



CONSUMER BEHAVIOR COLLECTION

Naresh Malhotra, *Editor*

Consumer Experiences and Emotion Management

Avinash Kapoor



BUSINESS EXPERT PRESS

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*To my mother Dr. Gyan Kaur Kapoor, my brother Vivek Kapoor,
my Beloved wife Namita Kapoor, and my sons, Akshat Kapoor and
Anuj Kapoor for their continued love, support, and encouragement.*

Abstract

Emotions can organize cognitive processes or disorganize them, be active or passive, lead to adaptation or maladaptation. Consumers may be conscious of their emotions or may be motivated by unconscious emotions. The emotions in combined form with different intensities have an adaptive significance in consumers' lives. Further, the challenges that marketers and researchers face in today's global markets are to understand the expression of the emotions or consumer emotional experience. Therefore, the purpose of this book is to emphasize the value of emotions and explore mental behavioral and emotional dimensions that affect consumers of all age groups, societies, and cultures. This book would be an excellent reference for students, executives, marketers, researchers, and trainers. It includes the different elements of emotion, evidence of how emotions govern and organize consumer life, and emotional and individual functioning, including psychological disorders and well being.

Keywords

brand management, consumer behavior, consumer psychology, dynamics of emotions, effects of emotions on decision making, emotions, experience management, group behavior, individual behavior, marketing, personality, self-evaluation and comparison

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Preface

The generation of emotion is crucial for successful marketing. Feelings and emotions always dominate cognition in consumer decision making. Moving away from the rational campaign and focusing on the emotional benefits of the brand can create stronger breakthrough potential, communication, and persuasion. In all businesses, we create emotions and experiences only. Thus, a timely understanding and managing of key relevant emotions can grow your business in a sustainable manner. Marketing in modern perspective is the use of principles and techniques to advance a cause, an idea, emotions, and experiences. Emotions are conscious experiences involving participative, that is, private feelings, physiological arousal, expressive reactions, and observable activities related to the experience. Emotions can be observable emotional behaviors like facial expressions or words, which may result in arousal and verbal expressions to project the evoked states. Emotions play a large role in guiding all our behaviors. What we do and the efficiency with which we direct our behavior. Our bodies actually reveal something about our momentary state of physiological arousal. Emotions determine the quality of our lives. They occur in every relationship we care about—in the workplace, in our friendships, in dealings with family members, and in our most intimate relationships. It is interesting to note that consumers don't have much control over what they become emotional about, but it is possible, though not easy, to make some changes in what triggers their emotions and to know how they behave when they are emotional. In addition, there are questions in the minds of marketers like whether or not their brands or products or services are treated and considered as emotional. A major dilemma comes into play when you try to understand as to how consumers connect with their brands. Emotions are treated as something that can be sensed but they otherwise defy scientific measurement. Given its strategic role, the book examines and develops a critical understanding of the processes involved in understanding the generation of emotions and experiences and their impact on building and managing the business for gaining long-term sustainable competitive advantage, with an ultimate

purpose to address experiential and emotional aspects of consumer behavior. The book provides an insight into the world of consumer behavior to advance emotions and experiences through six chapters. The first chapter discusses the concept and nature of emotions and highlights the need for understanding emotions in terms of the types of mental activity that are truly conducive to one's own and others' well-being, and which ones are harmful, especially in the long run. It concludes that consumers do not have much control over what they become emotional about, but it is possible, though not easy, to make some changes in what triggers their emotions and to know how they behave when they are emotional.

The second chapter on "Dynamics of Emotions" highlights the influence of various structures and perspectives of emotions, in order to understand how emotions arise, evolve, morph, interact, and influence consumer learning and engagement. Despite the debates regarding the boundary conditions of emotion, however, there is considerable agreement that emotional responses are relatively brief, and that phasic events can be decomposed into experiential, expressive, and physiological components. It concludes that emotional responses are not wholly temporally constrained by the presence of an eliciting stimulus, but instead vary in their peak and duration in ways that may hold important information about individual differences. The third chapter on "Experience and Facial Expressions of Emotions" discusses the emotional expressions—experiences and regulations in social contexts. It is suggested that facial movements in question may serve communicative functions. Actions attain true symbolic significance when they call out identical responses in both actors and observers. The chapter concludes that emotional responses and emotion regulation frequently take place in social situations and are often defined by the social context; they are reciprocated by and transmitted to the social partners and, therefore, affect the quality of one's relationships with others. Emotional reactions of other people affect us and we respond to them by appropriate emotions in turn. The fourth chapter on "Emotions and Group Behavior" investigates whether there is a need to understand the role of social cognition, emotions in social, cultural, intergroup, and gender context. The chapter concludes that the complex nature of the consumer decision-making process is shaped by

the interactions of culture, cognition, and emotions, and the emotional and psychological state and processing of the needs of the individual. Chapter 5 on “Emotions and Individual Behavior” discusses emotions and behavior particularly in the context of the body’s nervous systems and hormones and the individual’s personality and decision-making capabilities. It concludes that emotions can be influenced by hormones and neurotransmitters. The understanding of multiple roles of emotions can be used in emotional marketing. Finally, the sixth chapter on “Consumer Experience Management” presents the consumer experience and the approaches to consumer emotions along with various dimensions of experiences. The chapter highlights the practical issues and challenges faced by marketers in understanding and managing the consumer experiences.

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CHAPTER 1

Consumer Emotions

Introduction

Emotions occur when the perception of an exciting fact causes a collection of bodily changes, and our feeling of the same changes as they occur is the emotion. An emotion is defined as a state of arousal and an attempt to label it. Our level of arousal directly affects how we behave. The arousal influences the efficiency of our behavior at moderate levels leading to the most efficient behavior. Both low and high levels of arousal cause inefficient behavior. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the concept and nature of emotions and highlight the need for understanding emotions in terms of the types of mental activity that are truly conducive to one's own and others' well-being, and which ones are harmful, especially in the long run. The chapter concludes that consumers do not have much control over what they become emotional about, but it is possible, though not easy, to make some changes in what triggers their emotions and to know how they behave when they are emotional.

Emotion is a conscious experience involving participative; that is, private feelings, physiological arousal, expressive reactions, and observable activities related to the experience. Emotions can be observable emotional behaviors like facial expressions or words that may result in arousal and verbal expressions to project the evoked states. Emotions play a large role in guiding all our behavior. Inherited inclinations, learning, and reasoning combine with motivated or emotional urges to control much of what we do and the efficiency with which we direct our behavior. Our bodies actually reveal something about our momentary state of physiological arousal.

The study of emotions has included two approaches: studying and labeling photographs of posed facial emotions or analyzing the words we use in describing emotions. Arguments continue as to how many

and what specific dimensions underlie emotional response. Unlike motivation, which we are able to define with some precision, emotion is a much more difficult term to narrow down. We all know what it's like to feel emotion. Emotion is love and hate, anger and fear, pride and jealousy. It is about the things we like to do (such as, being in love). Yet it's also things we don't like to do (such as, being angry or afraid). Emotions sometimes create states within us that we'd do anything to maintain them. Other times they create negative feelings that fully occupy us until we can eliminate them. Traditionally, there is no word for *emotion* as such. However, modern psychological research has isolated emotion as a distinct mental process that can be studied apart from other processes. Every region in the brain that has been identified with some aspect of emotion has also been identified with aspects of cognition. The circuitry that supports and affects cognition are completely intertwined and these processes cannot be separated. Emotions strongly influence people's thoughts, words, and actions and that, at times, help people in their pursuit of transient pleasures and satisfaction. However, some emotions are conducive to genuine and enduring happiness and others are not. Happiness may be defined as a state of flourishing that arises from mental balance and insight into the nature of reality. Rather than a fleeting emotion or mood aroused by sensory and conceptual stimuli, happiness is an enduring trait that arises from a mind in a state of equilibrium and entails a conceptually unstructured and unfiltered awareness of the true nature of reality. Similarly, suffering is not defined simply as an unpleasant feeling. Rather, it refers most deeply to a basic vulnerability to suffering and pain due to misapprehending the nature of reality. Now the question arises as to how this happiness can be realized? I think that the radical transformation of consciousness is necessary to realize that happiness can occur by sustained training in attention, emotional balance, and mindfulness, so that one can learn to distinguish between the way things are as they appear to the senses and the conceptual superimpositions one projects upon them. As a result of such training, one perceives what is presented to the senses, including one's own mental states, in a way that is closer to their true nature, undistorted by the projections people habitually mistake for reality. Such training not only results in shifts in

fleeting emotions but also leads to changes in one's moods and, eventually, even changes in one's temperament.

There is a need to develop and test ways of gradually cultivating those emotions that are conducive to the pursuit of happiness and of freeing ourselves from emotions that are detrimental to this pursuit. The idea here is not to simply achieve one's own individual happiness in isolation from others, but to incorporate the recognition of one's deep kinship with all beings, who share the same yearning to be free of suffering and to find a lasting state of well-being. Therefore, the challenge is to understand whether marketers are concerned with understanding which types of mental activity are truly conducive to one's own and others' well-being, and which ones are harmful, especially in the long run. In addition to this, there is a need to understand if emotions are a magic product, or a physiological process that depends on an anatomical mechanism. Throughout the day, we experience a variety of emotions. For the most part, these emotions are transient in nature. However,

when these emotions become intense or are unremitting, they can have very dramatic effects on our behavior. The primary emotions are anger, fear, pleasure, sadness, and disgust. Emotions can be conceptualized in terms of their functional or adaptive significance. Negative emotions such as anger and fear may promote avoidance or defensive behavior, whereas the positive emotion of pleasure may facilitate ingestive, exploratory, sexual, or novel-seeking behavior. Thus, emotions and feelings may serve to achieve homeostasis or to facilitate adaptive behavior and equilibrium. Global Anatomy (2006)

What Are Emotions?

Emotions are defined as feelings with physiological and cognitive components that influence behavior. "Emotion is an acute disturbance of the organism, as a whole psychological in origin involving behavior, conscious experience and visceral functioning."¹ Similarly, "Each emotion is

a feeling and each is at the same time a motor set. Fear is set for escape, anger for attack, happiness to laugh, grief to cry.”² Emotions can be elicited by external stimuli. However, the stimuli must have relevance or motivational significance in order to guide appropriate, adaptive behavior. Is the stimulus good, bad, or neutral? Does it evoke anger, fear, or pleasure? What are its previous associations, what does it predict, what is an appropriate reaction? This general concept of stimulus relevance is important in guiding consumer behavior. Marketers typically view emotions as primitive and instinctive responses that are not associated with complex intellectual or cognitive functions. Certainly, key stimulus elements in the environment can trigger instinctive emotional responses (imagine confronting a large, threatening animal). However, cognitive–emotional interactions are extremely important in the elicitation of everyday emotions. Smart marketers should be thinking about how their customers perceive them in terms of emotions. For example, what Coke really understands is the need to address emotions and lifestyles of the consumers. They use content, entertainment, such as, video and storytelling to engage connect emotionally with the customers. This also helps consumers to generate, express, and share emotions and contents. This approach works naturally in the social media and mobile world as these platforms become distribution channels for the original content, and provide venue to encourage users to generate content and sharing. Similarly, Apple, Starbucks, Wegmans, and Whole Foods are good examples, not to mention Harley-Davidson, LL Bean, Nike, Ritz-Carlton, and Patron. They command a premium now because they have become a lifestyle brand by understanding and addressing the consumers’ emotions and their lifestyles. Supermarkets and consumer electronics are examples in addition to consumables like cola, coffee, bottled water, and so on. If these companies can make the transition to consumer emotions and their lifestyle to become lifestyle brands, they will be able to leverage loyalty and maintain margins.

Further, the brain has a striking capacity to learn and remember the emotional significance of diverse stimuli and events. Our cognitive capacity allows us to assign emotional valence to stimuli, and to change the value that was previously assigned to a stimulus. For example, a child may be initially fearful of certain tastes and flavors of milk, but through positive

Table 1.1 Relationship between components, functions, and characteristics of emotions

Component of emotion	Functions of emotions	Characteristics of emotions
Cognitive processes	Preparing us for action	Universality of emotion
Subjective feeling and physiological arousal	Helping us to regulate social interaction	Bodily change and need for emotional relation; displaced and diffused emotions
Behavior response	Shaping our future behavior	Persistency and creative tendency

experiences the child may eventually enjoy and appreciate flavored milk. Table 1.1 depicts the relationship between components, functions, and characteristics of emotions.

Neural Basis of Emotion

The early explorations regarding the neural basis of emotion have suggested that specific brain regions are involved in the expression of emotional behavior. Studies have shown that electrodes placed in the hypothalamus elicited widespread activation of the sympathetic nervous system as well as coordinated expression of defensive reactions or presumed feelings of pleasure. Limbic system was originally proposed to consist of interconnected subcortical structures with pathways to the hypothalamus. The limbic system (see Figure 1.1) is supposed to be modulating the emotional quality of stimuli and supporting autonomic effector mechanisms associated with emotional states.

A key limbic structure that has a critical role in emotional expression is the amygdala. As shown in Figure 1.2, the amygdala has an important role in evaluating the emotional valence of stimuli.

