two chapters of loss aversion.

For example, the site shows this sentence before the Call to Action that wants to push the booking of the free analysis:

"PS We receive more than 50 requests every day, and it may happen that we suspend the service to meet the demands.

But if you see the red button below, it means we still have room for you! "

This message helps the client understand that if he does not act immediately, he risks not getting a free consultation for his problem. In practice, after making him imagine a situation in which he can have a definitive solution to his pain, he pushes himself to the fact that he risks losing the possibility of reaching this ideal situation.

A part of the communication is focused only on the female target, particularly the mothers of small children because the analysts found this customer segment to be the most receptive and interested through the analysis of the data.

For example, on the site, on the main page, at a certain point, the message "You are a mother, you care about your family's health, but you don't know if BastaMuffa is for you?" with a button attached that leads to a link where the risks of mould for younger children are explained.

Furthermore, one of the e-books created by the company is dedicated only to women. Its title is "Are you a SUPER mom and do you want to eliminate mold forever so as not to compromise the health of your children?" and the cover depicts a mother with a baby in her arms, both dressed up as two superheroes.

Besides, each word used is weighted and designed to adapt to the target's characteristics to ensure that the right mental associations are activated. Those who write the texts choose synonyms that instil confidence, making the customer feel like a hero.

Consequently, framing effects and emotional associations are linked because only by using the right word associations, the company can reach the inspirational purposes of experiential marketing techniques.

The company uses many tools to communicate and get in touch with customers, such as website, Facebook group, blog articles, e-books, webinars, the script of the call with the consultant, Facebook ads and information booklets that accompany the kit. of analysis. In all these elements of contact with the customer, the thing that emerges is the consistency that BastaMuffa has. Each material follows the same general scheme

just described of which the fundamental points are emotional rollercoaster, making the customer feel like a hero who is saving his family, a warranty to arouse a sense of security and social proof.

### **III - Analysis of Communication Tools**

In this section, the object of analysis will be some of the communication materials mentioned above. The aim is to show how the company puts into practice the principles on which it bases its communication and its approach to the customer.

#### *1. Information and communication materials that accompany the product*

Together with the Analysis Kit that allows you to analyse the type of mould that a customer has at home, there are also a series of information materials based on the company's communication pillars.

Among these, we find an e-book called "Why are we different from the Others?" which in the structure is consistent with the emotional path chosen by the company.

Furthermore, through the e-book, it is easier to insert images, which, as seen in the previous chapter, are an important element as the brain processes them much faster than the text.

An example is the use of this image which depicts a happy family in-hero cloak. Even the colour of the cloaks is not random; indeed, they are red like the logo.



**Figure 15** BastaMuffa's Advertising Campaign Photo

In addition to all the product instructions, there are other small booklets, each with a specific topic that the company wants to emphasise in its communication strategy. Specifically, these topics are the history of other satisfied customers, other testimonies, details about the dangers that mould creates, and the company's history. Finally, in the information kit BastaMuffa has inserted a sheet depicting the warranty formatted as a certificate.

Figure 16 Contains the header of this certificate.



**Figure 16** Header of the BastaMuffa's guarantee certificate

Below are all the warranty instructions and other useful information regarding the subject in question.

Finally, just like every official document, there is the signature of the founder who personally provides the guarantee.



**Figure 17** Conclusion of the BastaMuffa's guarantee certificate

The company also shows consistency in the packaging of its product. There are all the supporting elements of the communication strategy in the design, including the happy family and the warranty.



**Figure 18** BastaMuffa's Packaging

## 2. Facebook Group

One of the main emotional marketing tools used by BastaMuffa and which falls into the category of related experiences, is the presence of a Facebook group. The latter has 4195 members who can interact and are invited to tell their mould experiences in general.

The testimonials featured here are then used in other materials, such as the mail funnel or blog.

The title "How to permanently eliminate mold with the BastaMuffa heroes" underlines that with BastaMuffa, the person will eliminate the problem completely, thus leading the customer to an imaginary ideal situation that they will have at the end of the entire purchase process. As shown in Figure 19, the client is described as a hero in both the title and the cover. In the same image, there is also the warranty logo.



## Come Eliminare Definitivamente La Muffa Con Gli Eroi di BastaMuffa

Gruppo Pubblico · 4195 membri

+ Invita

Figure 19 BastaMuffa's Facebook Group

### 3. Funnel Mail

Every time a customer purchases one of the product phases, a series of e-mails are sent to follow him through the application. Depending on the time required, the e-mails guide the customer by also providing video tutorials. They are then used as a reminder for the person who had bought but was not using the product.

Furthermore, following the same emotional pattern described above, the e-mails remember why the person is making the right choice in having chosen to rely on BastaMuffa, including, among other things, testimonies of satisfied people.

Then, step by step, the recipient is reminded of the final destination, i.e., the moment when the mould will disappear forever.

All the funnel mail follows the storytelling line of the hero's journey; the individual will defeat the enemy (mould) with the help of the mentor (product and company that follows him), becoming the hero of the story.

To achieve these goals, titles are very important. Here are some examples and the emotional purpose they have:

- "Just a bad memory", "You are one step away from the end... of mold!": They describe an ideal future situation in which the problem is solved, and consequently, the person feels positive feelings.
- "Step by step we go far": eliminating mould is like a journey, but for the final destination, it is worth it.
- "And health returns": remember that doing the treatment eliminates one of the consequences that create the most anguish, that is, health problems.
- "A Hero is Born": one of the latest titles glorifies the person who has achieved his goal.

At the writing level, one of the most important tactics used in e-mails is giving a say to the customer to try to involve him more.

Finally, through the use of bolds, the most important words are underlined and those that are most similar to the target's characteristics.

#### *4. E-book and Blog Articles*

BastaMuffa has created a series of E-books that people can download for free from the site or, where present, via a link contained in the e-mails received. In his blog, he publishes several informative articles divided into four main categories: how to get rid of mould, mould and health, mistakes not to make and BastaMuffa treatment.



The main purpose of these tools is to create awareness in the consumer whether he decides to buy.

The fact that there is no call to action pushing the purchase, but that the purpose is only to inform the customer makes the customer gain confidence in the company because he feels that he is interested in him and his health before wanting him to buy the product.

Here, too, the basic emotional path and all the supporting elements are respected even if they focus on a part of the specific problem.

### *5. Website*

In addition to following the usual basic scheme in its setting, the website contains sections dedicated to the information materials described above.

Its main purpose is not to sell the product itself, but through a path of awareness to lead the customer to carry out the free analysis, which is the first step of the treatment. Consequently, even in this case, the company remains consistent with the idea that it prioritises helping the customer against his "enemy".

## **IV - How the Framing and Emotional Marketing strategy influenced the company's performance**

Until 2017, the strategy did not include all this attention to the customer and the terms used in the communication. The change began when they relied on an external consultant who made the owner understand the importance of psychological profiling and implement a strategy that considers the target's levers and their needs, especially emotional ones.

BastaMuffa didn't introduce the various parts of the strategy described above immediately. Still, their gradual implementation has caused an increase in the number of customers, the closing rate, and the revenues over three years.

Below is the temporal evolution of the company's history and the introduction of the various tools mentioned above, followed by a summary table of the year's data and the relative variation from the previous year.

**2016 - October 2017:**

- The current system of products did not exist, but the company sold only some products through e-commerce.
- A direct relationship with the customer was not sought or created.
- The company did not profile the customer.
- The communication was product centered.
- There was an extreme corporate crisis that led the owner not to take his salary.

**Table 4** 2016 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis

YEAR	REVENUE
2016	160.000 €

**October 2017:** Meeting with the consultant

**November/December 2017:**

- Introduction of the Analysis Kit.
- Introduction of the customer questionnaire and data collection for its demographic and psychological profiling.
- Change in the framing strategy.

**Table 5** 2017 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis

YEAR	PRICE QUOTATION REQUESTS	ANNUAL ORDERS	REVENUE
2017	774	302	206.521 €
<b>Increase over the previous year</b>	Different product system	Different product system	29%

**2018:**

- Start of the strategy characterized by an approach to the customer aimed at following him, creating, among other things, the Facebook group.