It is important to note that an interaction exists between cortical brain regions and the limbic system. There are massive connections between cortical regions, particularly from the frontal and temporal lobes, to subcortical limbic structures. The implication of these connections is that complex sensory information processing occurring in the cortex can directly influence the limbic system. Conversely, limbic processing

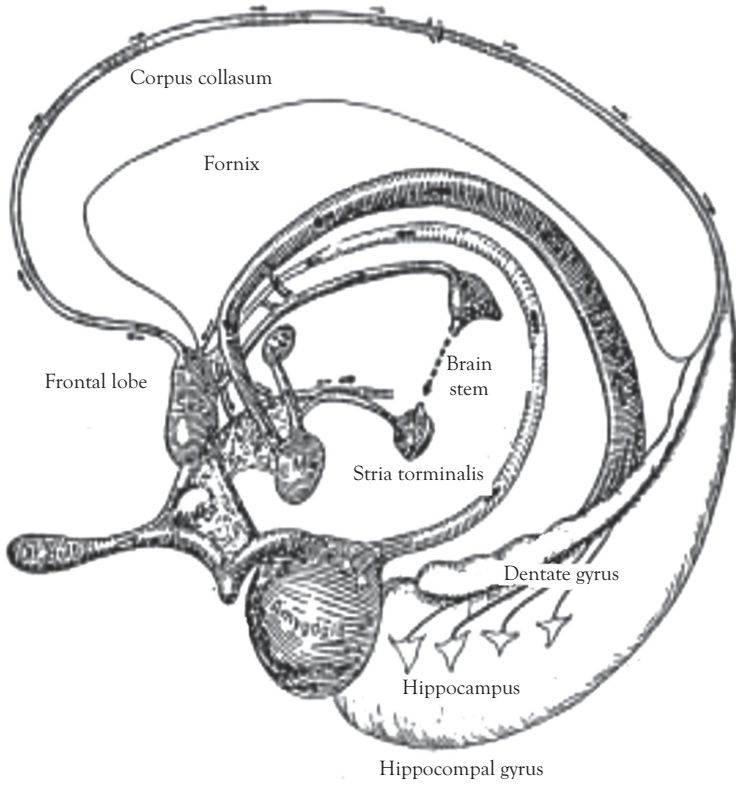


Figure 1.1 The limbic system: structures and connections

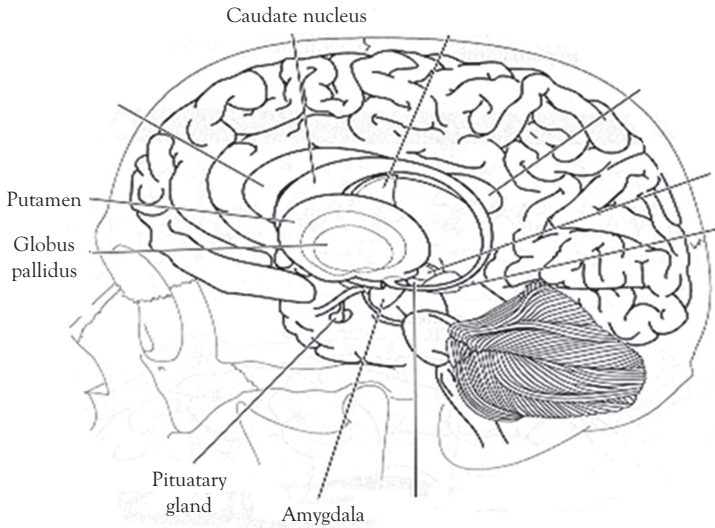


Figure 1.2 Depicting amygdala

can strongly influence higher-level cognitive integration occurring in the cortex. Disconnection in the transmission of information between the cortical and subcortical limbic structures can create confusions about goods and services, and their value propositions, and thus can have dire consequences for both buyer and seller. Furthermore, monoamine systems have received considerable attention over the past several decades. These include the serotonin, nor-epinephrine, and dopamine systems. Prior to the discovery of neurotransmitters, researchers believed that a major ascending neural system was responsible for arousal of the forebrain (epithalamus, thalamus, and subthalamus) and telencephalon (cerebral cortex, basal ganglia, and associated structures like the nucleus basalis of Meynert and the nucleus accumbens). This neural system used to be called the ascending reticular activating system, before the monoamines were characterized. It is believed that a balance among these systems (as well as other neurotransmitters) is necessary for normal emotional states and arousal. Thus, as per neural substrates, the emotion is elicited by threatening situations, and it functions as an internal signal to alert the organism to potential danger. In response to fear, individuals engage in defensive or protective acts that serve to promote survival. These behaviors include fleeing or withdrawing from a situation, freezing to remain inconspicuous, or fighting. Recall the role of the amygdala, which helps us react almost instantaneously to the presence of a danger. So rapidly that often we are startled first, and then realize only afterward what it was that frightened us. In fact, all the information captured by the senses reaches the thalamus first, and the appropriate messages are then forwarded to the respective sensory cortex like visual cortex, auditory cortex, and so on, where messages are evaluated, and interpreted meaningfully. However, if the interpreted meaning is threatening, then the amygdala is informed, and the appropriate emotional responses are produced accordingly; see Figure 1.3, which shows a long route and a short route highlighting the processing and interpretation of emotional stimuli and the responses thereafter.

Furthermore, some individuals appear to have a genetic predisposition to express intense fear and stress responses in unfamiliar or as indicated earlier, certain stimuli are more likely to elicit a fear response than others. However in many cases, a stimulus may acquire properties

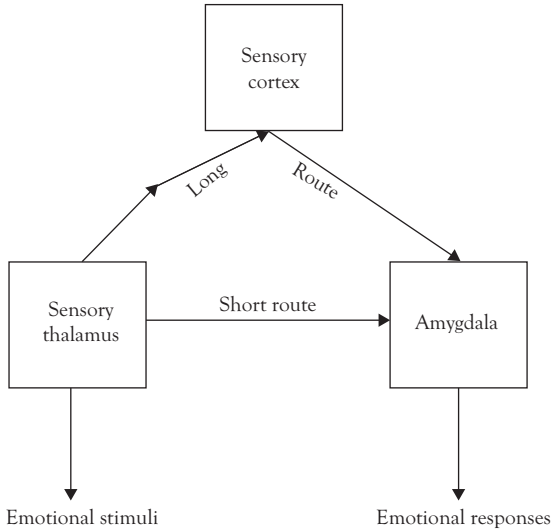


Figure 1.3 Showing long route and short route processing of sensory stimulation

through learning to elicit a fear response. In addition, we may be *biologically prepared* to associate certain stimuli with emotional responses more readily than with other stimuli. However, the absence of an appropriate behavioral response to fear-eliciting stimuli is termed *psychic blindness*, because it was presumed that the cognitive processing of emotional stimuli was altered. The emotion can be defined as an episode of interrelated, synchronized changes in the states of all or most of the five organismic subsystems in response to the evaluation of an external or internal stimulus. The components of an emotion episode are the respective states of the five subsystems, and the process consists of the coordinated changes (see Table 1.2).

However, the concept of emotion remains to be consensually defined. The language of emotion is often ambiguous, and its definition has been inconsistent, being frequently confused with other affective phenomena. The range of emotion definitions represents the variability of existing theoretical frameworks. In order to understand the mechanisms through which emotions guide perception, thought, and action, treat emotion as a complex disturbance that includes three main components: subjective affect, physiological changes related to species-specific forms of

Table 1.2 Relationship between individual subsystems and the functions and components of emotions

Emotion function	Individual consumer and major substrata	Individual consumer emotion component
Evaluation of objects and events	Information processing (central nervous system [CNS])	Cognitive component (appraisal)
System regulation	Support (CNS, neuroendocrine system autonomic nervous system)	Neurophysiological component (bodily symptoms)
Preparation and direction of action	Executive CNS	Motivational component (action tendencies)
Communication of reaction and behavioral intention	Action somatic nervous system	Motor expression component (facial and vocal expression)
Monitoring of internal state and consumer environment interaction	Monitor (CNS)	Subjective feeling component (emotional experience)

mobilization for adapted action, and action impulses having both instrumental and expressive qualities.³ Emotions are also concerned with issues of survival and social status, and, as such, they regulate and distort our attention by selecting what attracts and holds our attention, facilitating the regulation of priorities and the communication of intentions.

Nature and Scope

Emotion is frequently confused with other concepts which, in turn, are often used interchangeably. Therefore, it is important to differentiate among affective phenomena, such as affects, emotions, moods, emotional traits, and temperaments. Affect is a broad concept that encompasses all other affective phenomena. It can be a temporary state or a trait-like disposition, and usually does not include physiological arousal or facial or bodily expressions. Emotions imply a sudden and brief response to an object or a stimulus leading to distinct physiological, experiential, and behavioral changes. Physiological and neurological patterns, subjective feelings, and facial or bodily expressions elicited by emotions are highly specific. Moods are more diffused subjective states that last longer than

the previously characterized affective phenomena. Physiological changes and facial expressions that characterize emotions are absent in moods. Moods do not have a direct relationship with a specific object or stimulus. They exert an influence on the individual by producing temporary changes to the threshold of occurrence of emotional responses. These thresholds are established by affective traits and are perceived at a more or less conscious level. Affective traits include: (1) emotional traits, which consist of the individual's tendency to experience certain emotions or moods and are subject to environmental influence; and (2) temperament, which are innate dispositions determining these tendencies. The different affective phenomena, which are analyzed as affects, are organized in levels. A level is defined as a unit of organization that refers to the hierarchical arrangement of concepts or structures. The affective phenomena can be divided into three levels based on the influence that each level exerts on the other: affective traits, moods, and emotions. Affective traits are the highest level and are stable predispositions toward certain types of emotional responses; they establish a threshold of occurrence of an emotional response. They reflect individual differences in emotional reactivity. An individual who has a hostile trait (affective trait) is more likely to show a congruent emotion in a given situation, such as anger, versus another individual who possesses a less hostile trait. Therefore, affective traits influence how congruent moods and emotions are expressed and experienced through a background influence on consciousness, for which individuals are not always aware. It is more likely that moods exert an influence on emotions than the opposite. Similar to affective traits, moods determine the threshold of occurrence of a given emotion. However, while affective traits determine this threshold in an enduring manner, moods can alter them temporarily; in a given moment, an individual can be more or less susceptible of presenting an emotion. These influences depend to some degree on the affective phenomena temporal patterns (see Table 1.3). Traits are the more enduring affective phenomena, while moods and emotions are transient states. Although the temporal patterns do not fully explain the differences between affective phenomena, its conceptualization allows more objectivity while distinguishing these concepts.

Table 1.3 Temporal patterns of different affective phenomena

Time phenomena	Seconds	Minutes	Hours	Days	Weeks	Months	Years	Life
Emotions	Dark	Dark	Dark	White	White	White	White	White
Moods	White	Dark	Dark	Dark	Dark	Dark	White	White
Temperaments	White	White	White	White	White	White	White	Dark
Emotional traits	White	White	White	White	White	White	Dark	Dark

Emotion and Cognition

The associative network theory describes memory as a network of nodes representing concepts, ideas, events, or propositions. Memory occurs when activation of one or more nodes spread within this network and activates other related nodes. These can become *primed*, as subjects are often unaware of the concept that originally spread the activation. Emotions are memory units linked to the memory system, which facilitate access to mental representations associated with targets of judgment. Due to prior associations, innate and learned environmental situations activate particular emotion nodes stored in memory. This activation spreads throughout neuronal circuits to mental representations of events associated with that emotion influencing encoding and retrieval of material, as well as the valence of judgments of people, events, objects, and behaviors. Emotions are activated by repeated experience or by activating any of their links. The stronger the activation of particular emotional nodes, the greater the mood-congruent effect. According to this affect-priming model, an emotion node spreads activation throughout the memories to which it is connected, increasing the chance that those memories will be retrieved by the same token; the accessibility of information for judgment is biased by mood, creating mood-congruent judgments. Subjects who were videotaped in a social interaction task categorized ambiguous gestures, speech acts, intonation, and body language in a mood-congruent way. Also, happy people make faster positive rather than negative judgments about the goods services and even the character of an individual. The inverse pattern can be seen in sad people. Thus, this affect-priming approach can help understand how emotions arise and influence consumer decision-making performance. For example, current emotional states facilitate access to associated mental representations of concepts, images, and actions, which are the base for subsequent interpretations of contextual factors and ambiguous stimuli (affect-congruent associations). A competitive situation can be categorized as a threat because it shares similar features with a past threatening situation. Rather than online appraisals of the new situation, reinstatements of prior appraisals from earlier situations can reactivate earlier experiences together with their emotional significance. For example, alongside traditional advertising

techniques, many companies are increasingly using the Internet, product placement in computer games, interactive online gaming, and mobile phones to impress upon and evoke more consumer emotions and repeated experiences. More specifically, Coke's "Share a Coke" campaign is a prime example of how soft drink companies play on the emotions of their customers. Here's how it works: Coca-Cola, Diet Coke, and Coke Zero have taken their iconic logos off the bottles and replaced them with thousands of different people's names. This personalization is in itself a very attractive thing to many consumers. By personalizing their bottles, the company is appealing to an audience that appreciates this uniqueness. This would make sense because people, especially youth, like customized products, namely the kind with their name on it. Even on Facebook and Instagram, consumers are snapping and sharing photos of their bottles.

Do you know that consumers may also selectively pay attention to cues that are congruent with current affective states? Remember that high-trait, anxious individuals more than low-trait, anxious individuals exaggerate distress by reporting disproportionately greater concerns than actual problems. Such discrepancy is explained by biased processing of internal sources of information. This attentional bias may increase vulnerability to anxiety because they affect the extent to which stimuli and events are processed. Depressed and sad individuals are directed inward, demonstrating low external engagement by failing to consider relevant environmental cues. Individuals utilize their emotional states to evaluate their reactions to a situation, object, or person. The affects have an informational value about the nature of subjects' current psychological situation, which is associated with different states of action readiness. In fact, people simplify judgmental tasks by using a "How do I feel about it?" heuristic. Positive mood states indicate that the world is safe and no action is necessary, whereas negative mood states indicate a problematic situation that needs to be changed. Affective reactions to evaluative targets result in more positive judgments under happy moods and negative judgments under sad moods. Negative moods are more likely to trigger attributional activity and direct attention to the source of such moods. That is, subjects tend to explain more often their sad moods than their happy moods, engaging in more causal reasoning. The motivation to change requires more elaboration and attention to specific information

of the current situation (e.g., assessment of current features, analysis of causal links, exploration of mechanisms of change, anticipation of potential outcomes), requiring higher cognitive capacity as it competes with demands of other cognitive tasks. In contrast, positive affective states do not pose a threat, allowing the subject to engage in heuristic processing through the use of routines and general knowledge structures. The use of general structures has the advantage of serving as *energy-saving devices* as they are based on heuristics, schemas, and stereotypes. Attentional processing is allocated differently, and cognitive resources are spared to meet additional processing required by other tasks. Mood effects in judgments are more likely when they are misattributed, that is, when subjects misread feelings that were elicited by other causes as affective reactions to the object of judgment, resulting in more positive evaluations in the presence of positive rather than negative feelings. When the source of moods is correctly attributed (e.g., weather conditions), mood effects tend to disappear. Also, in conditions of information uncertainty (e.g., when outcomes of comparable others are unknown), justice judgments are influenced by affective states in the direction predicted by the mood-as-information model. However, when relevant information is available, mood effects disappear. Therefore, mood congruency effects and judgments will decrease if people become aware of mood-eliciting events as causes for current affective states, or if they have other diagnostic information available. Emotion leads to actions while reason leads to conclusions and this has made marketing to evolve itself into the relationship and one-to-one interactions, and marketers focusing on human emotions and their role in consumer decision making, and, as such, marketing has moved beyond the era of messaging to touch customers life through emotions with a belief that consumer emotions will result into actions. There is a need to move from product and consumer-based marketing approaches to more holistic approaches, which appeals to the whole person. There is a need for creating marketing strategies that are collaborative, cultural, emotional, and spiritual by using a positive vocabulary of emotions. Table 1.4, shows strong, medium, and light versions of positive emotions vocabulary strength.

Also, there is a need to determine the emotional impact of interpersonal reactions with family, friends, and colleagues on purchase decisions.

Table 1.4 *Depicting positive emotions and their strengths*

Strong	Happiness: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Delight • Ecstatic • Elated • Energetic • Enthusiastic • Excited • Thrilled • Vibrant 	Caring: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adoring • Devoted • Fervent • Passionate • Crazy • Zealous • Infatuated • Compassionate
Medium	Happiness: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Buoyant • Cheerful • Happy • Lively • Jovial • Merry • Elevated • In high spirit 	Caring: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Admiring • Affectionate • Attached • Loving • Tender • Warmhearted • Trusting • Kind

The ultimate focus of marketers should be in helping people feel good about a problem the product purchased will solve rather than trying to convince consumers that they will feel *happier* overall if they purchase the product, in other words, the focus should be on feelings that are normatively related to the judgment or decision at hand, rather than incidental emotions in messaging.

For example, McDonald's is trying to understand how millennials find fulfillment in their lives and how it can play a meaningful role to support and enhance their pursuit of happiness.

It has established strong and lasting emotional connections with consumers with its "Loves To See You Smile" campaigns. This Fortune 500 company has once again asserted its leadership with a new campaign based out of the UK, entitled "100 McDonald's Moments." The campaign encouraged customers to share special moments shared with McDonald's throughout their lifetime. McDonald's then created an interactive platform to highlight their 100 favorite moments by animating individual stories with an interactive cartoon. In an effort to gain more trust from consumers, McDonald's launched a transparency program in the United States called "Our food, Your questions." Similar transparency campaigns originally ran in Canada a few years back, as well as in

Australia. Now McDonald's is making a push for the effort in the United States, tackling questions like what's really in a Chicken McNugget, and whether there is *pink slime* in the burgers. The move comes as the chain battles sliding sales and works to improve perception of its food quality, particularly among millennials, who may develop liking for chains like Chipotle over McDonald's. Thus, in a way, Emotion regulation is a process of dampening, intensifying, or simply maintaining an existing emotion, and, for this, individuals may use consumption or purchasing as a way to manage their emotions. Similarly, just as purchasing certain products, such as jewelry, cars, or engaging in some moderately *indulgent* behavior like eating chocolates, offers some pleasurable benefit, a product like biscuits may help individuals regulate certain negative affective states. Consumption of these products can help divert attention away from unwanted feelings and allow for refocusing on desired states. In addition, the emotion regulation propensities of individuals may be triggered by strategically incorporating language in marketing communications that target the emotions of consumers. Similarly, positive emotions may enable individuals to down regulate or overcome the effects of negative emotions; for example, hedonic products often invoke positive emotions from consumers and, as such, can be used to overcome negative emotions. There are two major perspectives on the origin of emotions. According to one, emotions are the products of natural selection. They are evolved adaptations; best understood using the explanatory tools of evolutionary psychology. According to the other perspective, emotions are socially constructed, and they vary across cultural boundaries. Emotions can influence the generation of an action in two ways: the tendency and readiness and the decision to act. Different emotions correspond to different patterns of action. For example, anger usually leads to aggression and retaliation; fear is involved in preparing for rapid escape from a dangerous situation. Moreover, different emotions contain the impulse to act in certain ways appropriate to the quality of particular feelings. For instance, when angry, you may feel a strong urge to react to some target; when you are afraid, you may experience the desire to run away. Thus it is reasonable to say that emotions are different sets of action tendencies. The action tendencies are states of readiness to execute a given kind of movement, involving both bodily arousal and psychological preparation

following emotional appraisal. And, as such, the emotional appraisal is a mental assessment of the potential harm or benefit of a situation relevant to one's personally significant concerns. According to the various versions of the appraisal theory of emotion, one of the most distinctive features of emotion is the evaluative component that assesses the current context as being good or bad, beneficial or detrimental, or morally admirable or degrading. This evaluation is of two types, primary appraisal and secondary appraisal. The primary appraisal tells whether the situation is relevant for personal well-being. The secondary appraisal focuses on the possible ways of coping with the situation, that is, if anything, can be done about the situation. For example, any consumer purchase decision-making action can be divided into two separated phases: the generation of an action and the execution and control of an action. The first phase includes how a plan or intention is formed, what decision or choice is made, and how an action is initiated. The second phase specifies how a plan or intention is executed or carried out by a human body. When people are in emotional states such as anger, joy, fear, jealousy, embarrassment, shame, or depression, their decision making may be quite different from cool deliberation. Even a six-year-old child knows, it is better to request a new toy when a parent is in a good mood. The outcomes of the phase of action generation are mental representations such as intentions, decisions, choices, or goals. One obvious advantage of emotion-based decision making is speed and efficiency: emotion helps to frame the options of action to be evaluated. Those courses of action associated with strong negative emotional feelings will be eliminated from consideration at the outset. The signal of emotion allows you to choose from fewer alternatives, which can substantially reduce the burden of computation in conventional calculation-based decision making. This efficiency is consistent with the account of the connection between emotions and action tendencies. Another striking advantage is that basing your decisions on emotions helps to ensure that the decisions are inherently significant to *you*, taking into account what you really care about. If you are pleased and excited about a possible action, it is a good sign that the action promises to accomplish the goals that are genuinely important to you. This feature can be crucial for helping people cope with complex purchase situations in the market. While most proponents of causal theories of action

concern themselves mainly with the first stage of action, namely, the antecedents of action, whereas advocates of noncausal theories tend to pay more attention to the second stage. Furthermore, there is an apparent lack of awareness of the distinction between basic emotions and emotion schemas or of the importance of such a distinction among marketers as in much of the extant literature; the term emotion was often applied both to basic emotions as well as to emotion schemas. The term emotion schema is for the processes involved in the dynamic interplay of emotion, appraisals, and higher order cognition. The term emotion schema emphasizes a cognitive content that does not characterize a basic emotion or basic-emotion episode. However, emotion as a standalone term refers to both basic emotions and emotion schemas. Therefore, there is dire need for marketers to understand that basic emotions may be categorized as natural kinds on the basis of a common set of characteristic properties. These properties include emotion-specific universal capacities to regulate and motivate cognition and action, independent of the cyclic processes that characterize homeostasis and physiological drive states like hunger and thirst. Generally, natural kinds are considered as a category of phenomena that are given by nature, have similar observable properties, and are alike in some significant way. Whereas, complex emotion phenomena like emotion schemas are not natural kinds because they have properties that differ between individuals and across cultures. The following basic emotions meet the criteria for classification as natural kinds: interest, joy or happiness, sadness, anger, disgust, and fear. A basic emotion may be viewed as a set of neural, bodily or expressive, and feeling or motivational components generated rapidly, automatically, and nonconsciously when ongoing affective–cognitive processes interact with the sensing or perception of an ecologically valid stimulus to activate evolutionarily adapted neurobiological and mental processes. The resulting basic emotion pre-empts consciousness and tends to drive a rather narrowly focused stereotypical response strategy to achieve an adaptive advantage. A basic emotion has five components or characteristics that support its classification as a natural kind. First, basic emotions involve internal bodily activity and the capacity for expressive behavior that derive from evolutionarily adapted neurobiological systems, and they emerge early in ontogeny. Both theory and research suggest that the capacities for emotion

expressions and emotion recognition coevolved and that emotion perception, like emotion expression, affects one's feelings and actions. Second, activation or elicitation of a basic emotion may depend in part on perception (or minimal or rudimentary appraisal) of an ecologically valid stimulus (e.g., a consumer's face to elicit her child's interest in a product and her smile to elicit joy). A basic emotion does not depend on or include complex appraisals or higher order cognition, such as thought and judgment. Third, a basic emotion has a unique feeling component that can be conceptualized as a phase of the associated neurobiological process. Feelings derive from sensory processes that tell the organism what is happening. The feeling state of a basic emotion, which derives primarily from subcortical neural systems in the upper brain stem, has specific motivational properties also. Thus, a discrete emotion feeling is innate, and its distinctive quality is invariant over the life span. Fourth, a basic emotion has unique regulatory properties that modulate cognition and action. The resulting changes in cognition and action will in turn modulate the emotion. Fifth, a basic emotion has noncyclic motivational capacities that include the power to influence cognition and action. Because of their relative independence of cyclic homeostatic processes and specific physiological needs, basic-emotion feelings provide an ever-ready source of motivation to serve adaptive functions. The regulatory and motivational properties of basic emotions are included among the criteria for classification as natural kinds because they represent the most important ways in which basic emotions are alike. These five characteristics and their associated structural components can be considered a cluster of properties that define basic emotions as natural kinds. Basic emotions differentially recruit, organize, and motivate cognitive and motor response systems. They serve regulatory functions by sustaining, amplifying, or attenuating the activity of these systems. Basic emotions have cue-producing functions that provide information for individual and social functioning. In sum, basic emotions have distinct universal and unlearned regulatory and motivational characteristics. For example, the basic emotion of interest in products and services of a particular company focuses and sustains attention and motivates consumers' exploration and learning. However, in normative conditions, basic negative emotions (sadness, anger, disgust, fear) have a low base rate and a short duration. In contemporary cultures

in which people can live without undue concerns for safety, health, and life's necessities, basic emotions continue to work effectively in critical situations. However, basic negative emotions do not drive much of the behavior involved in love, work, and play. Feelings, like tastes, derive from sensory processes and have emerged via natural selection and evolution. The capacity to discriminate and experience the basic tastes (sweet, salt, sour, bitter) develops and becomes functional prenatally or within a few weeks after birth. Although social and cultural factors can shape a wide variety of taste sensitivities, preferences, and aversions, learning and experience are not required for the development of the basic taste discriminations.⁴ Emotion schemas are, in fact, the dynamic interaction of emotion and cognition. Emotion schemas are similar to affective–cognitive structures, emotional interpretations. Any basic emotion feeling may become part of an emotion schema as the basic-emotion feeling and related cognition become interacting constituents of a regulatory and motivational process. An emotion schema consists of an evolved feeling plus learned labels and concepts. And where mood is expressed as emotion extended over time (in either phenomenal or reflective consciousness) rather than as objectless core affect. Theorists generally agree that basic emotions are few in number, relatively infrequent, and short in duration and that nonbasic emotions (emotion schemas) are virtually infinite in number and usually longer in duration. Frequently recurring emotion schemas or stable clusters of emotion schemas may be construed as emotion traits or as the motivational component of temperament or personality traits. A person processing a sadness schema, for example, experiences a sadness feeling or motivation and generates sadness related thoughts influenced by temperament or personality and contextual factors. The newly elicited thoughts may mix with sad memories. The nature of the perceptual–cognitive content of the schema plays a significant role in its duration. Similarly, there are many new and more elaborate emotion schemas, including so-called self-conscious and moral emotions. With further cognitive and moral development, an emotion schema may include consideration of the consequences of impulsive actions that are driven by negative basic emotions. Unfortunately, the development of emotion schemas can and do go awry. Maladaptive connections between emotion feeling, cognition, and action can lead to behavior problems and

psychopathology. Knowledge of specific discrete emotions or emotion schemas is necessary for empathy, which is usually defined as the ability to respond to the unique emotion experience of another person, and, as such, it may provide the emotion motivation that drives altruistic behaviors.

Theoretical Approaches and Arguments

Emotions occur when the perception of an exciting fact causes a collection of bodily changes, and our feeling of the same changes as they occur is the emotion.⁵ There is a link between the emotions and the body, and that emotions are exhausted by bodily changes or perceptions, that is, other kinds of mental episodes might co-occur when we have an emotion state.⁶ But the question is if an emotion really follows an exciting perception, or if the exciting perception is not a part of the emotion it excited.⁷ Surely, emotions involve something more. At their core, emotions are more like judgments or thoughts, than perceptions. They evaluate, assess, or appraise.

Emotions are amendable to rational assessment; they report, correctly or incorrectly, on how we are faring in the world. Within this general consensus, there is a further debate about whether the body should figure into a theory of emotions at all. I argue beyond the somatic approach and propose that emotions could also be conscious or unconscious changes in the body, which may be expressed metaphorically or otherwise. Similarly, we can say that the autonomic changes are associated with basic emotions, such as anger, disgust, fear, joy, sadness, and surprise, and each of these corresponds to a unique bodily pattern.⁸ It has also been observed that the principle brain structures underlying our emotional states have all been independently associated with bodily response.⁹ Any change in facial musculature seems sufficient for an emotional response, even when we do not realize we are making emotional expressions; however, showing that bodily changes are sufficient, does not establish that the somatic theory is true. Ask yourself if there is a need to show that bodily changes are necessary for emotions. If an emotion is a perception of a bodily change, then the very brain state that underlies that perception must be able to arise in the absence of a bodily change, acting as if the body had changes; that is,

emotions may bypass the bodily changes. In addition, there is evidence that some neurons involved in body control also serve in body perception. Most notably, mirror neurons¹⁰ in motor cortex respond when we move our hands and when we see hands move. Perhaps some of the cells that underlie perceptions of bodily changes also orchestrate such changes. If so, we would be able to experience changes in our bodies through the very act of instructing our bodies to change. When this occurs, experience of change would occur prior to, and independent of actually change in the body. In sum, some emotions fall outside the explanatory purview of somatic theory; for example, certain moral, aesthetic, and intellectual feelings.

Emotion Appraisals Approach

This theoretical approach follows that emotions are bodily perceptions plus evaluations. The evaluative judgments can serve as appraisals of emotions. But remember that the intentional content of emotions does not entail that they should be regarded as constituent parts. For example, an emotion can be triggered by a passing thought or fleeting perception, and then linger. Consider a bout of fear caused when one mistakes a shadow for a bug moving across the floor. Furthermore, if emotions are elicited by different representations on different occasions, then there is no reason to think that any one of those representations qualify as constituent parts of the emotion. Such emotions would change from occasion to occasion, and consequences can be avoided. Therefore, note that an appraisal should not be treated as an evaluative judgment, but as any representation of an organism environment relation that bears on well-being. Although evaluative judgments can serve as appraisals, they are not alone. Imagine, if any nonjudgmental state represents an organism environment relation that represents well-being, then it can also count as an appraisal.