- The guarantee was introduced.
- The copywriting contents did not yet follow the emotional pattern described above.

**Table 6** 2018 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis

<b>YEAR</b>	<b>PRICE QUOTATION REQUESTS</b>	<b>ANNUAL ORDERS</b>	<b>REVENUE</b>
<b>2018</b>	1020	916	291.317 €
<b>Increase over the previous year</b>	5%	203%	41%

**2019:**

- The guarantee was strengthened.
- The first contents of specialized copy began following the principles described above.

**Table 7** 2019 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis

<b>YEAR</b>	<b>PRICE QUOTATION REQUESTS</b>	<b>ANNUAL ORDERS</b>	<b>REVENUE</b>
<b>2019</b>	1702	1353	322.737 €
<b>Increase over the previous year</b>	80%	85%	11%

**2020:**

- Each content follows the emotional and psychological pattern.
- The company trained the Staff to follow the pattern also in calls.
- Increase in attention to customer attention and involvement. The customer and his needs are entirely at the center of the company's interest and its communication.
- The consistently coherent content always continues to increase, increasing the company's credibility.

**Table 8** 2020 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis

<b>YEAR</b>	<b>PRICE QUOTATION REQUESTS</b>	<b>ANNUAL ORDERS</b>	<b>REVENUE</b>
<b>2020</b>	2102	1702	397.631 €
<b>Increase over the previous year</b>	24%	24%	23%

Combining all these strategies and their strengthening led to a surplus of requests for quotations at the beginning of 2021, causing the need to employ new staff to manage possible new customers. BastaMuffa hired another 15 people, but with variable salaries.

Everyone learns by Paola, first of all, the psychological approach to the client, prompting them to ask questions and perceive the levers of the people they are approaching.

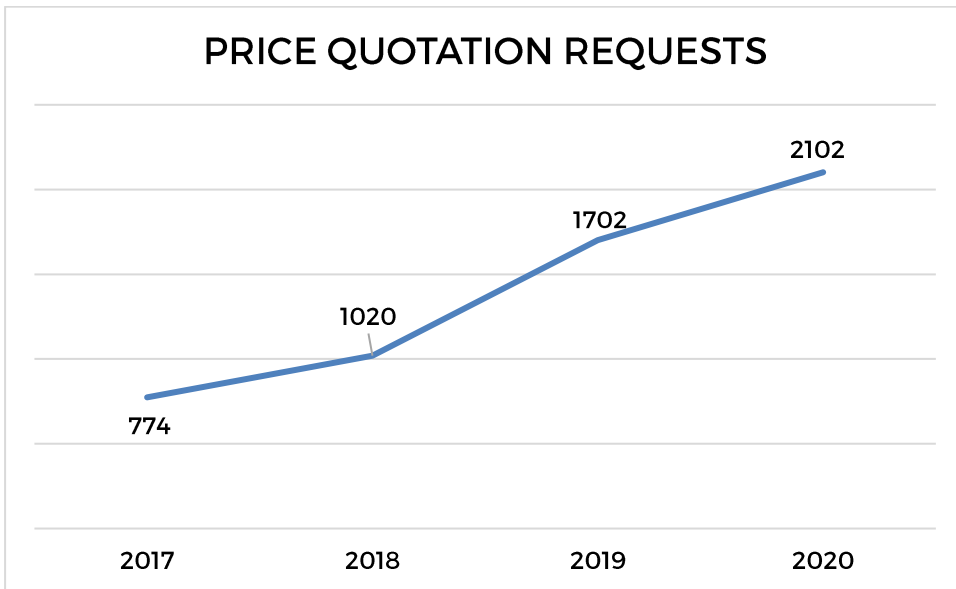
As you can see in Table 9, the number of requests is similar to those of other years reached throughout the year in just two months. Both sales and turnover in just two months are 1/3 or 1/2 of the previous year, with an ever-increasing possibility of growth.

**Table 9** First Bimester of 2021 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis

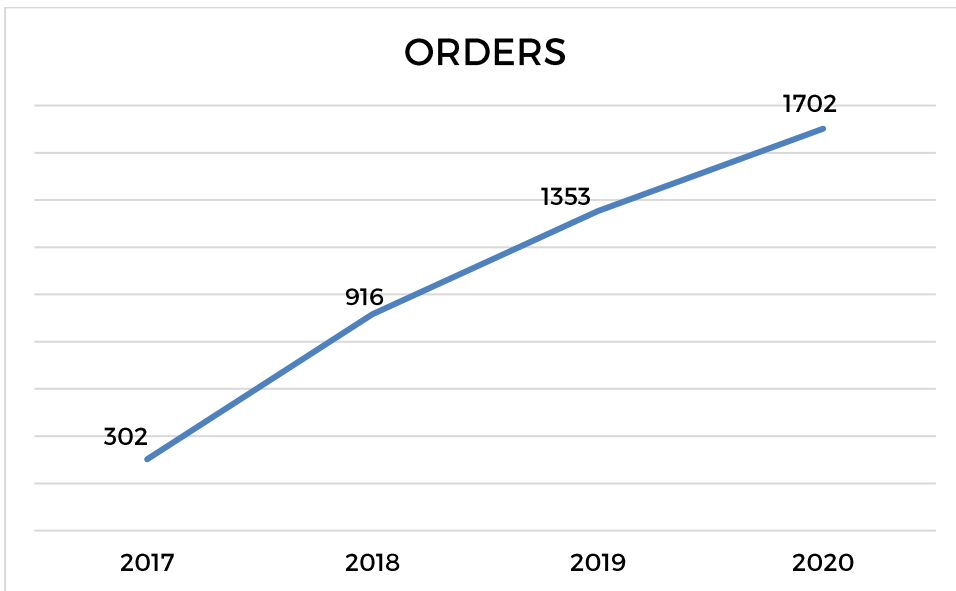
<b>YEAR</b>	<b>PRICE QUOTATION REQUESTS</b>	<b>ANNUAL ORDERS</b>	<b>REVENUE</b>
<b>First Bimester of 2021</b>	1807	645	176.000 €
<b>Increase over the previous year</b>	516%*	84%*	166%*

\* The percentage refers to the increment with respect the first bimester of 2020

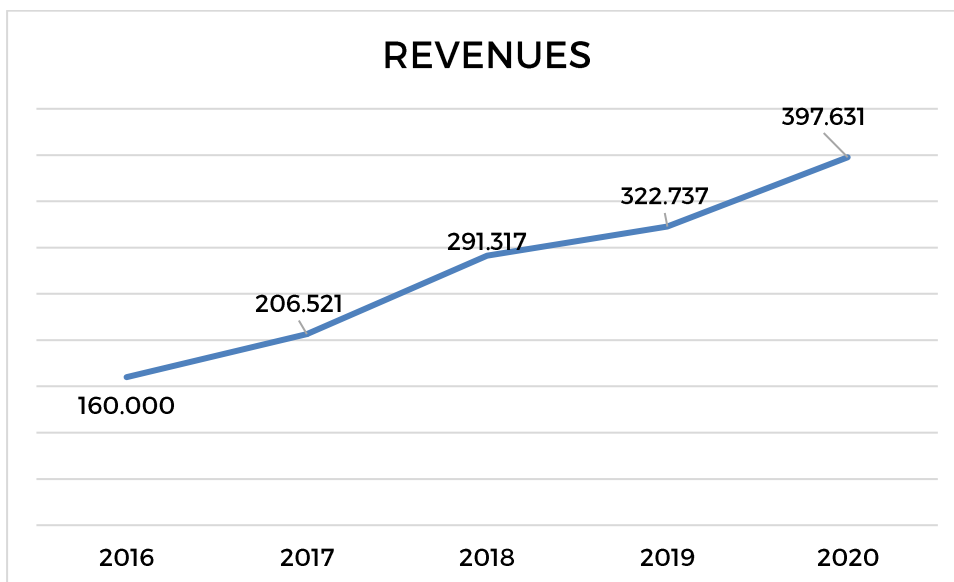
The subsequent graphs represent the evolution over the years of the three parameters to measure the business trend.



**Figure 20** BastaMuffa's Price Quotation Requests Trend



**Figure 21** BastaMuffa's Orders Trend



**Figure 22** BastaMuffa's Revenues Trend

It can be inferred that these three parameters' trend follows the gradual introduction of various specialized contents and ever-increasing attention to the customer.

Over time BastaMuffa has built and strengthened its relationship with the customer and has increased its credibility and consistency by following the same logical thread in its communication. Consequently, this has allowed her to have more and more evidence to support what has been said, thus strengthening social proof. Company performance data demonstrates this fact.

The adoption of a communication strategy to create an empathic relationship with the customer has caused an increase of the number of customers, the closing rate, and the revenues.

The company has always had distinctive characteristics relating to having a non-toxic product that eliminates the problem definitively; the only difference is that not knowing well the target and the approach to which it was more similar, he was unable to highlight them correctly.

In conclusion, we can say that understanding the target leads to being able to implement a strategy that, through the use of framing and emotional marketing techniques, allows first of all to create and then to enhance a positive relationship between consumer and company.

## V – Emotional Strategy Pattern

The consulting company that followed BastaMuffa in its change of management from a company called Efficacia Commerciale. Its main activity is that of business consultancy for small businesses. Its responsible name is Paola Aronne.

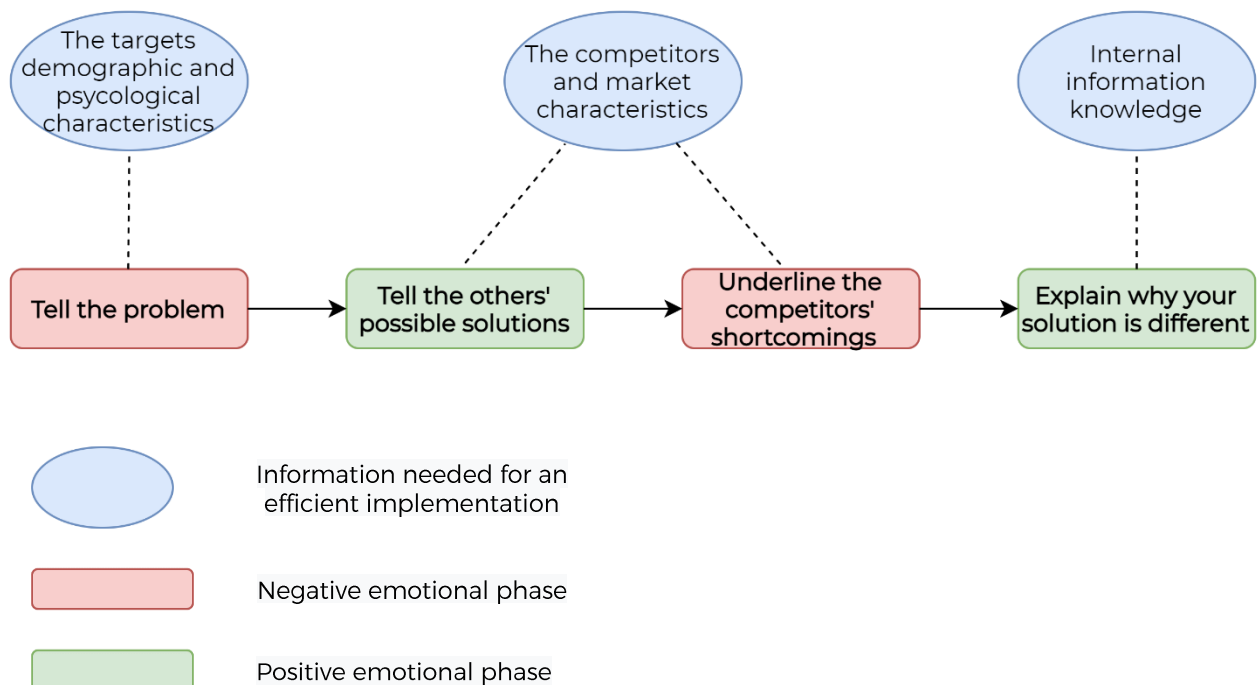
The latter is the first to use the techniques that it has transmitted to BastaMuffa regarding customer management.

I have personally worked with Efficacia Commerciale as a business consultant.

Entering directly into the dynamics of this company, I observed how the approach to the customer taught to BastaMuffa is the same one used by it.

In each material, such as price quotation or company’s presentation, we try to create the emotional roller coaster described above.

The Figure 23 summarizes it:



**Figure 23** Emotional Strategy Pattern

This pattern is a succession of short elicitation of emotions and fleeting emotional states. First, there is the anguish and fear of the problem, then the hope for a solution, then the feeling of loss of a solution resulting in new grief, finally, the sense of security

given by the company's alternative. In implementing this model, the use of the right words, therefore of framing, is crucial. As we have seen, each word or disposition of the sentence can lead to different mental accounts' activation with subsequent influence on decisions.

The important thing that emerges is that in order to implement this type of strategy, it is essential first to know the characteristics of the customer and his psychological levers, the features of the competitors and the market and finally have information on the internal business dynamics to understand how to be able to differentiate at best.



## **CHAPTER 6 - EXPERIMENT**

### **I - INTRODUCTION**

Efficacia Commerciale before implementing any strategy, first, it analyzes its target from a psychological point of view, trying to understand the best approach.

To this end, it carries out A/B tests for the campaigns it proposes to understand which ones can be more effective.

For this reason, it followed this approach to launch a webinar. The target had the opportunity to subscribe to the proposed content through a landing page. To understand if a landing page with positive goal framing was more effective in getting webinar attendees to sign up than one with negative goal framing, we created two versions of this material.

This framing is a goal one as the purpose of the two different landing pages is the same, namely, to register participants in the webinar. The difference between the two is that the positive one explains the advantages of signing up, while the negative one explains the disadvantages of not signing up.

I worked to organize and manage this launch together with the company's team.

### **II - EXPERIMENT STRUCTURE**

#### *1. Target*

The experiment target is composed by the managers of small businesses or freelancers between 35 and 50 years old.

Their company has the following characteristics:

- It has between 4 and 30 employees
- Invoice between 200,000 and € 3 million
- Has a product demanded in the market

The psychological characteristics of the person who runs the company and his "pain" are:

- He wants to expand and not standstill
- He sees the potential in his own company but is constantly held back by suppliers, employees, and customers, as well as by unfavourable changes in the market
- He wants to have an action plan for growth
- He does not want to throw his money into business marketers that may not work
- He is dissatisfied with the low conversion or repurchase rate of the deals they conduct.

The launch involved a lists of people who had participated in business events previously organized by Efficacia Commerciale's owner named Paola. Therefore, there is a component of personal involvement with the company.

## *2. Landing Pages Structure*

In addition to words with a more negative or positive meaning depending on the landing type, framing starts from the most crucial text's part: the title.

The two versions are:

### *a. Positive Framing*

Do you want to quickly grow and protect yourself from the changing market at the speed of light, closing more deals in less time? In this webinar I'll show you how to leverage the same data that Amazon uses to achieve these results!

Italian Version: Vuoi crescere velocemente e proteggerti del mercato che cambia alla velocità della luce, chiudendo più trattative in meno tempo? In questo webinar ti faccio vedere come sfruttare gli stessi dati che usa Amazon per raggiungere questi risultati!

### b. Negative Framing

Are you tired of standing still and being crushed by the changing market at lightning speed? In this webinar, I'll show you how to use the same data that Amazon uses to avoid this danger!

Italian version: Sei stanco di rimanere fermo e farti schiacciare dal mercato che cambia alla velocità della luce? In questo webinar ti faccio vedere come sfruttare gli stessi dati che usa Amazon per evitare questo pericolo!

We want to emphasize the same, except that the writer made the person imagine a favourable situation in the first variant. In contrast, the second emphasizes the current situation and the pain.

After this title, the text envisaged the use of the imagery technique described in chapter four to make the customer see an imaginary situation in which he will obtain the same results that BastaMuffa achieved.