Conclusion

Emotions determine the quality of our lives. They occur in every relationship we care about—in the workplace, in our friendships, in dealings with family members, and in our most intimate relationships. It is interesting

to note that consumers don't have much control over what they become emotional about, but it is possible, though not easy, to make some changes in what triggers their emotions and to know how they behave when they are emotional. In addition, there are questions in the minds of marketers like whether or not their brands or products or services are treated and considered as emotional. A major dilemma comes in to play when you try to understand as to how consumers connect with their brands. Emotions are treated as something that can be sensed but that otherwise defies scientific measurement. For example, Coca-Cola has *it*—but we're never quite sure what it is. And too often, when measures of emotions are proposed or provided, they are complex and difficult to administer. They rely on strategies that are not always easy to replicate, like nonverbal photo sorts or deep psychological projective probing. More to the point, while these measures may correlate with consumers' stated intentions, they may fail to provide the sort of evidence that is demanded in the boardroom: How well do they link to actual, hard-number financial outcomes? Psychologists have been studying human emotions for some time, and they have identified a number of them, ranging from *anger* to *disgust* and from *envy* to *love*. In sum, this creates several questions in mind; such as, what are the emotions that a brand marketer should seek to embrace. What is the value of an emotional association? When an emotional connection is present or when it's growing or intensifying—and above all, why should a consumer care about these at all? Therefore, in order to study further the impact of emotions on consumer buying behavior, in Chapter 2, I discuss not only the structure and functions of emotions but also self-conscious and self-evaluation, along with the social comparisons.

CHAPTER 2

Dynamics of Emotions

Introduction

Human perception of naturalistic expressions of emotions is difficult to estimate. This difficulty is in part due to the presence of complex emotions, defined as emotions that contain shades of multiple affective classes. The plethora of emotion literature addresses a range of perspectives and approaches to emotions. A social-constructionist approach implies that emotions are enacted; that is, through their actions, individuals actively take part in the construction of emotions related to their interpretations of the environment. Emotions include cognitive processes as an element in emotions and as such both when emotions are unintentional and when we control or manage them, we are influenced consciously or unconsciously by societal norms, values, traditions, and morality. The social interaction process is an evolving action, fluid and constantly changing, where relationships are relative rather than being fixed. It creates opportunities for those with the ability to form and exploit relationships. Hence, it is significant to understand and appreciate the processes, the discourse of emotions, and the management of emotions. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to discuss various structures and perspective of emotions to better understand as to how emotions arise, evolve, morph, interact, and influence consumer learning and engagement. Despite the debates regarding the boundary conditions of emotion, however, there is considerable agreement that emotional responses are relatively brief, phasic events that can be decomposed into experiential, expressive, and physiological components. According to a functional view of emotion, each specific emotional state is thought to reflect the coordination of these response components to best effect an adaptive response to an environmental challenge. In this respect, emotions can be considered as states of readiness, or action dispositions, which are organized along two opposing

overarching approach and avoidance motivational systems. Engagement of these neurobehavioral motivational systems is assumed to prime a body of motivation-relevant associations and representations and a repertoire of motivation-related behaviors. More specifically, the engagement of these approach or avoidance motivational systems is thought to facilitate goal-directed behavior toward something desirable or away from something noxious, respectively. Although contextual factors may further shape the overt manifestations of emotion, these motivational systems may be considered as neurally rooted circuits that fundamentally drive emotional behavior. It should be noted that although emotions are widely considered to be a relatively brief phenomena, there is important variability in the time course, or chronometry, of emotional responses, and this variability is becoming the focus of increasing empirical and theoretical attention. That is, emotional responses are not wholly temporally constrained by the presence of an eliciting stimulus, but instead vary in their peak and duration in ways that may hold important information about individual differences.

Structure of Emotions

Marketing scholars have started to study emotions evoked by marketing stimuli, products, and brands. Many studies involving consumer emotions have focused on consumers' emotional responses to advertising and the mediating role of emotions on the satisfaction of consumers. Because what people really want out of life, out of their jobs, out of the products they buy, or the airplanes they fly in simply can't be articulated. If you ask people what they want, they just tell you what they read in a book or magazine, and, honestly, they cannot really express their deep feelings. Therefore, you know what Boeing did to address this, more specifically, Boeing discovered not only how people view flight, but also what sorts of features in an airliner's interior might have universal appeal. They used space, lighting, and other build in details that would create a pleasant consumer experience in the form of the Boeing Dream liner. So now when you board, you will enter a spacious foyer where two arches curve up into a ceiling that seems to disappear into a bright morning sky. The arches draw your eyes upward. The ceiling, washed with light from

hidden light-emitting diodes, almost glows, in stark contrast to the glare of fluorescent tubes that usually provide light in conventional airliner cabins. During the flight, flight attendants can change the brightness and color of the cabin light to create a sense of morning, dusk, and night time. Emotions have been shown to play an important role in other contexts such as complaining about service failures and product attitudes. Emotions are often conceptualized as general dimensions, like positive and negative affect, but there has also been an interest in more specific emotions. There are clear differences in the extent to which people express their emotions. Emotionally expressive individuals have higher levels of self-esteem, well-being, life satisfaction, social closeness, and lower levels of social anhedonia. However, with regard to structure, some researchers examine all emotions at the same level of generality, whereas others specify a hierarchical structure in which specific emotions are particular instances of more general underlying basic emotions. Second, and relatedly, there is debate concerning the content of emotions. Should emotions be most fruitfully conceived as very broad general factors, such as pleasure or arousal or positive or negative affect. Alternatively, appraisal theorists argue that specific emotions should not be combined in broad emotional factors, because each emotion has a distinct set of appraisals. The confusion concerning structure and content of emotions has hindered the full interpretation and use of emotions in consumer behavior. There is wide divergence in the content of emotion, but the classification of emotions in positive and negative affect appears to be the most popular conceptualization. The two traditional theories of emotions are discrete and dimensional emotion theory. According to discrete theories, there exist a small number, between 9 and 14, of basic or fundamental emotions that are characterized by very specific response patterns in physiology as well as in facial and vocal expression. In the tradition of the discrete description of emotions, there is an existence of a set of six fundamental emotions like happiness, sadness, fear, anger, neutral, and surprise that are often used in research with this theory. The discrete description of the emotions is the most direct way than other definitions to discuss emotional clues conveyed by consumers. Using such a discrete emotion approach is more likely to distinguish an emotion from the given kinds than to recognize emotions in the whole emotional space. In the dimensional theories of

emotion, emotional states are often mapped in a two- or three-dimensional space. The two major dimensions consist of the valence dimension (pleasant–unpleasant, agreeable–disagreeable) and an activity dimension (active–passive). If a third dimension is used, it often represents either power or control. Usually, several discrete emotion terms are mapped into the dimensional space according to their relationships to the dimensions. For example, some of the dimensional opinions of the emotions characterize the emotional states in arousal and appraisal components. Intense emotions are accompanied by increased levels of physiological arousal.

Impact of Cultural Structure on Emotions

Feelings signal to us in a manner culture influences what we feel and how we name it. More specifically, there is an impact of cultural structure on emotions and on the vocabularies that people use to verbalize emotional states. For example, to name a feeling is to identify your way of seeing something, label your perception since culture directs your seeing and expect that it directs your feeling, and your naming of the feeling. In addition to cultural structure, a society's social structure may also influence our emotions and our cognitive labels for them. Power and status may be treated as universal social or relational dimensions underlying the production of human emotion,¹ that is, at a macro level. The vocabulary of emotions in any society may reflect its power, status and relationships as embodied, for example, in its system of social stratification. If emotion structure is employed to refer to the number and nature of dimensions required to span the emotions domain, as well as to the general configuration of points therein, emotion content encompasses a society's vocabulary of emotions, including the average level of intensity and affective range invoked by these cognitive labels. To the extent that human emotion has a universal component called a biological substratum; we would expect it to be reflected in a similarity of emotion structure across cultures. To the extent that there is a cultural component, we would expect it to be manifested in variations of emotion content across cultures, interacting with the biological to produce some variation in the emotion structure itself.

Both biosocial and cognitive-social theories of emotions acknowledge that an emotion is a complex phenomenon. They generally agree

that an emotion includes physiological functions, expressive behavior, and subjective experience and that each of these components is based on activity in the brain and nervous system. Some theorists, particularly of the cognitive-social persuasion, hold that an emotion also involves cognition, an appraisal, or cognitive evaluative process that triggers the emotion and determines, or contributes to, the subjective experience of the emotion. It is important to remember that the components of an emotion stem from highly interdependent processes. The subjective experience of an emotion, as well as the physiological and expressive components, are manifestations of processes occurring in the brain, nervous system, and body.

The Physiological Component

The physiological component of the emotion traditionally has been identified as activity in the autonomic nervous system (ANS) and the visceral organs (e.g., heart, lungs), which it innervates. However, some current theorists' hold that the neural basis of emotions resides in the central nervous system (CNS) and that the ANS is recruited by emotion to fulfill certain functions related to sustaining and regulating emotion experience and emotion related behavior.²

Similarly, neuroanatomical studies have shown that the CNS structures involved in emotion activation have afferent pathways to the ANS. For example, efferents from the amygdala to the hypothalamus may influence the ANS activity involved in defensive reactions.³ Thus the emotions of joy, surprise, sadness, anger, disgust, and fear could be differentiated by their patterns of heart rate and skin temperature.

Differential Roles of the Brain Hemispheres

Do we know that the two brain hemispheres are involved differently in different emotions?

Interestingly, the right (or dominant) hemisphere may be more involved in mediating emotion than the left.⁴ The right hemisphere is more involved than the left in processing emotion information and mediating emotion experiences. The right hemisphere may be more involved

in processing negative emotions and the left hemisphere more involved in processing positive emotions.⁵

The Expressive Component

The expressive component of emotion includes facial, vocal, postural, and gestural activity. Research indicates that facial expression is the most essential and stable aspect of emotion expression in human beings. Expressive behavior is mediated by phylogenetically old structures of the brain, suggesting that they may have served survival functions in the course of evolution.

Furthermore, there is a considerable body of evidence on the neural control of animals' emotional behavior, behavior that often has both signal value and instrumental functions. For example, the porcupine's erect bristles tell us the porcupine is threatened, and at the same time they discourage predators from attacking it. Emotion expressions involve limbic and forebrain structures and aspects of the peripheral nervous system. The facial and trigeminal nerves and receptors in facial muscles and skin are required for emotion expressions and sensory feedback. Early studies of the neural basis of emotion expression showed that aggressive behavior can be elicited and suggested that the hypothalamus is a critical subcortical structure mediating aggression.⁶ Thus, medial areas of the hypothalamus elicit affective attack or defensive behavior, whereas stimulation of lateral sites in the hypothalamus elicits predatory attack. However, the central gray region of the midbrain and the substantia nigra may be the key structures mediating aggressive behavior in animals.

Neural Pathways of Facial Expression

The patterns of facial movements constitute the chief means of displaying emotion-specific signals. We have already noted that the facial expressions of seven basic emotions are innate and universal. Whereas, research has provided much information on the neural basis of emotional behaviors (e.g., aggression) in animals, little is known about the brain structures that control facial expressions. The peripheral pathways of emotion expression consist of the cranial nerves VII and V. Nerve VII or the facial nerve is the

efferent pathway; it conveys motor messages from the brain to the facial muscles. Nerve V or the trigeminal nerve is the afferent pathway that provides sensory data from movements of facial muscles and skin. The trigeminal nerve transmits the facial feedback that, according to some theorists, contributes to the activation and regulation of emotion experience. The impulses for this sensory feedback originate when movement stimulates the proprioceptors in the muscle spindles and the mechanoreceptors in the skin.

The facial skin is richly supplied with such receptors, and the many branches of the trigeminal nerve appear quite adequate to the task of detecting and conveying the sensory impulses to the brain. The trigeminal nerve divides into three main branches, one for each major region of the face. Each of these regions contains muscle groups that make the appearance changes that constitute the emotion-specific components of the facial expressions of the emotions.

Studies have shown that people in literate and preliterate cultures have a common understanding of the expressions of joy, surprise, sadness, anger, disgust, contempt, and fear. Other studies have suggested that interest and shyness may also be innate and universal. There is uncertainty about the universality of the expressions of interest and shyness, and no basis for believing there are universal expressions for shame and guilt, but a number of scientists believe that these four emotions are also biologically based and universal. Studies have shown that people in literate and preliterate cultures have a common understanding of the expressions of joy, surprise, sadness, anger, disgust, contempt, and fear.

The Experiential Component

There is general agreement that stimulus events and neural processes leading to an emotion result not only in physiological activities and expressive behavior, but also in subjective experience. Some biosocial theorists restrict the definition of an emotion experience to a feeling state and argue that it can obtain and function independently of cognition.⁷ Experiences that involve feeling and cognition are viewed as affective-cognitive structures. Cognitive-social theorists view the experiential component of emotion as having a cognitive aspect. For example, consumers perceive or

detect the underlying physiological changes before they can experience the feeling states; upon detection, the perceived change in the feeling state is motivational and it invites a cognitive judgment or interpretation of its cause. Emotion experiences occur as the result of the cognitive interpretations and evaluations of physiological states and expressions.⁸

However, consumers have a concept of self before emotion can be evoked and experienced. In my view, when consumers look at brands, they develop a fairly complex cognitive structure even before they can feel or experience emotion, and then they proceed to purchase the same. The issue regarding the possibility of independence of emotion feeling states and cognition remains unresolved, but it is widely agreed that emotion-feeling states and cognitive processes are frequently, if not typically, highly interactive. The experiential component of emotion is the easiest and at the same time the most difficult to explain. It is easy in that it is the aspect of emotion that acquires consciousness. It is what we feel in contentment and involvement and during the challenges and frustrations of daily life. Emotion experience is difficult to define and explain because it is ultimately a private matter. Attempts to communicate about emotion experiences are thwarted by the seeming inadequacy of language to describe precisely how we feel. There are a few instances where feelings and words are perfectly matched, where a word gives a complete sense of the feeling we are experiencing.

The Functions of Emotions

Do Emotions Influence Perception, Cognition, Social Relations, and Actions?