Another crucial sentence that has a different framing is the one that precedes the call to action, that is the webinar registration button:

### a. Positive Framing

"By attending the webinar, you will then understand what data is vital to take control of your company and how to exploit Amazon's secrets. Negotiations will be shorter, customers will feel heard and understood, and the closing rate will also increase. Dozens of entrepreneurs have already experienced these benefits firsthand, and now it's your turn!"

Italian Version: Partecipando al webinar capirai quindi quali dati sono vitali per avere il controllo della tua azienda, e come sfruttare i segreti di Amazon. Le trattative saranno più corte, i clienti si sentiranno ascoltati e capiti, e aumenterà anche il tasso di chiusura.

Sono decine gli imprenditori che hanno già toccato con mano questi benefici, e ora tocca a te!

## b. Negative Framing

"If you decide not to attend the webinar, I wish you the best for your business, but I must warn you that you will always have a hard time understanding customers. They will all seem mangy, you won't be able to build empathy quickly, and your close rates will stay the same.

You will waste a lot of time trying to understand who you are in front of, and you will not give yourself explanations on why so many do not buy. "

Italian Version: Se deciderai di non partecipare al webinar, ti auguro il meglio per la tua attività, ma ti devo mettere in guardia che farai sempre fatica a capire i clienti. Ti sembreranno tutti rognosi, non riuscirai a creare empatia velocemente e i tuoi tassi di chiusura rimarranno identici.

Sprecherai moltissimo tempo per cercare di capire chi hai di fronte, e non ti darai spiegazioni sul perché tanti non comprano.

The first version of the text underlines the reasons why it is convenient to participate in the webinar. The second one highlights the disadvantages of not carrying out this action.

Therefore, in the first case, the aim is to reinforce the image of an ideal situation that they imagined during the landing.

In the second, however, the aim is to trigger the loss aversion in the participants, relying on the fear of losing that imaginary situation.

## 3. Hypothesis

H0: The landing with the negative frame will have a higher closing rate

According to the general theory of goal framing, the negative one should have more effect as it triggers in people.

H1: The landing with the positive frame will have a higher closing rate

### III - RESULTS

**Table 10** Experiment's Results

	<b>POSITIVE FRAME</b>	<b>NEGATIVE FRAME</b>
<b>LANDING VISUALIZATIONS</b>	61	49
<b>WEBINAR</b>	11	8
<b>ENROLLMENT RATE</b>	18%	17%

The study considered only the data of people that, considering the average reading time, came to read the most important parts that had a different framing.

The negative version's conversion rate (18.03%) is 10.45% lower than that of the positive version (16.33%), but it is not possible to say with 95% confidence that the first variant will perform worse than the second one since the p-value is 0.4066.

As a consequence, despite the conversion rate of the positive version is slightly higher than that of the other, it is not enough to state that it converts more.

### IV - CONCLUSIONS

As an explanation of the lack of significance of the differences between the two means, we can consider the factor of personal involvement. As seen in chapter 3, the evidence of goal framing's effectiveness in marketing is still uncertain, and one of the determining factors is involvement.

People knew Paola for the success of the events mentioned above.

Consequently, it can be assumed that the involvement reduces the effects of psychological techniques.

Still, in the field of involvement, there was not only the personal one but also with the issue itself. In fact, the webinar topic involves the recipients on an emotional level as it is a topic that concerns their company, in which they have invested money and time.

As we saw in chapter 1, the more the argument is essential to the person, the more they actively seek information, thus decreasing the framing effect.

Besides, despite not having direct experience with this specific product, the participants of the experiment have it with some consultations at events proposed by Paola. As a result, they knew his business consulting skills. As seen in the first chapter, the experience with the product is one factor that influences the decrease of the framing effect, even if it concerns having tried another type of consultancy carried out by the same person protagonist of the webinar.

The implications for those who decide on marketing and promotion strategies are linked to the awareness that the more people will be involved with the company or with the person who directs it, the more they will rely on it. Consequently, investing time and resources in creating an empathic relationship, also using the emotional marketing methods described above, with possible or already acquired customers can be a winning strategy. This approach will lead people to respond more actively to proposed campaigns.

## **V – FUTHER RESEARCH**

The framing effect's topic has aroused and certainly deserves great attention for research, as it is a fundamental part of human communication. For future economic analysis, it would be interesting to bring examples of other companies and their approach to communication strategies using different wording versions. Not only that but being able to analyze in other areas of real life could also prove to be an opportunity to increase knowledge on the subject.

The laboratory experiments are undoubtedly interesting and certainly more effective from certain points of view, but having a perspective of what happens in real life could be a good starting point for further research.

## CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, we can assert that when a subject faces a decision, irrational mechanisms guide his choice.

This paper aimed to analyze two elements of this irrationality, which is also composed of many other factors.

Words used and emotions influence decision-making processes in many areas, especially including the area of economic choices.

Consequently, the implications of this paper for those involved in marketing and communication strategies are manifold.

First of all, it is important to define a communication strategy for it to be effective. If the operations don't follow a precise scheme, there is a risk of making positioning errors that would only waste company resources.

To define a suitable strategy for the company, you must first make an internal analysis of your strengths and weaknesses. Those who deal with corporate strategy must then analyze the external context, including the competitors and the chosen target.

Concerning this segment, we need to develop some awareness.

First of all, we must remember the concept that people mostly do not choose rationally. Furthermore, every company must consider that people have different psychological characteristics, which can be enclosed in subgroups. Going to identify these attributes in your target can become a winning strategy in order to use the right levers.

People like to feel at the centre and pampered by a company, so that this causes them a good memory and, therefore, a high probability of product repurchasing.

This paper analyzed only two of the various factors that influence human decisions, but there are many others, all interrelated.

Understanding that they exist and starting to realize them can also have value for consumers who can begin to pay more attention when deciding something.

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

I want to thank my mom and my sister, that have always supported me in all my choices by giving me strength.

Thanks to all my closest friends who have endured and supported me over the years, helping me in the most challenging times.

Finally, a special thank you goes to the Commercial Effectiveness Team, whose interviews helped teach me how to apply my studies in the world of Italian business and encouraged me to believe in myself.

Last but not least, thank you to my professor that supported me in this thesis path.



## INDEX OF FIGURES

<b>Figure 1</b> Prospect Theory ( <a href="https://www.economicshelp.org/blog/glossary/prospect-theory/">https://www.economicshelp.org/blog/glossary/prospect-theory/</a> ).....	21
<b>Figure 2</b> Levin’s Scale Experiment (Levin, 1987) .....	23
<b>Figure 3</b> Webpage structure (Lin & Yang, 2014) .....	39
<b>Figure 4</b> Plutchik’ Emotions Wheel ( <a href="https://www.mandala.click/2018/06/02/mandalaemozioniplutchik/">https://www.mandala.click/2018/06/02/mandalaemozioniplutchik/</a> ).....	58
<b>Figure 5</b> The Affect Integrated Model of Decision-making (AIMD) (Lerner et al., 2014) .....	65
<b>Figure 6</b> The Mind of Market ( <a href="https://media.imaxws.com/912/howcustomersthink.pdf">https://media.imaxws.com/912/howcustomersthink.pdf</a> ).....	76
<b>Figure 7</b> Muller’s advertising campaign ( <a href="https://www.muller.co.uk/">https://www.muller.co.uk/</a> ) .....	80
<b>Figure 8</b> Carpisa’s Advertisign Campaign <a href="https://endelab.com/il-marketing-esperienziale-sense-feel-think-act-relate/">https://endelab.com/il-marketing-esperienziale-sense-feel-think-act-relate/</a> .....	81
<b>Figure 9</b> Nike’s Advertising Campaign ( <a href="https://www.thedrum.com/creative-works/project/wieden-kennedy-portland-nike-dream-crazier">https://www.thedrum.com/creative-works/project/wieden-kennedy-portland-nike-dream-crazier</a> ).....	82
<b>Figure 10</b> People in front of an Apple Store ( <a href="https://www.neurosciencemarketing.com/blog/articles/positive-framing.htm">https://www.neurosciencemarketing.com/blog/articles/positive-framing.htm</a> <a href="https://endelab.com/il-marketing-esperienziale-sense-feel-think-act-relate/">s://endelab.com/il-marketing-esperienziale-sense-feel-think-act-relate/</a> ) .....	83
<b>Figure 11</b> Buyer Personas Template ( <a href="https://exelab.com/domande-per-creare-buyer-personas/">https://exelab.com/domande-per-creare-buyer-personas/</a> ) .....	85
<b>Figure 12</b> Color Emotion Guide ( <a href="https://www.pinterest.it/pin/67905906854277635/">https://www.pinterest.it/pin/67905906854277635/</a> ) .....	89
<b>Figure 13</b> McDonald’s logo changement ( <a href="https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/The-new-logo-of-McDonald's-I'm-lovin'-it-The-of-vs.-Bouwman/cf1d55980ebd71cf0b4c1948ddb33b8401f50fa6/figure/2">https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/The-new-logo-of-McDonald's-I'm-lovin'-it-The-of-vs.-Bouwman/cf1d55980ebd71cf0b4c1948ddb33b8401f50fa6/figure/2</a> ) ..	89
<b>Figure 14</b> BastaMuffa’s Survey Results .....	95
<b>Figure 15</b> BastaMuffa's Advertising Campaign Photo .....	101
<b>Figure 16</b> Header of the BastaMuffa’s guarantee certificate.....	101
<b>Figure 17</b> Conclusion of the BastaMuffa’s guarantee certificate .....	102
<b>Figure 18</b> BastaMuffa’s Packaging.....	102
<b>Figure 19</b> BastaMuffa’s Facebook Group .....	103
<b>Figure 20</b> BastaMuffa’s Price Quotation Requests Trend.....	109
<b>Figure 21</b> BastaMuffa’s Orders Trend.....	109
<b>Figure 22</b> BastaMuffa’s Revenues Trend .....	110
<b>Figure 23</b> Emotional Strategy Pattern .....	111

## INDEX OF TABLES

<b>Table 1</b> Tversky and Khaneman's Experiment Results (Tversky & Khaneman, 1981).....	11
<b>Table 2</b> Human's Risk Propensity .....	19
<b>Table 3</b> Allard et al. Experiment's Results (Allard et al., 2019).....	48
<b>Table 4</b> 2016 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis.....	106
<b>Table 5</b> 2017 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis.....	106
<b>Table 6</b> 2018 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis.....	107
<b>Table 7</b> 2019 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis.....	107
<b>Table 8</b> 2020 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis.....	108
<b>Table 9</b> First Bimester of 2021 - BastaMuffa's Performance Analysis .....	108
<b>Table 10</b> Experiment's Results.....	117

## **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

Adam, Carole. (2007). Emotions: from psychological theories to logical formalization and implementation in a BDI agent.

Allard, Thomas & Hardisty, David & Griffin, Dale. (2019). When “More” Seems Like Less: Differential Price Framing Increases the Choice Share of Higher-Priced Options. *Journal of Marketing Research*. 56. 002224371985149. 10.1177/0022243719851490.

Amir, Dan & Ariely, Ravi & Dhar, Shane & Frederick, Joel & Huber, Rebecca & Ratner, Klaus & Werten, & Novemsky, Nathan & Kahneman, Daniel. (2005). The boundaries of loss aversion. *Journal of Marketing Research*. XLII. 119-128.

Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1981). The framing of decisions and the psychology of choice. *Science*, 211(4481), 453–458. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.7455683>

Amos Tversky, Daniel Kahneman, Rational Choice and the Framing of Decisions, *The Journal of Business*, Vol. 59, No. 4, Part 2: The Behavioral Foundations of Economic Theory. (Oct. 1986), pp. S251-S278.

Amunts K, Kedo O, Kindler M, Pieperhoff P, Mohlberg H, Shah NJ, Habel U, Schneider F, Zilles K (December 2005). "Cytoarchitectonic mapping of the human amygdala, hippocampal region and entorhinal cortex: intersubject variability and probability maps". *Anatomy and Embryology*. 210 (5–6): 343–52. doi:10.1007/s00429-005-0025-5. PMID 16208455. S2CID 6984617.

Ananish Chaudhuri, Yaxiong Li, Tirnud Paichayontvijit, (2016) What’s in a frame? Goal framing, trust and reciprocity, *Journal of Economic Psychology*, Volume 57, Pages 117-135, ISSN 0167-4870, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joep.2016.09.005>.

Arias, J. A., Williams, C., Raghvani, R., Aghajani, M., Baez, S., Belzung, C., Booij, L., Busatto, G., Chiarella, J., Fu, C. H., Ibanez, A., Liddell, B. J., Lowe, L., Penninx, B., Rosa, P., & Kemp, A. H. (2020). The neuroscience of sadness: A multidisciplinary synthesis and collaborative review. *Neuroscience and biobehavioral reviews*, 111, 199–228. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2020.01.006>

Armony, Jorge, ed. (2013). The Cambridge handbook of human affective neuroscience (1. publ. ed.). Cambridge [u.a.]: Cambridge Univ. Press. pp. 421, 29 and 616. ISBN 978-0-521-17155-7.

Arowolo, Sunday. (2017). UNDERSTANDING FRAMING THEORY. 10.13140/RG.2.2.25800.52482.

Barron, Greg & Erev, Ido. (2003). Small Feedback-based Decisions and Their Limited Correspondence to Description-based Decisions. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making - J BEHAV DECIS MAKING*. 16. 215-233. 10.1002/bdm.443.

Bazerman, M. H. (2009). *Judgment in managerial decision making*. New York: Wiley. 7ed.

Beggan, J. K. (1992). On the social nature of nonsocial perception: The mere ownership effect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62(2), 229–237. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.62.2.229>

Belch, G. E., & Belch, M. A. (2004). *Advertising and promotion: An integrated marketing communications perspective*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Ben Hunt (2011) *Convert! Designing Web Sites to Increase Traffic and Conversion* pp. 49-64 <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118255827.ch4>

Bouchouicha, Ranoua & Deer, Lachlan & Eid, Ashraf & Mcgee, Peter & Schoch, Daniel & Stojic, Hrvoje & Ygosse-Battisti, Jolanda & Vieider, Ferdinand. (2019). Gender Effects for Loss Aversion: Yes, No, Maybe? *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty*. 59. 10.1007/s11166-019-09315-3.

Bradley, M. M. & Lang, P. J. (2007). *The International Affective Digitized Sounds (2nd Edition; IADS-2): Affective ratings of sounds and instruction manual*. Technical report B-3. University of Florida, Gainesville, Fl.

Bruner, G. (1990). Music, Mood, and Marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 54(4), 94-104. doi:10.2307/1251762

Cabanac, Michel. (2002). What is emotion? Behavioural processes. 60. 69-83. 10.1016/S0376-6357(02)00078-5.

Carmon, Z., Wertenbroch, K., & Zeelenberg, M. (2003). Option Attachment: When Deliberating Makes Choosing Feel like Losing. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30(1), 15–29. <https://doi.org/10.1086/374701>

Cassotti, M., Habib, M., Poirel, N., Aïte, A., Houdé, O., & Moutier, S. (2012). Positive emotional context eliminates the framing effect in decision-making. *Emotion*, 12(5), 926–931. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026788>

Causse J., (2015). *Lo stupefacente potere dei colori*. 1° ed. Milano: Ponte alle Grazie.

Chaiken, S. (1980). Heuristic versus systematic information processing and the use of source versus message cues in persuasion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39, 752-766.

CHANG W.L., LIN H.L., (2010). The impact of color traits on corporate branding. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(15), pp.3344-3355.

Chang, Chingching. (2008). Ad framing effects for consumption products: An affect priming process. *Psychology and Marketing*. 25. 24 - 46. 10.1002/mar.20199.

Chang, W., & Lin, H. (2010). The impact of color traits on corporate branding. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4, 3344-3355.