The Functions of the Physiological Component

The ANS-mediated physiological activity that accompanies emotion states can be considered as part of the individual's effort to adapt and cope. Higher heart rate and increased respiration can facilitate the motor activities required for aggressive or defensive action in anger or fear-eliciting situations. Heart-rate deceleration at the onset of interest may reflect physiological quieting that facilitates information processing. It is easy to understand the adaptiveness of anger- or fear-related change in

the cardiovascular system where the situation calls for defense of life and limb or escape from imminent danger. It is not so easy to understand it in a situation such as a confrontation with an irate spouse, client, or sales executive or supervisor. In the latter type of situation, adaptiveness appears to follow from effective regulation of emotion experience and expression, which in turn helps regulate physiological processes. That, the physiological processes associated with emotion require regulation does not mean that they are not inherently adaptive. Among other things, the ANS activity and the activity of hormones and other neurotransmitters are probably essential to maintaining emotion-driven cognition and action over time. Furthermore, changes in patterns of ANS activity, in accordance with changes in specific emotions, may be essential to adaptive functioning. Adaptation to events and situations that elicit interest require quite a different behavioral strategy than do situations that elicit fear. The heart-rate deceleration and quieting of internal organs in interest should maximize intake and cognitive processing of information, whereas heart-rate acceleration in fear prepares us to cope by more active means, whether through cognitive processes, gross motor actions, verbalizations, or various combinations of these behaviors.

The Functions of Emotion Expressions

Emotion expressions have three major functions: (a) they contribute to the activation and regulation of emotion experiences; (b) they communicate something about our internal states and intentions to others; and (c) they activate emotions in others, a process that can help account for empathy and altruistic behavior. Emotion expressions contribute to the activation and regulation of emotion experiences. Even voluntary emotion expression evokes emotion feeling.⁹ Even the simulation (expression) of an emotion tends to arouse it in our minds; that is, sensations created by the movements of expressive behavior activate, or contribute to the activation of, the emotion feeling.

There is some scientific support for the old advice to “smile when you feel blue” and “whistle a happy tune when you’re afraid.” What functions do emotions serve? One school of thought says that emotions serve no useful functions, and, in fact, disrupt ongoing activity, disorganize

behavior, and generally lack the logic, rationality, and principled orderliness of reason and other cognitive processes. The other school of thought conveys that those emotions serve clearly specified functions, such as prioritizing and organizing ongoing behaviors in ways that optimize the individual's adjustment to the demands of the physical and social environment. Despite widespread references to the functions of emotions, however, there are few explicit discussions of what a functional approach to emotion entails. To define this sense of function, it is helpful to begin with what functions are not. Functions are not solely identified as to what something is used for or what it is good for, because behavior, traits, or systems have many uses and are good for many things that are not synonymous with their functions (e.g., the sound of the heart beating can be used to diagnose physical conditions, knives can be used to paint). Nor are functions underlying mechanisms,¹⁰ which refer to processes, typically physiological or cognitive, that produce behavior with certain functions. Nor are functions goals, which refer to properties of action.¹¹ Rather, functions are a certain sort of consequence of goal-directed action. Functions are identified in etiological explanations of the origins and development of the behavior, trait, or system. Functional ascriptions, therefore, refer to the history of behavior, trait, or system, as well as its regular consequences that benefit the organism, or more specifically, the system in which the trait, behavior, or system is contained.¹² Thus, one perspective is that emotions do not serve adaptive functions, and, in fact, are pernicious to human adjustment. This view dates back to the classical philosophers and motivates the prevalent metaphor that reason should be the master of the unruly and untrustworthy passions.¹³ A second perspective holds that emotions once served functions in the environment of human evolution, but no longer do so in their present form in the present environment. A third perspective holds that emotions serve functions now as they have previously. Emotions are adaptations to problems in the current human environment. Inferences about functions of emotions, therefore, can be based upon the analyses of specific causes and consequences of emotion within the current environment. Thus, emotions are adaptations to the problems of social and physical survival.

In other words, emotions are systems of interrelated components offering solutions to specific problems of survival or adjustment. Finally,

beneficial consequences are also expressed in terms of functions of emotions, but the challenge is to know and to establish as to whether emotions are best conceptualized in general or specific terms, in dimensional or discrete terms, or as biologically based or socially constructed entities. Evolutionary theorists explain functions of emotions by identifying their origins in functionally equivalent responses of other species and in characterizing how biologically based, genetically encoded emotions met selection pressures, or threats to survival, specific to the physical and social environment of human evolution. Whereas, social constructionists focus on how emotion is constructed according to social, structural, and moral-ideological forces that represent culture and the historical social context. Both perspectives identify the causal forces that account for how emotions originate, develop, and operate within the current social and physical environment; they differ on the components of emotion, causal forces, and evolutionary or constructive processes that are of interest. Functional accounts treat emotions, behaviors, or organs as systems of coordinated responses. For example, the components of the cardiovascular system, including the heart, vasculature, and baroreceptors, serve interrelated functions that allow for the distribution of blood to support different kinds of action. Functional accounts of emotions, likewise, treat emotions as complex systems of coordinated yet separate subsystems that meet the myriad and dynamic demands posed by the problems of physical and social survival. The conceptual implications of a systems approach to emotion are several. First, the subsystems of emotions are likely to serve different functions, a notion supported by the weak correlations usually observed among the measures of the different emotion response systems. Thus, nonverbal and vocal emotional behavior serves communicative functions. The autonomic responses of emotion supports the execution of flexible yet specific action tendencies, perception and experience reprioritize, structure, and provide input into information processing and judgment and decision making. The coordination of all afferent and efferent activity of emotions is done by CNS. In systems approach, emotions are treated as dynamic processes that emerge in the interaction between the activity of emotion response systems and changes in the physical and social environment. It also involves feedback processes in which information about changes in the environment modifies the

different response systems of emotion, and, similarly, it involves control processes that co-ordinate the different subsystems of emotion in response to a changing environment. Furthermore, functions of behaviors or traits are often equated with their systematic, beneficial consequences, both in terms of distal benefits relating to enhanced survival rates of the individual, offspring, and related kin, and proximal benefits relating to improved conditions of the physical and social environment. Functional accounts address the antecedents of emotion, but, additionally, specify the systematic consequences of emotion within a given context, which in part account for the evolution or construction of the emotion. For example, appeasement is believed to be one of the consequences and function of embarrassment and shame and redressing injustice is believed to be one of the consequences and function of anger, not all consequences of emotions relate to their functions. Function-related consequences are those reliable effects on the environment that the structure of an emotion, that is, its pattern of experience, communication, physiology, and action, was specifically designed to bring about, either through the process of evolution, according to evolutionary theorists, or socialization and cultural elaboration according to social constructionists. Accidental consequences of emotion, in contrast, are less clearly related to the conditions that elicit the emotion, the structure, and goals of emotion-related responses, and are typically less regular for distinctions between accidents and functions. For example, anger might plausibly have several consequences, including increased phone bills, parking tickets, eating binges, and irrational bouts of house-cleaning, which do not relate to the assumed function of anger, the restoration of just relations. Emotion-related consequences may be distinguished from function-related consequences by their relative independence from the causes of emotion and emotion related responses, and their irregularity of co-occurrence both within the same individual over time and across different individuals.

Self-Conscious Emotions

All of emotional life takes place in a social environment. From the beginning of life, the early emotions such as joy, sadness, fear, anger, disgust, and interest are affected by the social world.

The circumstances and situations that evoke these emotions and their expressions are affected by the rules and regulations of their parents, siblings, and peers. Thus, it is safe to conclude that even these early emotions are socialized. Even so, there is some reason to believe that these emotions themselves are not learned but have an evolutionary adaptive significance for the species. We move from these early emotions to self-conscious emotions; socialization plays an increasing role in determining what situation elicits what emotions, as well as how they are expressed. One might think of development of emotional life as requiring an ever increasing socialization influence.

To understand the ontogenesis of these emotions, it is necessary to consider the cognitive development, which likely gives rise to them. The emergence, both phylogenetically and ontogenically, of the mental representation of *me* or self-reflected awareness, provides the capacities most necessary for the emergence of these self-conscious emotions.¹⁴ It is the capacity to think about the self, that is self-reflection or awareness, along with other emerging cognitive capacities that provides the basis for these emotions beyond primary emotions like fear, anger, and joy. The set of the self-conscious emotions include embarrassment, jealousy, empathy as well as shame, guilt, hubris, and pride. These emotions require the cognitive ability to reflect on the self but do not require elaborate cognitive capacities such as the understanding of rules and standards, but the emergence of self-awareness gives rise to such emotions as embarrassment, empathy, and jealousy. Embarrassment is a complex emotion that first emerges when self-awareness allows for the idea of me. For example, when a consumer in a store becomes the object of another's attention. The attention of others acts as an elicitor of embarrassment. Even compliments from the store personnel may result in some kind of embarrassment; even pointing to this consumer and saying his or her name can produce this effect. It is because of being the object of other's attention due to a failure of some standard expected rules and regulation and behavioral outcome in the store. Empathy also emerges at this time since the consumer can now place himself or herself in the role of the other. The consumer may also reflect an appearance of jealousy if she or he is capable of knowing that another has what she or he wants to purchase from the store. Remember that these self-conscious emotions appear early during the age of 15 to 24 months.

They are not the consequence of your knowledge of the standards, rules, and goals of the people around you; they are the direct consequence of your ability to consider themselves in your interactions with others. Self-conscious evaluative emotions also include guilt, shame, pride, and hubris. Embarrassment can occur both as a function of being the object of another's attention in and of him or her, and also because of being the object of other's attention due to a failure of some expected behavior in a particular situation. The emotion of guilt or regret is produced when individuals evaluate their behavior as failure, but focus on the specific features of the self, or on the self's action which led to the failure. Similarly, shame is the product of a complex set of cognitive activities: the evaluation of an individual's actions in regard to their socially and culturally accepted behavior, and their global evaluation of the self. The phenomenological experience of the person having shame is that of a wish to hide, disappear, or die. It is a highly negative and painful state which also results in the disruption of ongoing behavior, the confusion in thought and an inability to speak. There are specific actions people employ when shamed such as reinterpreting the causes of the shame, self-splitting (multiple personalities), or forgetting (repression). Shame is not produced by any specific situation but rather by the individual's interpretation of the event. Here the individual focuses on the self's actions and behaviors, which are likely to repair the failure, as the cognitive attributional process focuses on the action of the self rather than on the totality of self, the feeling that is produced—guilt—is not as intensely negative as shame and does not lead to confusion and to the loss of action, but is associated with it a corrective action which the individual can do to repair the failure. Because in guilt the focus is on a specific attribution, individuals are capable of ridding themselves of this emotional state through action. The corrective action can be directed toward the self as well as toward the other; thus, unlike shame which is a melding of the self as subject and object, in guilt the self is differentiated from the object. As such, the emotion is less intense and more capable of dissipation. Hubris is defined as exaggerated pride or self-confidence often resulting in retribution. It is an example of pridefulness, something dislikeable, and to be avoided. Hubris is a consequence of an evaluation of success at one's standards, rules, and goals where the focus is on the global self. In this emotion, the individual focuses on the

total self as successful. It is associated with such descriptions as *puffed up*. In extreme cases, it is associated with grandiosity or with narcissism. People observe the individual having hubris with some disdain. Proud people have difficulty in their interpersonal relations since their own hubris is likely to interfere with the wishes, needs, and desires of others, in which case, there is likely to be interpersonal conflict. The three problems associated with a proud person are (1) it is a transient but addictive emotion; (2) it is not related to a specific action and, therefore, requires altering patterns of goal-setting or evaluation around what constitutes success; and (3) it interferes with interpersonal relationships because of its contemptuous and insolent nature.

Pride is the consequence of a successful evaluation of a specific action. The phenomenological experience is “joy over an action, thought or feeling well done.” Here, again, the focus of pleasure is specific and related to a particular behavior. In pride, the self and object are separated as in guilt. Unlike shame and hubris, where subject and object are fused, pride focuses the organism on its action. The organism is engrossed in the specific action which gives it pride. Because this positive state is associated with a particular action, individuals have available to themselves the means by which they can reproduce the state. Notice that, unlike hubris, pride’s specific focus allows for action. Because of the general use of the term *pride* to refer to *hubris*, *efficacy*, and *satisfaction*, the study of pride as hubris has received relatively little attention. In sum, discussion of self-conscious emotions requires us to note that in order to understand them we must keep in mind that the biology of the species, and the cultural rules that surround the individual, along with the individual’s specific dispositional functions like temperament, are all necessary for the understanding of their purchase decision making. The self-conscious emotions are particularly important for helping individuals recognize and correct their social mistakes. For example, the experience of self-conscious emotions provides internal feedback about a specific goal, expectation, or standard that has been violated. The specific nature of the violation is specific to particular self-conscious emotions. Violations of social conventions may result in embarrassment, violations of character ideals are associated with shame, and violations of rules related to harm, justice, and rights are related to guilt. The display of self-conscious emotion also leads

to emotions and behaviors in others that help remedy social transgressions. Also, negative self-conscious emotions are important to examine in the field of consumer behavior. These emotions have been identified as drivers of social behavior; each day consumers make decisions and form attitudes and thoughts based on the negative self-conscious emotions they experience. Thus, these emotions are a common occurrence in the marketplace, making them particularly relevant to examine in the consumption experience. Indeed, consumers make decisions to avoid experiencing these negative emotions. Some of these are discussed in the following sections.

Anger

Anger is an emotion that arises when someone else is blamed for a situation, and it motivates the person to do something to remove the source of harm. Anger appears to be quite common in consumption experiences. Customer anger is a negatively valenced emotion that occurs when another individual, object (e.g., product), or organization (e.g., retailer, service provider) is blamed for a problem. Angry customers are less satisfied, give lower service expectations, have higher perceptions of injustice, and give weaker ratings of corporate image. Angry customers are also less likely to spread positive word of mouth, and are more likely to complain and exhibit negative repurchase intentions.

Worry

Worry occurs when an individual engages in thoughts of a negative, uncontrollable event. Typically, the individual is trying to avoid the anticipated threat. Worry is often expressed as anxiety. Anxious feelings have been found in a variety of consumer behavior contexts. Consumers with high anxiety have a preference for sincere brands. In addition, anxiety triggers a preference for products that are safer and provide a sense of control. Anxiety has also been linked to gift giving; people are anxious when they are highly motivated to induce desired actions from recipients and others, and are doubtful of success. Finally, technology anxiety prevents people from using self-service Technologies.

Sadness

Sadness is an emotion characterized by feelings of loss and helplessness. In marketing, sadness has been studied to an extent, but not systematically. Most research on sadness examines a sad mood or overall sad affective states. When consumers are in a sad state, they eat larger amounts of hedonic foods than when they are in a happy state. Similarly, consumers in a sad mood are more prone to affective attitude formation than participants in a happy mood.