Chen, S.-F. S., Monroe, K. B., & Lou, Y.-C. (1998). The effects of framing price promotion messages on consumers' perceptions and purchase intentions. *Journal of Retailing*, 74(3), 353–372. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359\(99\)80100-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359(99)80100-6)

Chris Vogler, *Il viaggio dell'eroe*, Dino Audino, Roma

Cryder, C. E., Lerner, J. S., Gross, J. J., & Dahl, R. E. (2007). The material self: Sadness, selffocus, and spending. Working paper.

Dalgleish, T. (2004). "The emotional brain". *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*. 5 (7): 583–9. doi:10.1038/nrn1432

Damasio, A.R. (1994). *Descartes' Error: Emotion, Reason, and the Human Brain*. Avon Books New York.

Damasio, A.R., Tranel, D. & Damasio, H. (1991). "Somatic markers and the guidance of behaviour: theory and preliminary testing" (pp. 217–229). In H.S. Levin, H.M. Eisenberg & A.L. Benton (Eds.). *Frontal lobe function and dysfunction*. New York: Oxford University Press

De Martino, B., Kumaran, D., Seymour, B., & Dolan, R. J. (2006). Frames, biases, and rational decision-making in the human brain. *Science (New York, N.Y.)*, 313(5787), 684–687. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1128356>

De Neys, W. (2006). Dual processing in reasoning: Two systems but one reasoner. *Psychological Science*, 17, 428 – 433. doi:10.1111/j.1467- 9280.2006.01723.x

Dhar, R., & Wertenbroch, K. (2000). Consumer Choice between Hedonic and Utilitarian Goods. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37(1), 60–71. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkr.37.1.60.18718>

Donald Calne (2010). "Within Reason: Rationality and Human Behavior", p.253, Vintage.

Druckman, J. (2001). Using Credible Advice to Overcome Framing Effects. *Journal of Law Economics & Organization*, 17, 62-82.

Dunn, B. D. Dalglish, T. & Lawrence, A. D., 2006. The somatic marker hypothesis: A critical evaluation. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, 30, pp. 239–271.

Ekman, P. (1992). Are there basic emotions? *Psychological Review*, 99(3), 550–553. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.99.3.550>

Ekman, P. (1999). Basic emotions. In T. Dalglish & M. J. Power (Eds.), *Handbook of cognition and emotion* (p. 45–60). John Wiley & Sons Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/0470013494.ch3>

Epley, N., Mak, D. and Idson, L.C. (2006) Bonus of Rebate: The Impact of Income Framing on Spending and Saving. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 19, 213-227. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/bdm.519>

Ferraresi M, Schmitt B. H., (2006), *Marketing esperienziale, come sviluppare l'esperienza di consumo*. Milano, F. Angeli

Fischer, Hakan; C. Wright; Whalen, Paul J; McInerney, Sean C; Shin, Lisa M; Rauch, Scott L (2002). "Brain habituation during repeated exposure to fearful and neutral faces: a functional MRI study". *Brain Research Bulletin*. 59 (5): 387-92. doi:10.1016/s0361-9230(02)00940-1

Frederick, S., Loewenstein, G., & O'Donoghue, T. (2002). Time Discounting and Time Preference: A Critical Review. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 40(2), 351-401. Retrieved January 5, 2021, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2698382>

Fu, Lisha & Yu, Junjie & Ni, Shiguang & Li, Hong. (2018). Reduced framing effect: Experience adjusts affective forecasting with losses. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*. 76. 231-238. 10.1016/j.jesp.2018.02.006.

Gál, Peter. (2018). Marketing Implications of Framing in the Decision-Making. *Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis*. 66. 1267-1273. 10.11118/actaun201866051267.

Gallucci F. (2005). *Il marketing emozionale*. Egea, Milano.

Ganzach, Y., & Karsahi, N. (1995). Message framing and buying behavior: A field experiment. *Journal of Business Research*, 32, 11-17.

Garcia-Retamero, R., & Galesic, M. (2010). How to reduce the effect of framing on messages about health. *Journal of general internal medicine*, 25(12), 1323-1329. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11606-010-1484-9>

Graham, Michael C. (2014). *Facts of Life: ten issues of contentment*. Outskirts Press. pp. 6-10. ISBN 978-1-4787-2259-5.

Grewal, D., Gotlieb, J., & Marmorstein, H. (1994). The moderating effects of message framing and source credibility on the price-perceived risk relationship. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21, 145–153.

Grewal, Dhruv and Howard Marmorstein. (1994). "Market Price Variation, Perceived Price Variation and Consumers' Price Search Decisions for Durable Goods," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21 (December): 452-460.

Gross, J., & Levenson, R. (1995). Emotion elicitation using films. *Cognition & Emotion*, 9, 87–108.

Dan Ariely, Jason Hreha, Kristen Berman Hacking (2014). *Human Nature for Good: A Practical Guide to Changing Human Behavior*; Irrationality Labs

Hartman, Raymond S.; Chi-Keung Woo (1991). "Consumer Rationality and the Status Quo". *Quarterly Journal of Economics*. 106 (1): 141–162.

Hau, R., Pleskac, T. J., & Hertwig, R. (2010). Decisions from experience and statistical probabilities: Why they trigger different choices than a priori probabilities. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 23(1), 48–68. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bdm.665>

Hertwig, Ralph & Erev, Ido. (2009). The Description–Experience gap in risky choice. *Trends in cognitive sciences*. 13. 517-23. 10.1016/j.tics.2009.09.004.

Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist*, 52(12), 1280–1300. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.52.12.1280>

Higgins, E. T. (2002). How self-regulation creates distinct values: The case of promotion and prevention decision making. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 12(3), 177–191.

Homer, P. M., & Yoon, S.-G. (1992). Message framing and the interrelationships among ad-based feelings, affect, and cognition. *Journal of Advertising*, XXI, 19–32.

Hunt, R. & Lamb, CA. (2001). What Causes the Isolation Effect? *Journal of experimental psychology. Learning, memory, and cognition*. 27. 1359-66. 10.1037/0278-7393.27.6.1359.



Idson, L. C., Liberman, N., & Higgins, E. T. (2000). Distinguishing gains for nonlosses and losses from nongains: A regulatory focus perspective on hedonic intensity. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 36(3), 252–274.

Inman, J. & McAlister, Leigh & Hoyer, Wayne. (1990). Promotion Signal: Proxy for a Price Cut? *Journal of Consumer Research*. 17. 74-81. 10.1086/208538.

J., Meghana & George, Rinju. (2019). Happiness and Decision Making - An Experimental Study.

Jarad, Ghayth. (2020). Application of the 4Cs marketing mix in the digital environment. *International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation*. 24. 2113-2122.

Jellesma, F.C.; Vingerhoets, Ad J.J.M. (1 January 2012). "Crying in Middle Childhood: A Report on Gender Differences". *Sex Roles*. 67 (7): 412–21. doi:10.1007/s11199-012-0136-4. PMC 3432210. PMID 22962516

Johnson, Eric & Gachter, Simon & Herrmann, Andreas. (2006). Exploring the Nature of Loss Aversion. Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA), IZA Discussion Papers.

Jou, J., Shanteau, J., & Harris, R. J. (1996). An information processing view of framing effects: The role of causal schemas in decision making. *Memory & Cognition*, 24(1), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03197268>

Kahneman, Daniel, 1934- author. (2011). *Thinking, fast and slow*. New York :Farrar, Straus and Giroux,

Kahneman, Daniel & Tversky, Amos, (1979). Prospect Theory: An Analysis of Decision under Risk, *Econometrica*, Econometric Society, vol. 47(2), pages 263-291, March.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (Eds.). (2000). *Choices, values, and frames*. Cambridge University Press.

Kahneman, Daniel; Knetsch, Jack L.; Thaler, Richard H. (1990). "Experimental Tests of the Endowment Effect and the Coase Theorem". *Journal of Political Economy*. 98 (6): 1325–1348. doi:10.1086/261737. JSTOR 2937761. S2CID 154889372.

Keltner, D., & Lerner, J.S. (2010). Emotion. In S.T. Fiske, D.T. Gilbert, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *Handbook of social psychology*, pp. 317-352.

Knetsch, Jack & Thaler, Richard. (1991). The Endowment Effect, Loss Aversion, and Status Quo Bias. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*. 5. 193-206. 10.1257/jep.5.1.193.

Korn, C.W., Ries, J., Schalk, L. et al. (2018). A hard-to-read font reduces the framing effect in a large sample. *Psychon Bull Rev* 25, 696–703. <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13423-017-1395-4>

Kuvaas, Bård & Selart, Marcus. (2013). Effects of Attribute Framing on Cognitive Processing and Evaluation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*. 95. 198-207. 10.1016/j.obhdp.2004.08.001.

Lamb, Charles; Hair, Joseph; McDaniel, Carl (2016). *Principles of Marketing*. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning. ISBN 978-1-285-86014-5.

Lang, P.J., Bradley, M.M., & Cuthbert, B.N. (2008). International affective picture system (IAPS): Affective ratings of pictures and instruction manual. Technical Report A-8. University of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Ledoux, J.E (1995). "Emotion: clues from the brain". *Annual Review of Psychology*. 46: 209–35. doi:10.1146/annurev.ps.46.020195.001233

Lench, Heather & Flores, Sarah & Bench, Shane. (2011). Discrete Emotions Predict Changes in Cognition, Judgment, Experience, Behavior, and Physiology: A Meta-Analysis of Experimental Emotion Elicitations. *Psychological bulletin*. 137. 834-55. 10.1037/a0024244.

Lerner, J. S., & Keltner, D. (2000). Beyond valence: Toward a model of emotion-specific influences on judgement and choice. *Cognition and Emotion*, 14(4), 473–493.

Lerner, J. S., & Keltner, D. (2001). Fear, anger, and risk. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81(1), 146–159.

Lerner, J. S., & Tiedens, L. Z. (2006). Portrait of the angry decision maker: How appraisal tendencies shape anger's influence on cognition. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 19, 115–137.

Lerner, J. S., Small, D. A., & Loewenstein, G. (2004). Heart strings and purse strings: Carryover effects of emotions on economic transactions. *Psychological Science*, 15(5), 337–341.

Lerner, Jennifer & Li, Ye & Valdesolo, Piercarlo & Kassam, Karim. (2014). Emotion and Decision Making. *Annual review of psychology*. 66. 10.1146/annurev-psych-010213-115043.

Levin, I. P., Schneider, S. L., & Gaeth, G. J. (1998). All frames are not created equal: A typology and critical analysis of framing effects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 76, 149–188

Levin, I. P., Schnittjer, S. K., & Thee, S. L. (1988). Information framing effects in social and personal decisions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 24, 520–529.

Levin, Irwin & Gaeth, Gary. (1988). How Consumers Are Affected by the Framing of Attribute Information Before and After Consuming the Product. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 15. 374-78. 10.1086/209174.

Levin, Irwin. (1987). Associative effects of information framing. *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society*. 25. 85-86. 10.3758/BF03330291.

Levy, J. (1992). An Introduction to Prospect Theory. *Political Psychology*, 13(2), 171-186.

Li, X., Jain, S.S., Shen, Y.A. et al. (2020). Power and Message Framing: the Case of Comparative Advertising. *Cust. Need. and Solut.*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40547-020-00110-9>

Lieberman, Matthew. (2003). Reflexive and Reflective Judgment Processes: A Social Cognitive Neuroscience Approach Approach. *Social Judgments: Implicit and Explicit Processes*.

Lin, H. and Yang, S. (2014). An eye movement study of attribute framing in online shopping. *J Market Anal*, 2(2), pp.72-80.

Lindenberg, S. & Foss, N. J. (2011). Managing joint production motivation: The role of goal framing and governance mechanisms, *The Academy of Management Review*, 36(3), 500-525.

Lindenberg, Siegwart & Steg, Linda. (2007). Normative, Gain and Hedonic Goal Frames Guiding Environmental Behavior. *Journal of Social Issues*. 63. 10.1111/j.1540-4560.2007.00499.x.

Lindenberg, Siegwart. (2001). Social Rationality versus Rational Egoism. 10.1007/0-387-36274-6\_29.

Loewenstein, G., & Lerner, J. S. (2003). The role of affect in decision making. In R. J. Davidson, K. R. Scherer, & H. H. Goldsmith (Eds.), *Series in affective science. Handbook of affective sciences* (p. 619–642). Oxford University Press.

Loewenstein, G., Weber, E. U., Hsee, C. K., & Welch, N. (2001). Risk as feelings. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 267–286.

Luce, R.D. and Raiffa, H. (1957) *Games and Decisions*. Wiley, New York.

Lunsingh Tonckens, Nicolette. (2017). Loftus and Palmer (1974): Reconstruction of Automobile Destruction. 10.13140/RG.2.2.32782.79684.

Maheswaran, D., & Meyers-Levy, J. (1990). The Influence of Message Framing and Issue Involvement. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 27(3), 361-367. doi:10.2307/3172593

Marquis Lionel. (2015). Priming. 10.1002/9781118541555.wbiepc069.

Marteau, T. M. (1989). Framing of information: Its influence upon decisions of doctors and patients. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 28(1), 89–94. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8309.1989.tb00849.x>

McCarthy, E. J. (1964). *Basic marketing: A managerial approach*. Homewood, Ill: Richard D. Irwin.

Mellers, B. A., & McGraw, A. P. (2001). Anticipated Emotions as Guides to Choice. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 10(6), 210–214. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.00151>

Meyerowitz, B. E., & Chaiken, S. (1987). The effect of message framing on breast self-examination attitudes, intentions, and behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(3), 500–510. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.52.3.500>

Mogilner, Cassie & Kamvar, Sepandar. (2011). How Happiness Affects Choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 39. 10.2139/ssrn.1952193.

Murch, K. B., & Krawczyk, D. C. (2014). A neuroimaging investigation of attribute framing and individual differences. *Social cognitive and affective neuroscience*, 9(10), 1464–1471. <https://doi.org/10.1093/scan/nst140>

Nabi, R. L. (2003). Exploring the Framing Effects of Emotion: Do Discrete Emotions Differentially Influence Information Accessibility, Information Seeking, and Policy Preference? *Communication Research*, 30(2), 224–247. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0093650202250881>

Nabi, R. L., Walter, N., Oshidary, N., Endacott, C. G., Love-Nichols, J., Lew, Z. J., & Aune, A. (2020). Can Emotions Capture the Elusive Gain-Loss Framing Effect? A Meta-Analysis. *Communication Research*, 47(8), 1107–1130. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0093650219861256>

Nicholas J. Webb. (2016). *What Customers Crave: How to Create Relevant and Memorable Experiences at Every Touchpoint*. Brilliance Audio.

Parthasarathy Krishnamurthy, Patrick Carter, Edward Blair, (2001), Attribute Framing and Goal Framing Effects in Health Decisions, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, Volume 85, Issue 2, Pages 382-399, ISSN 0749-5978, <https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.2001.2962>.

Peri C., 2014. *Meditazione sui colori*. Milano: Anima Edizioni.

Pervan, Simon & Vocino, Andrea. (2008). Message framing: Keeping practitioners in the picture. Graduate College of Management Papers. 26. 10.1108/02634500810902875.

Pfister, H.R., & Böhm, G. (2008). The multiplicity of emotions: A framework of emotional functions in decision making. *Judgment and decision making*, 3(1), 5-17.

Plutchik, R. (2001). The Nature of Emotions: Human emotions have deep evolutionary roots, a fact that may explain their complexity and provide tools for clinical practice. *American Scientist*, 89(4), 344-350. Retrieved March 23, 2021, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/27857503>

Raghunathan, R., & Pham, M. T. (1999). All Negative Moods Are Not Equal: Motivational Influences of Anxiety and Sadness on Decision Making. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 79(1), 56-77. <https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1999.2838>

Ramachandran, Vilayanur & Miller, Luke & Livingstone, Margaret & Brang, David. (2011). Colored halos around faces and emotion-evoked colors: A new form of synesthesia. *Neurocase*. 18. 352-8. 10.1080/13554794.2011.608366.

Rau, Holger. (2014). The disposition effect and loss aversion: Do gender differences matter?. *Economics Letters*. 123. 33-36. 10.1016/j.econlet.2014.01.020.