Fear

Fear is the common response to threat and uncertainty and has been used extensively in marketing, particularly in advertising appeals. Here moderate fear arousal increases intention, whereas low and high fears either do not change intentions (in the case of low fear) or can cause a boomerang effect (in the case of high fear). However, the individual characteristics can moderate the behavior; high fear may be effective if the recipients are involved, whereas low fear may be more effective for people who are less involved. Thus, mediating the role of fear helps in predicting behavioral intentions, and in the influence of individual differences.

Discontent

The specific emotion of *discontent* is similar to the lack of satisfaction, a term commonly used in marketing. Satisfaction is generally viewed as an outcome of consumption (product or service purchase or experience), whereby a comparison is made between expectations of performance and actual achievement. Satisfaction arises when actual performance or experience is greater than or equal to expectations, and dissatisfaction occurs otherwise. The determinants of satisfaction can include positive affect (interest and joy) and negative affect (anger, disgust, contempt, shame, guilt, fear, and sadness). Remember that satisfaction shares a much common variance with positive emotions such as happiness, joy, gladness, elation, delight, and enjoyment, among others. Thus, it seems discontent can be argued to be similar to an overall state of negative affect or dissatisfaction. In consumption experiences, lack of satisfaction has been

linked to a negative word-of-mouth, lower patronage intentions, lower trust, and lower commitment. Similar is the case of envy, loneliness, and shame, where envy is characterized by a negative state, that is, when a person lacks another's perceived superior quality, achievement, or possession. Envy has also been associated with upward social comparisons; comparing oneself to another who has something that the envier considers to be important to have. Loneliness is characterized by feelings of emptiness and solitude. In conclusion the self-conscious emotions are intimately intertwined in the relationship between a person and the self. Feelings of shame and guilt arise in the context of self-blame; embarrassment arises based on some action of the self. When people experience failure, they search for explanations and causes. If the search reveals that the self is to blame, one of these guilt, embarrassment, and shame emotions occurs.

Self-Evaluation Emotions

The understanding of emotions in social contexts is critical for coordinating adaptive social interactions and relationships. For example, people are required to verbally describe emotions to express and to share with other people; they also need to read others' emotions accurately in everyday social interactions. All these activities may be accompanied by explicit and conscious emotional processing. For successful social interactions, we need to know how we feel about ourselves and to understand how other people feel about situations. We can then decide whether we hide or express our emotions to other people and are able to detect whether others are hiding or expressing their emotions. Emotional processing in everyday social situations occurs in conscious, deliberate manners in both self (evaluation of one's own emotions) and others (evaluation of others' emotions).

Self-Conscious Emotions and Evaluation

Embarrassment, social anxiety, pride, guilt, and shame constitute the self-conscious emotions, which share a focus on evaluation. Self-conscious emotions always involve a self-evaluative process through self-representations and self-awareness. The experience of other basic emotions can, at times, involve self-evaluation, but it is not required. Self-representation

is a necessary antecedent for the experience of self-conscious emotions. However, people experience self-conscious emotions based on how they perceive they are being evaluated by others, not by how they are evaluating themselves. Nevertheless, both the views involve the underlying component of evaluation. The self-conscious emotions experienced by consumers, along with the implications of these emotions, would likely have an effect not only on the consumer's purchase decisions, but also on their shopping enjoyment, persistence in purchase, and ability to cope with purchase related issues. For example, the Dove brand is rooted in listening to women. Based on the findings of a major global study, Dove launched the Campaign for Real Beauty in 2004; the campaign started a global conversation about the need for a wider definition of beauty. It employed various communications vehicles to challenge beauty stereotypes and invite women to join a discussion about beauty. The main message of the Dove campaign was that women's unique differences should be celebrated, rather than ignored, and that physical appearance should be transformed from a source of anxiety to a source of confidence. The main issue being targeted was the repetitive use of unrealistic, unattainable images, which consequently pose restrictions on the definition of beauty. Dove sought to change the culture of advertising by challenging beauty stereotypes; they selected women whose appearances are outside the stereotypical norms of beauty (e.g., older women with wrinkles, overweight women). The real women were attractive and likeable to their female audience because they were relatable and provided a *fresh* perspective within the media. In relation to the Dove campaign, it could be assumed that these *real* women are perceived as overall similar, leading women to engage in these assimilative processes. This would result in women being more likely to report higher self-evaluations when the target has desirable traits and lower self-evaluations when the target has undesirable traits. Therefore, in assuming that these real women of the Dove campaign possess desirable traits, and that these assimilative processes have occurred, the advertisements would have a positive effect on women's self-appraisals, and generally make women feel good about themselves. Beyond simply making people feel good about the company, what Dove has so successfully done is reframe the function of purchasing their beauty products and toiletries from one focused on utilitarian

outcomes (such as the quality and price of the products—things that are virtually never mentioned in the ads) to one that is focused on expressing important values and connecting with others.

While shame and guilt are often used interchangeably in everyday language, they are distinct. Shame arises from a negative self-evaluation and can result from a feeling that we have not lived up to the standards or goals we have set for ourselves. There is failure in moral action or not meeting the moral, competence, or aesthetic expectations of society. With the goals, decisions, and expectations from multiple sources involved in consumers' decision making, it is likely that consumers often have to deal with feelings of shame. Shame can be very painful, as the entire self, not just a particular aspect, is scrutinized and negatively evaluated. Shame is often regulated by attempting to make external attributions to deal with the painful emotion, such as blaming others for wrong purchase decisions. It is important to note that while shame is regulated using an external source, it is still the result of an internal, stable, and controllable attribution. While shame involves a negative evaluation of a central aspect of the self, guilt implies a negative evaluation of a specific behavior. Feelings of guilt involve the perception that someone has done something *bad* or wrong and as such individuals experiencing guilt often feel tension, remorse, and regret. However, the person experiencing guilt may feel bad for the moment, but his or her self-concept and identity remain relatively intact. Effort attributions for failure often result in guilt when one is experiencing guilt; the focus usually turns to reparative actions, such as confessing, apologizing, undoing, or repairing, which suggests that aspects of the self can be changed. However, guilt-prone individuals have also been shown to respond by making internal attributions, resulting in more guilt. Thus, the distinguishing feature of guilt and shame is the stability and controllability of the attribution. Internal, uncontrollable, and presumably stable attributions for failure are associated with shame, while internal, controllable, unstable attributions are associated with feelings of guilt. For example, a poor purchase attributed to ability would result in shame, whereas a poor product or service purchase decision based on effort would result in guilt. Additionally, shame also prompts a concern with others' evaluation of the self, whereas guilt promotes concern with one's effect on others. Experiencing shame can result in a considerable

shift in self-perception, fostering a sense of worthlessness and powerlessness. Most people aim to remove themselves from these feelings, and, as a result, shame often leads to escapist behaviors and potentially maladaptive withdrawal from interpersonal experiences. Individuals experiencing shame may hold a set of beliefs about themselves that make it difficult to use the skills they have. It is not the intent to eliminate all self-conscious emotions, but rather the key seems to keep them in balance and find ways for individuals to deal with them effectively. An absence of shame and guilt have been theoretically linked to sociopathic and antisocial types of behavior, while excessive feelings of guilt, and especially shame, have been linked to depression, low self-concept, social withdrawal, and obsessive reactions. Similarly, the self-conscious emotion of pride can be elicited in many situations, including achievement related events and behavior, relationships, and family. Similar to the distinction between shame and guilt, two facets of pride are recognized in the self-conscious emotion literature. Authentic, or beta, pride is pride based on one's actions and results from attributions to internal, unstable, controllable causes. An alternate form of pride, hubristic, or alpha, pride is pride in the global self and is attributed to internal, stable, uncontrollable causes. While pride in one's successes has been suggested to promote positive consumer behavior, the hubristic pride has been negatively associated with self-esteem, and more strongly related to narcissism than authentic pride. The self-conscious emotions are related to various cognitions and behaviors, particularly those involving self-evaluation. Self-presentation, which is the process by which people attempt to control the perceptions others form of them, can result in self-presentational concerns, such as social physique anxiety a subtype of social anxiety that occurs as a result of the prospect or presence of interpersonal evaluation involving one's physique. This is often linked to maladaptive behaviors and cognitions, such as unhealthy eating and fast food purchase behaviors and negative perfectionism especially in young consumers. In sum, elicitation of shame following failure, as well as the evaluation of the self-required to recognize failure, implies the influence of self-conscious emotions. In sum, the appraisal theories of emotion assume that it is a person's subjective cognitive interpretation of an event (*appraisal*)—rather than the event itself—which elicits and differentiates between emotions. More specifically, they suggest that specific

configurations of how people interpret an event along a set of appraisal dimensions determine which discrete emotion is elicited over another. For example, an event appraised as relevant but incongruent with one's goals and caused by another person is proposed to elicit anger. Appraisal theorists suggest that these assessments can occur from conscious, deliberative information processing to unconscious, automatic processing. Given the subjective nature of appraisals, appraisal theories can explain why different events may elicit the same emotional response or why emotions toward the same event may vary from person to person and over time—it all depends on an individual's interpretation of that event in terms of her or his personal well-being. Although appraisal theorists propose a somewhat different set of appraisal dimensions and discrete emotions, a high degree of convergence on the nature of the appraisal dimensions exists. As a fundamental appraisal dimension, individuals are viewed as evaluating the relevance and congruence of an event with regard to personal goals or motives. While goal relevance evaluations determine whether an event is personally relevant, and hence an emotion is elicited at all (i.e., intensity of emotions), the motive consistency appraisal discriminates between emotions' valence: An event appraised as motive-consistent is suggested to elicit positive emotions, and an event judged as motive-inconsistent is likely to produce negative emotional responses. Some appraisal theorists further assume that people cope with emotions in an adaptive manner that affects cognitive processes or behavior coping, or both. From a functional perspective, emotions are conceived of as preparing an individual for an appropriate adaptive response to the demands of a personally relevant event. Hence, emotions comprise of both strong motivational forces and discrete emotions and have distinct action tendencies or coping responses.

Social Comparison Emotions

Emotion is made up of a number of components, most often considered within the context of the so-called *reaction triad* of psychological arousals, motor expressions, and subjective feelings. The strength of emotions can be realized when they are sensed as feelings felt. Everyone experiences these *feelings*. But, the concept of emotion goes beyond this; the

perception of how intense one's own emotions are compared with others' emotions is a recurring and central theme in social emotion perception. People's perception that their own distress about potential emergency situations is stronger than others' anguish is one reason why people fail to intervene in emergency situations. People's perception that they are more concerned about potentially harmful social norms compared with other humans is one reason why folks conform to social norms in public, which they reject in private. The belief that one's own emotions are more intense than others' emotions may be particularly pronounced for self-conscious emotions—which are often privately experienced and publicly concealed—such as fear of embarrassment, concerns about appearing politically incorrect, and other self-relevant anxieties. This implies that people generally perceive their own emotions as more intense than others' emotions, and that these perceptions can have profound and diverse consequences for social behavior. The perceived difference in emotional intensity between the self and others is pronounced when emotions are immediately or recently experienced. The meaning of emotion is generally constructed by social interaction leading to an understanding of accepted behavior and value patterns. In this sense, the meaning of emotions may vary between cultures and subcultures. Emotions are not simply internal events but are communicative acts addressed to specific audiences, and are thus partly defined according to conventional cultural representations. Also, the cultural differences in the conceptualization of the self can play a significant role in shaping emotional experiences. For example, if you are from an Asian culture, you may have a greater focus on the fundamental relatedness of individuals to each other, resulting in different experiences of such emotions as pride, guilt, and anger in comparison with Western peers who are more focused on individual and inner attributes. Thus, the cultural context of consumption will lead to socially constructed emotional responses, under the direction of situational norms. We continually interpret the situations we face through the values we have and also have a preference to experience things that reinforce these values. Oftentimes, interacting with others will impact not only one's behavior and thoughts, but also one's affective state because of the social induction of affect. People unconsciously start to imitate the facial expressions of the other person,

which elicits the same affect in them. As a consequence, they converge affectively toward the other's affective state. We experience concordant affective reactions to persons we feel similar to. There is a strong drive to feel equal to members of the similar group to maintain affective and cognitive balance. However, when we feel dissimilar to another person, a discordant affective reaction, that is, competition or conflict arises. Thus, people's affective reactions sometimes seem to converge, although at other times they diverge. Seeing another person smile may make you feel good or bad. When similarities between oneself and another person are in the foreground, the likelihood of concordant affective reactions seems to increase. For example, experiencing a similar situation or belonging to the same culture or group lead to concordant affective reactions, otherwise the discordant affective reactions are more likely. Thus, similarity plays a central role in social comparison emotions. Social comparisons are a major determinant of information accessibility, and, as such, social comparisons may also influence evaluations of one's own affective state. Self-evaluations may be influenced by spontaneous comparisons with accessible standards. For example, evaluating one's own affective state in a social situation, that is, in the direct or indirect presence of another, may be shaped by spontaneous comparisons linking social comparisons and affective experiences. For example, seeing a happy in group member may lead to a better mood in the perceiver, whereas seeing a happy out group member may lead to a decrease in the perceiver's mood. From this perspective, concordant and discordant affective reactions can be viewed as being influenced by social comparison processes. In addition, consumer behavior may not abruptly change when national borders are crossed and segments of consumers across national boundaries might be more similar than those within the same country. Therefore, the major challenge companies are facing in an international marketplace is to identify and satisfy the common needs and desires of global market segments. However, it is useful to use groups of consumers instead of countries as a basis for identifying international segments; as within a segment and regarding a particular—culture-independent—product category, consumer behaviors do not vary across cultures or countries. For example, information search and exchange can be regarded as universal consumer behaviors, and can be observed in all cultures.