Robbins, S.P. and Judge, T.A. (2013) *Organisational Behavior*. 15th edition, Pearson, Boston.

Rozin, P., Fallon, A. E., & Mandell, R. (1984). Family resemblance in attitudes to foods. *Developmental Psychology*, 20, 309 -314.

Rozin, P., Haidt, J., & McCauley, C. R. (1999). Disgust: The body and soul emotion. In *Handbook of cognition and emotion* (pp. 429-445). Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Rozin, P., Haidt, J., & McCauley, C. R. (2000). Disgust. In M. Lewis & J. M. Haviland-Jones (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions* (2nd ed., pp. 637-653). New York: Guilford Press

Ruys, K., & Stapel, D. (2008). The Secret Life of Emotions. *Psychological Science*, 19(4), 385-391. Retrieved March 16, 2021, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40064942>

Rytel, Tomas. (2010). Emotional Marketing Concept: The New Marketing Shift in the Postmodern Era. *Verslas: teorija ir praktika*. 11. 30-38. 10.3846/btp.2010.04.

Samuelson, W.; Zeckhauser, R. (1988). "Status quo bias in decision making". *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty*. 1: 7-59. CiteSeerX 10.1.1.632.3193. doi:10.1007/bf00055564. S2CID 5641133.

Schmitt, B.H. (1999) *Experiential Marketing. How to Get Customers to Sense, Feel, Think, Act, Relate to Your Company and Brands*. The Free Press, New York.

Schneider, S. L., Holstrum, G. L., & Marden, R. E. (1993). Framing effects and audit decision making: Control environment evaluation. Poster presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Judgment and Decision Making, November, Washington, DC.

Shah, J., Higgins, E. T., & Friedman, R. S. (1998). Performance incentives and means: how regulatory focus influences goal attainment. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 74(2), 285-293. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.74.2.285>

Siedlecka, E. and Denson, T. F. (2019) 'Experimental Methods for Inducing Basic Emotions: A Qualitative Review', *Emotion Review*, 11(1), pp. 87-97. doi: 10.1177/1754073917749016.

Sinek, S. (2011). *Start with why*. Penguin Books.

Solomon, M., & Tuten, T. (2012). *Social Media Marketing*. Pearson Education.

Strahilevitz, M. A. (1999). The effects of product type and donation magnitude on willingness to pay more for a charity-linked brand. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 8(3), 215-241.

Thaler, R. H. (1985). Using mental accounting in a theory of purchasing behavior. *Marketing Science*, 4, 12-13.

Thaler, R.H. (1999) Mental Accounting Matters. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 12, 183. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-0771\(199909\)12:3<183::AID-BDM318>3.0.CO;2-F](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-0771(199909)12:3<183::AID-BDM318>3.0.CO;2-F)

Tonetto, Leandro Miletto & Stein, Lilian. (2010). Moderating Effects of Consumer Involvement and the Need for Cognition on Goal Framing. *Interamerican Journal of Psychology*. 44. 256-262.

Tykcinski, O., Higgins, E. T., & Chaiken, S. (1994). Message framing, self-discrepancies, and yielding to persuasive messages: The motivational significance of psychological situations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 20, 107–115.

Venkat R. Lakshminarayanan, M. Keith Chen, Laurie R. Santos, 2011, The evolution of decision-making under risk: Framing effects in monkey risk preferences, *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Volume 47, Issue 3, Pages 689-693, ISSN 0022-1031, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2010.12.011>.

Videbeck, Sheila L. (2011). *Psychiatric Mental Health Nursing (5th ed.)*. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins

Von Restorff, Hedwig (1933). "Über die Wirkung von Bereichsbildungen im Spurenfeld" [The effects of field formation in the trace field]. *Psychologische Forschung [Psychological Research]* (in German). 18 (1): 299–342. doi:10.1007/BF02409636.

Weisstein, Fei & Monroe, Kent & Kukar-Kinney, Monika. (2013). Effects of price framing on consumers' perceptions of online dynamic pricing practices. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*. 41. 10.1007/s11747-013-0330-0.

Westin, Kerstin & Annika, Nordlund & Jansson, Johan & Nilsson, Jonas. (2020). Goal Framing as a Tool for Changing People's Car Travel Behavior in Sweden. *Sustainability*. 12. 3695. 10.3390/su12093695.

Wilson, D. K., Wallston, K. A., & King, J. E. (1990). Effects of contract framing, motivation to quit, and self-efficacy on smoking reduction. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 20, 531–547.



Wilson, T. D., & Gilbert, D. T. (2005). Affective Forecasting: Knowing What to Want. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 14(3), 131–134. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2005.00355.x>

Woods, W. (1960). Psychological Dimensions of Consumer Decision. *Journal of Marketing*, 24(3), 15-19. doi:10.2307/1248701

Yadav, Ram Lochan. (2017). Anger; Its Impact On Human Body.

Zaltman, G. (2003). *How customers think: Essential insights into the mind of the market*. (6th ed.) Boston, Mass: Harvard Business School Press.

Zeiler, Kathryn (2007-01-01). "Exchange Asymmetries Incorrectly Interpreted as Evidence of Endowment Effect Theory and Prospect Theory?". *American Economic Review*. 97 (4): 1449–1466. doi:10.1257/aer.97.4.1449. S2CID 16803164.

Ziegler, F.V., Tunney, R.J. (2015). Who's been framed? Framing effects are reduced in financial gambles made for others. *BMC Psychol* 3, 9 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-015-0067-2>

## SITOGRAFHY

BastaMuffa, <https://bastamuffa.com/>

Benyamine Elias (May 22, 2018) Loss Aversion Marketing: When Loss Aversion Works (and When it Kills Your Marketing) Active campaign  
<https://www.activecampaign.com/blog/loss-aversion-marketing>

Brunello Alessandro (2020), Campagna CrowdFunding Consulenza e Formazione,  
<https://course.alessandrobrunellocrowdfunding.com/login>

Digital Guide Ionos, (November 06, 2020) "Marketing emozionale"  
<https://www.ionos.it/digitalguide/online-marketing/vendere-online/marketing-emozionale/>

Investopedia Staff (Dicember 30, 2020). "Bandwagon Effect". Investopedia.  
<https://www.investopedia.com/terms/b/bandwagon-effect.asp#:~:text=The%20bandwagon%20effect%20is%20a,also%20called%20a%20herd%20mentality.>

Leandro Valentina (April 21, 2020), Come entrare nella mente dei consumatori: L'effetto Framing. ThisMARKETERsLife,  
<https://www.thismarketerslife.it/marketing/entrare-nella-mente-dei-consumatori-effetto-framing/>

Marketers Club (June 13, 2015) "Emotional Marketing - Il potere delle emozioni"  
<https://marketersclub.it/emotional-marketing/>

"Morton J. (2019) ""Substantial research shows why color matters and how color plays a pivotal role in all our visual experiences""  
<https://www.colorcom.com/research/why-color-matters>"

Perilli B. (2016), "McDonald's, il logo diventa verde in Europa", La Repubblica,  
<https://www.repubblica.it/2006/05/gallerie/esteri/logo-mcdonalds/1.html>

Petrucci Massimo (June 19, 2020), "Il Viaggio dell'Eroe: Esempi e Strategie nel Marketing", <https://blog.667.agency/copywriting/il-viaggio-dell-eroe-esempi-marketing/>

Roger Dooley. (2015). "How To Use Positive Framing to Persuade and Sell". Neuromarketing by Roger Dooley (et al). <https://www.neurosciencemarketing.com/blog/articles/positive-framing.htm>

Silvestri A. (November 30, 2018), Endelab, <https://endelab.com/il-marketing-esperienziale-sense-feel-think-act-relate/>

Smith Marc (2020), Framing Language To Promote Positive Behaviour, <https://theemotionalleader.com/2018/09/19/framing-language-to-promote-positive-behaviour/>

## **PERSONAL INTERVIEWS**

Aronne Paola (2020) Efficacia Commerciale's director

Recchia Davide (2020) Expert in CopyWriting

Tringali Giuseppe (2020) BastaMuffa's Founder