Impact on Consumer Buying

Do emotions matter when it comes to buying goods and services? Similarly, do emotions have an impact on the decision-making process among consumers? Can there be an emotional capability of an organization to acknowledge, recognize, monitor, discriminate, and attend to emotions at both the individual and the collective levels. The marketers need to strike a balance between their own emotional commitment to offer goods and services, and the necessity to attend to the emotions of consumers purchasing the same. Emotions mix rather than marketing mix can turn out to be a decisive element in genuine relationships between marketers and consumers. For example, when we involve social media, we are allowing the consumer to talk back. Nowadays, in a digitized world too, consumer interests and their relevance become paramount because engaged consumers can interact on different platforms at the same time, and they want to see brands in action even before promises are made. Domino's did the same thing by involving consumers on different platforms at the same time in their marketing campaigns, such as asking their consumers what changes they would like to see. Also, Domino's very public admission of its own awfulness has opened the opportunity for consumer to express their emotions and talk back. Globally, brands are realizing and attempting to connect with the consumer at an emotional level in order to have a long lasting sustainable relationship with the user. In India, Domino's has subsequently evolved from a functional to an emotional brand. It has moved from "Hungry Kya?" to "30 minutes or free" and later on to "Khushiyon Ki Home Delivery." To assert this transformation in its brand identity and sustain high value equity, it has recently adopted a new positioning to connect deeper with the consumer. The new tagline of the brand now stands as "Yeh Hai Rishton Ka Time." More specifically, its campaign conveys that Domino's time is the time which people spend together in a casual and informal way, and it leads to the bonds that people share, becoming stronger, warmer, and more livelier. In sum, this conveys a new deeper and enduring level of emotional connect, with an attempt to evoke and enhance the happy memories and moments.

A social-constructionist approach believes that depending on relationships and social interactions emotions are enacted, that is, through

their actions individuals actively take part in the construction of emotions related to their interpretations of the environment. This view on emotions also includes cognitive processes as an element in emotions. Both when emotions are unintentional and when we control or manage them, we are influenced consciously or unconsciously by societal norms, values, traditions, and morality. The social interaction process is an evolving process, fluid and constantly changing, where relationships are relative rather than fixed. It creates opportunities for those with the ability to form and exploit relationships. In such processes, the discourse of emotions and the management of emotions are vital elements. The display and managing of emotions are an adaptation to social and cultural norms and compliance to professional rules, if any. For example, there can be feeling rules, display rules, surface acting rules, and deep acting rules as a part of managing and experiencing the emotions at work. The display of emotion is understood as observable changes in face, voice, body, and activity level, which are accompanied by emotional states. Emotional states are a combination of maturation, socialization, and cognition that also involve neurophysiological and hormonal responses as well as facial, bodily, and vocal changes. A person's emotional display is a function of several components, such as values, culture, age, and societal norms. Displayed emotions may reflect emotional experience defined as the interpretation and evaluation by individuals of their perceived emotional state and expression. Therefore, the display of emotions has a greater effect on consumers' behavior than verbal messages. Customers will take the sales personnel's emotional displays as key indicators of a company's intentions and sincerity. Thus, the correct display of emotions can make managers and marketers more effective. However, if they do not display emotions that are consistent with their authentic feelings, considering emotions can be masked, hidden, controlled, or displayed without being experienced, there would be a mismatch between the experienced and displayed emotions that a consumer observes. At the same time, buying such a display of emotions that are not in accordance with one's genuinely experienced emotions over a longer period of time may lead to emotional dissonance resulting in stress, emotional exhaustion, and less satisfaction to customers. The very fact that the person is displaying a dishonest emotion puts off a consumer; that is, faking any emotional display will not

result in consumer relationship and engagement. It is the congruence of inner, subjective experience of emotion and outer behavioral displays and expressed emotion that results in repeat purchase and long-term relationships with customers. Furthermore, there is a prevailing belief among marketers that emotions are short term in character; that is, emotions as evaluative, affective, intentional, and short term. Remember that the emotions may also linger over time, constituting the direction and future of consumer interaction on a microlevel. These emotions can be long lasting and create emotional energy that can be characterized along a continuum from high to low in all social face-to-face encounters, with a shared focus. Consumers with high emotional energy typically display positive emotions, such as enthusiasm, solidarity, confidence, and commitment; whereas, low emotional energy consumers will typically show negative emotions, like alienation, strain, stress, and depression. Marketers should realize that high as well as low degrees of emotional energy are contagious within a group; that is, people become increasingly more aware of emotional undertones, facial, bodily, and vocal gestures and rhythms, thus getting more caught up in the main group feeling. Emotional contagion is a strong force within individuals in a group, where the display of emotions can lead to constructive or destructive end results. Whereas shared emotional energy would usually lead to a perfect buyer–seller relationship involving the notion of belonging or not belonging, that is, of inclusion or exclusion. Both may be at the epicenter of the interaction and driven by high emotional energy, or any one of them may be peripheral to the interaction remaining a member of the group but lacking emotional energy resulting in weak temporary encounters and not interactive long lasting buyer–seller relationship. Behavioral responses to an environment and emotional state are defined as approach-avoidance. Approach behaviors represent all positive behaviors or behavioral intentions directly or indirectly affected by the environment. The affective environmental component such as pleasant music, fresh scent, bright light, and soft fabrics evoke pleasure and arousal that leads to patronage intentions, desire to stay more and longer, and liking to the extent of recommending the experience to others. There is an impact of environmental sensory stimuli, such as sight, sound, smell, and touch, on consumer behavioral intention. It is suggested that color, brightness, size, and shape act as a visual

dimension that impact consumers' purchase intention. For example, a cool color (e.g., blue) is more affective on pleasure, arousal emotions that influence the customer's decision to spend money and time, as bright and colorful environment is correlated with pleasure and arousal, which attract consumer patronage. Also, the physical environment such as lighting, color, signage, style of furnishings, layout, and wall décor could be controlled by the organization to increase customers' affective behavior. Similarly, the background music that influences consumer's moods, service or product evaluation, and consumer decision should become a part of the atmosphere and ambience. For example, the tempo of music significantly affect the pace of in-store traffic flow and sales volume in a supermarket and also influences the dining speed, money spent, and length of stay in a restaurant. The characteristics of music like tempo, tonality, and texture stimulate customer's emotion and induce customer's behavioral reaction. Pleasant scent and congruent scent can also increase money and time spent in the retail context. In sum, the feelings are the primary medium of humans' judgment and decision-making system. The moment consumers make a decision based on what they see, listen, smell, and touch in their surrounding situation, they are immediately operating their emotions as valuable signals.

Conclusion

Emotions are not static; they can affect a company's long-term business success. They can be measured, enhanced, and managed. It is not easy, but it's demonstrably possible. Consumers are typically highly emotional about some brands and products, while completely indifferent and unattached to others. Consumers' emotional connections have a specific and fairly simple structure, regardless of the nature of the particular emotions involved. Emotional connections have powerful financial consequences, ranging from the share-of-wallet to the frequency and amount of repeat business. Fully engaged retail customers spend and return more frequently than those who are disengaged. Retailers who have taken action to enhance their customer engagement by capitalizing on the engagement-building skills of their own customer-facing employees have seen double-digit increases in both sales and profit per square foot. For example, Gallup

has seen these results not just in the United States, but around the globe. Companies that are successful in creating emotional connections benefit from stronger results, not only in cash flow and profit, but also in market share. Thus, various structures and perspective of emotions contribute toward the development of understanding the role of emotions and their influence on consumer learning and engagement. Chapter 3 discusses the emotional expressions, experiences, and regulations in social contexts.

CHAPTER 3

Experience and Facial Expressions of Emotions

How much do we read into faces, and how much do we read out from them? We have a deep conviction that faces express emotions. How well can we tell what people are feeling by simply looking at their faces? People may be unaware that their inner feelings are reflected on their faces, in their voices, in their bodily postures, or in their choice of words. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss and elaborate the various aspects of emotions and social motives and their facial expressions and experiences. More specifically, it discusses emotional expressions, experiences, and regulations in social contexts. The chapter concludes that facial movements in question may serve as communicative functions, and, as such, these actions attain true symbolic significance when they bring out identical responses in both actors and observers.

Do Faces Provide a Window to the Soul?

Facial Expressions and Emotions

Remember, people attach a variety of meanings to facial expressions. Some of their attributions accurately reflect what another person is actually feeling, thinking, or doing, whereas other inferences are of more dubious validity. For example, we are capable of detecting quite precisely the direction of someone's visual attention.¹ We can register at an implicit level how closely attuned their facial movements are to those of others, including ourselves.²

However, many of our conclusions about a person's character, attitude, or intentions based on first impressions of their facial features turn out to be false later. Furthermore, although we believe that seeing someone's face helps us determine whether they are telling the truth most

people, in fact, are relatively poor at detecting deception from nonverbal cues, including facial movements.³ Perhaps the most influential alternative is that faces are not surfaces on which private affective meanings are somehow made visible but rather tools for communicating social motives to specific addressees.⁴ According to this view, the idea of expression as an outpouring of something that was first inside is misleading.⁵ Emotion does not leak out into the interpersonal world. Instead, intentions are shared, transmitted, or coordinated between faces. Thus, my *angry* display serves as a warning to you to back off, in case I attack,⁶ regardless of what emotion I happen to be experiencing. Furthermore, experiencing anger does not automatically produce an impulse to make this expression, unless I also have an aggressive social motive. But there is always someone else around to whom the aggressive message might appropriately be transmitted. There are broadly three reasons that explain as to why particular facial movements may have become associated with specific emotions over the course of the history of the human species. The first principle is known as the principle of associated serviceable habits; it conveys that facial movements that are read as expressing emotion originally served direct adaptive functions in specific motion-related situations. For example, visual input may be rejected by closing the eyelids or moving the head, so that attention is directed elsewhere. Overtime, these same movements became associated not just with stimuli that actually required direct rejection but also with rejection-related feelings. More generally, faces that had once served a practical function also came to occur in situations where this function no longer applied. Furthermore, the principle of antithesis was that movements *opposite* to these serviceable habits somehow became associated with contrasting feeling states. It suggests that the facial movements in question may serve as communicative functions.⁷ Similarly, many human facial movements may serve to indicate to other people what is not rather than what is likely to happen. Such facial movements are no longer serviceable but instead are side effects of previously relevant and counter associations. The principle of antithesis conveys that the signifiers of facial language may derive their meaning as part of a system of differences rather than by any direct reference to a signified object.⁸ Some emotion-revealing facial information derives from symptoms of sensory excitation when nerve force is generated in excess.

In more contemporary terms, facial flushing, muscle tension, and so on may be relatively direct consequences of the physiological changes that are often either side effects or components of emotional states. However, it does not convey any intrinsic emotion generation and expression connection, because the movements originated from factors that happened to correlate with emotions rather than emotions themselves.⁹ Along similar lines, we can say that communication of any affect is actually a secondary spin off function rather than primary facial expression.¹⁰

Indeed, some theorists believe that facial movements contribute to the production of emotion rather than arising as a consequence of an already activated emotional response.¹¹ Beauty lies in the eyes of the beholder; in other words, facial movements are expressions of emotional meaning; they are expressions in the eyes of the beholder. Human facial movements are involved in more articulated action sequences; for example, a customer is looking at a product in the store that she is about to take hold of, makes information about her nascent action available to any sales executive on the other side, even if its meaning is not explicitly encoded. Thus, actions attain true symbolic significance when they bring out identical responses in both actors and observers. However, this is true only in the case of human verbal language, where speakers respond to essentially the same stimulus as hearers. By contrast, facial movements do not offer the same visual information to actors and observers, so their impact must remain at the more implicit level of mutual adjustments.¹² However, it seems plausible that a receptive feedback from one's own face may be matched against the visual information from someone else; especially if, their movements show similar patterns over time. Recent ideas about *mirror neurons* imply a similar conclusion.¹³ Facial movements transmit meanings and exert social influence in a more self-conscious way, and their meaning derives not from a preexistent mental state but from the way they play themselves out in unfolding interpersonal life to reflect the social world and the expressions that convey the communicative value over the course of interactions with articulated temporal structure.¹⁴

Furthermore, the neuro cultural approach,¹⁵ view is that a hard-wired connection links each of the so-called basic emotions (happiness, sadness, fear, disgust, anger, surprise, and, possibly, contempt and shame) to a distinctive facial position. In particular, activation of the emotion initiates

a facial affect program that sends efferent impulses to the face. However, cultural learning partly determines the range of *elicitors* that will activate the emotion and may moderate the impact of facial affect program impulses on actual facial movements. Thus, socialization teaches us what to get emotional about (although some elicitors are universal) and when to control expressions according to conventional display rules (although the underlying biological emotion may still leak out), but the core connection between the elicited emotion and its associated impulse to expression is preprogrammed by natural selection. Faces might provide reliable and relevant information in a number of ways without depending exclusively on underlying emotional state. However, the behavioral ecology approach conveys that the function of facial movements is to communicate information to others rather than simply to express anything. Facial displays are thus intrinsically other-oriented messages rather than individual reactions. Secondly, the content of the communication is not directly about emotion but rather concerns *behavioral intentions* or more generally *social motives*.¹⁶ In other words, the meaning of facial expressions relates to how people are likely to act rather than their current subjective experience.

The central idea is that giving out signals concerning internal states would be of dubious adaptive value unless they lead to specific conclusions about future behavior, whereas displaying social motives would allow other animals to make appropriate adjustments to displayers' actions. There is no one-to-one mapping of displays to emotions because the same emotion may be accompanied by quite different social motives under different circumstances (anger may result in a desire to aggress physically, to withdraw, or to undermine the other more subtly, and the display will be different in each case). Thus, the prototypical *anger* face occurs only if there is an overtly hostile intention, and only if there is a suitable audience to receive the message, not on other occasions when a person might be angry. Even here, the face does not express the emotion itself but rather communicates an intention to aggress. Here, the so-called anger face might also occur when communicating an intention to aggress, when there is no subjective experience of anger. In sum, the meaning of facial movements emerges from an ongoing and cumulative interactive context and are not something that necessarily preexist.

Facial movements are clearly capable of providing information relevant to each of the variables like basic emotions, dimensions of affect, components of emotion, appraisals, action tendencies situational trajectories, social motives, conversational management, and indications of direction of attention. Facial movements have their origins in various practical actions, but it does not necessarily mean that evolution, culture, or some combination of the two have not co-opted them. When experiencing emotions alone, people may not always make emotional facial movements. Regarding facial expressions in marketing context, I say that marketing exchanges and consumption are *socially interactive experiences*,¹⁷ which involve navigating social and emotional contexts. When purchasing a product from a salesperson, dining with a friend, or negotiating a business contract, emotion recognition, that is, reading facial expressions, is likely to play an important role. For example, AT&T proved that it could successfully tap into consumers' emotions decades ago with its "Reach Out and Touch Someone" campaigns. While the brand has lost some of its emotional connection to consumers in recent years, so in order to turn around, it is using a new emotional campaign "It's Not Complicated" which features first graders' facial expressions discussing AT&T's mobile service with an adult showing positive facial expressions. It has been very successful in emotionally connecting consumers to the AT&T brand. Both consumers and AT&T employees, the brand's most powerful advocates, are reacting positively to the campaign.

Individuals with a heightened ability to recognize emotions are better at interpreting information about other people's emotional states. This *nonverbal intelligence* is likely to influence how consumers react to a variety of consumption contexts, and the behavioral outcomes of these varied experiences. The face is a source of information, which we combine with the spoken word, body language, past experience, and the context of the situation to form judgments. Facial expressions serve as pieces of information that we use to understand what another person is thinking, saying, or feeling. Faces provide insights into the traits and emotions of individuals, and some structural facial characteristics influence people's judgments. For example, attractive individuals are often perceived as having more positive personality traits and successful life outcomes.¹⁸ Individuals with asymmetrical features are perceived as unhealthy and unintelligent.¹⁹

Whereas, baby-faced individuals like individuals with a round face and large eyes are perceived as naïve and weak.²⁰ However, these structural characteristics are overgeneralized to traits attributed to individuals, and they only help inform about first impressions and social judgments.

Beyond face shape, symmetry, and other structural characteristics, an interesting component of impression formation is the dynamic nature of the face. A person's facial expression conveys emotions and intent. For example, when individuals tell lies, their facial expressions can convey deceptive intent, and this deception is detectable particularly through the perception of smiles.²¹

Similarly, there can be a disguised expression of true enjoyment when an individual is being honest or a masked smile when negative emotions and smiling movements are occurring simultaneously. Also, the ability to accurately identify emotions in the face or the ability to recognize and interpret facial expressions varies across individuals.²² However, the degree to which people are good at monitoring their own emotions and those of others around them is likely to differ.

Face Perception

God has given you one face and you make yourselves another.²³ Surprisingly, little research has examined the role of faces and facial expressions in the consumer literature. This lack of work is particularly notable given the social nature of marketplace interactions (e.g., in-store purchase behavior and customer–salesperson negotiations for large purchases) and consumption (e.g., the propensity for consumers to shop with others or share consumptive experiences with others). Various theoretical frameworks from related literatures can help us understand what we actually see when looking at a face. As per dual process model theory, the research in cognitive neuroscience has identified two components to person perception: the perception of identity (and static features of the face) and the perception of emotion (and dynamic features of the face).²⁴ The perception of identity is affected by the activation of the fusiform face area in the temporal lobe of the brain, where individuals register identity recognition.²⁵ Imagine, if this area gets damaged, then an individual will not be able to recognize or identify faces.²⁶ Also, emotional recognition and biological

movement (e.g., eye gaze, smiling) activates the superior temporal sulcus, indicating this function is a separate and distinct neurological process.²⁷ For example, in the case of autism, individuals can recognize identity but have underdeveloped or no emotion recognition abilities.²⁸ Thus, two separate neurological processes take place while an individual attempts to perceive a face: identity and emotion recognition. Identity recognition captures the constant, stationary, and unchanging components of the face, while the emotion recognition captures the action and motion of the face. In social information context, the expressions of emotion act as informational sources for observers while mood acts as an informational source for the self.²⁹ This indeed influences behavior through various inferences that are made from viewing facial expressions and emotional reactions that occur as a result of viewing facial expressions. Affective reactions can occur through contagion (e.g., mimicry) or through impressions. However, it depends on an individual's motivation and ability to process the facial expression information. Expressly, high information processing leads to stronger inferential processing of facial cues, while low information processing leads to stronger affective reactance to facial cues. Furthermore, there is also a role of social relational factors such as the type of the interpersonal relationship, social and cultural norms, and how the emotion is expressed. In short, facial expressions serve as information sources, which consequently affect our behavior through two distinct routes: inferential processing and emotional reactance. Yet, the key factor is that one must have the ability and the motivation to process the facial expression information.

One illustration of inferences from expression is individuals expressing sadness to strategically request help.³⁰ The receiver of the sad emotional display infers a sense of need and is therefore more likely to give help to the producer of the sad emotion. In negotiations, individuals expressing anger received more concessions than individuals expressing happiness.³¹ Thus, the perceivers of the emotional display infers how to behave with an angry opponent (give more concessions) versus a happy opponent (give fewer concessions). Similarly, with respect to emotional reactance, individuals have internal reactions to emotions displayed by others either through emotional contagion (i.e., mimicking another's emotional response) or through impression formation. Furthermore, the "ecological approach

to face perception³² identifies three main tenets: perceiving affordances, identifying stimulus information, and perceiver attunements. Perceiving affordances serves as an adaptive function, in which a perceiver recognizes an identity and an emotion and, then, uses this information to act in a goal-oriented way. In other words, an individual will use the information derived from the face to attain goals. For example, using facial information as a means of determining whether someone is physically capable of helping you move a heavy box and is willing to help you move the box. In short, this information in the structural characteristics of the face allows people to act in a goal-oriented manner. Facial movement and emotion also promote various goal-oriented behavioral outcomes. For example, fear and anger elicit approach and avoidance behaviors, respectively.³³ For illustration, the role of emotional expression in beverage consumption was examined,³⁴ and it was observed that thirsty participants who viewed a happy expression were more likely to consume and pay more for a beverage; whereas, thirsty participants who viewed a sad expression exhibited the contrary. Similarly, for the second component, facial structure, pigmentation, texture, and movement should provide the most useful information about all of the qualities that are gleaned from faces.³⁵ One example is that facial information derived from babies is also extended to people who have a *baby face*. An individual is considered to have a baby face if they have a round face, large eyes, high eyebrows, and a small chin and nose bridge.³⁶ Such adults are attributed to be submissive, warm, naïve, and physically weak.³⁷ Similarly, unattractive faces receive negative overgeneralizations of social, physical, and cognitive deficiencies in comparison with their attractive counterparts who receive positive halo effects.³⁸ In addition, sometimes individuals attempt to project a personality which they actually do not have. For example, in a study,³⁹ wherein there were self-reported extraversion and facial symmetry, providing evidence for physiognomic inferences for personality traits. This personality characteristic may be a result of a self-fulfilling prophecy, whereby a person develops a particular personality characteristic because others interact with them in a particular way. In other words, individuals posed to be self-reported extraversion and facial symmetry, providing some evidence for physiognomic inferences for personality traits. This personality characteristic may be a result of a self-fulfilling prophecy, whereby a person develops a particular personality characteristic because others interact with

them in a particular way, that is, the individual appears to be extroverted. In sum, personality inferences from structural characteristics of the face may be accurate. Furthermore, facial movements also represent a particular emotion; for example, a smile typically indicates happiness, whereas a furrowed brow indicates anger. Perceiving a smile or a furrowed brow is an indication of its relative cognitive meaning—the expresser of the emotion is satisfied or dissatisfied with the receiver of the emotion.⁴⁰ Next, the perceivers' attunements refer to one's efforts in achieving accuracy in perception of identity, emotions, and traits.⁴¹ According to this ecological theory of social perception, perceiver goals, capabilities, and experiences influence individual level differences in face perception.⁴² Here, in this case, individuals may experience reduced abilities when reading facial information from the opposite sex⁴³ or because of ethnicity⁴⁴ and demographic differences.⁴⁵

Furthermore, situational characteristics may also affect a perceiver's attunements when reading a face. Research on the effect of hormonal changes, for example, has shown that women are more likely to judge the masculine characteristics of a man's face as more attractive during ovulation,⁴⁶ and, as such, women may be more attuned to masculinity during this point in their menstrual cycle because this trait is an indicator of fertility and fitness. Read more about hormones in Chapter 5.

In sum, face ultimately, provide insight into information. Of particular interest is the emotional content of the face. If we view facial expressions as providing information about emotion, it would be useful to understand the types of information that can be perceived from facial expressions. However, perceiver is an important component to the interpretation of the face, and that individuals will likely possess various *attunements* or abilities with regards to face perception. This suggests that both the information provided by facial expressions and the perceivers' ability to process that information is important to perceive emotion in facial expressions.

Social Motives

Social motives are complex motive states learned in social groups, especially in the family, that is, the motives that people acquire as a result of their interaction with others. They are also called as learned motives or secondary motives. With the exception of a few motives like hunger and

thirst, nearly all motives are socially relevant or somehow directed toward social outcomes. Examples include affiliation, aggression, altruism, achievement, approval, power, and numerous others. All these motives have many basic characteristics in common. This is especially the case in the way they motivate specific goal-directed behavior and in the fundamental process of how they develop. For example, Adidas campaigns were targeted at female consumers in China where women exercise less and do different types of exercise compared to the United States or Western Europe. The campaign featured a televised ad which depicted a famous pop singer and her friends looking forward to starting their weekend together with some physical activities, such as antigravity yoga, dancing, and running. “All in for My Girls,” expanded on the idea on sisterhood and sports, bringing women together in a fun, social way and included a digital campaign with the hash tag #my girls. In short, “All in for My Girls” campaign featured no sweat or six-packs, and instead has taken a more feminine guise in line with local views on sports. Similarly, Adidas Neo is aimed at style-adopting teenagers, with an emphasis on motive like fashion rather than sports performance; it has lower price positions and appears to be closer to *fast fashion* brands such as H&M.

People are motivated to affiliate and bond with each other, consumers want to belong to each other. They are motivated to create an accurate-enough shared social understanding, and they care deeply about social rejection and acceptance. Being accepted by other people represents a core motive: The motive to belong is central. People want to connect with other people in their own group, arguably in order to survive and thrive. The core motive to belong defines in-group (own group) and out-group (all other groups). In a group, belonging matters because the in-group by definition shares one’s goals, which facilitates other core social motives, for example, socially shared understanding, a sense of controlling one’s outcomes, enhancing the self, and trusting others. The out-group by definition does not share the in-group’s goals, being at worst indifferent and at best hostile, so it is viewed as threatening and elicits negative affect. This approach to social behavior highlights the importance of knowing who is with *us* and who is against us, in the service of furthering shared goals. In other words, consumers want to affiliate and bond with each other for developing a shared social understanding.

People are motivated to feel competitive and effective in their dealings with the animate and inanimate environment. They expect others to see them as socially worthy, and they see the world as a participating ground for many social activities undue suspicion or vigilance. There are many social motives. The need for achievement is one of the most important social motives. It is concerned with setting goals and achieving them. It is concerned with becoming successful in whatever activity one undertakes and avoiding failures. People with a strong achievement motive not only like to excel others, but also try to do better than what they did in the past. Individuals who are high in need for achievement do better in school, in their job, and in other areas of life. People with a strong achievement motive choose tasks which are neither very easy nor very difficult but ones which they are confident of accomplishing through their best efforts. Individuals who are high in *need for achievement* come from families where they have been trained to be independent right from childhood. Some individuals are given enough freedom to do their tasks. Similarly, people have the need to influence, control, cajole, persuade, lead, and charm others, and also enhance their reputation in the eyes of other people. People with strong power motivation derive satisfaction from achieving these goals. Power motivation can be expressed in many ways; the manner of expression depends on the person's socioeconomic status, sex, level of maturity, and the degree to which the individual fears his or her own power motivation. Also, the need for affiliation is a common social motive that relates to socializing; interacting with others, particularly with peers; pleasing others and winning their affection; and expressing and maintaining attitudes of loyalty to family and friends.

Expressions and Experiences

Emotions are changes in the body state that impact psychological processes thereby resulting in expression of feelings and observable behavioral reactions. Consumers may actively share their emotional experiences with others. They may purposefully express emotions to influence others.⁴⁷ Regardless of whether they are spontaneous or premeditated, emotional expressions are often observed by others who in turn respond to them.

People have limited insight into each other's feelings, goals, needs, desires, and social intentions. This lack of information poses a challenge to social interaction. If people do not know what's going on in other people's minds, it is difficult to relate to them. Is the person across the street of good intent or should he be avoided? Can the car salesman be trusted or is he planning to pull some trick? Oftentimes, we don't know, and, therefore, we have to turn to subtle and indirect signals available in the situation to determine how to act. Thus people may treat emotion as source of social information and, as such, use each other's emotional expressions to make sense of ambiguous social situations. Emotional expressions often evoke affective reactions in observers, which may subsequently influence their behavior. First, emotions can spread from expresser to observer as discussed previously, via emotional contagion processes, involving mirror neuron activity, mimicry, and afferent feedback.⁴⁸ Second, emotional expressions influence impressions and interpersonal liking, perhaps, in part, through the social intentions and relational orientations they convey⁴⁹—an idea that is also reflected in interpersonal circumplex theories that highlight the reciprocity of affiliation.⁵⁰ For instance, expressions of happiness typically increase liking and relationship satisfaction, and expressions of anger decrease liking and satisfaction.⁵¹ Such affective reactions may shape subsequent behavior. Emotional responses and emotion regulations frequently take place in social situations, and are often defined by the social context; they are reciprocated by and transmitted to the social partners and, therefore, affect the quality of one's relationships with others. Emotional reactions of other people affect us and we respond to them by appropriate emotions in turn. Even the imagined presence of others affects the course and expression of an emotional response.⁵² It is shown that people who are able to adjust the experience and expression of emotions, depending on the situation, and control emotional over- or under-arousal are more likely to enjoy smooth social interactions and be more adept at social situations.⁵³ Furthermore, emotions have an organizing effect also. As emotions provide information regarding the individual to others (e.g., an angry face is a warning signal for others not to approach the person). Similarly, emotions can provide information about situations. If a situation is unclear, people resort to other people's emotional responses to make a decision.⁵⁴

The Emotions in Faces

“Is disgust shown by the lower lip being turned down, the upper lip slightly raised, with a sudden expiration?” and “When in good spirits do the eyes sparkle, with the skin a little wrinkled round and under them, and with the mouth a little drawn back at the corners?”⁵⁵ Indeed, expressions of emotions of races and cultures across the world were similar to those of Europeans.⁵⁶ Six emotions have been identified repeatedly across cultures: happiness, surprise, sadness, fear, disgust, and anger.⁵⁷ A Facial Action Coding System⁵⁸ was developed to systematically identify facial movements and eventually, emotional expressions. Where happiness is largely marked by two movements: orbicularis oculi (or the raising of cheeks) and zygomaticus major (or the pulling of the lip corners). Surprise is marked by the raising of both the inner (frontalis pars medialis) and outer brow (frontalis pars lateralis), a slight raise of the levator palpebrae superioris (i.e., the upper eyelid), and a dropping of the jaw (masseter). Sadness occurs with the raising of the inner brow (frontalis pars medialis), the lowering of the brow (corrugators supercillii), and the lowering of the lip corners (depressor anguli oris). Fear occurs with the raising of the inner and outer brow (frontalis), the lowering of the general brow (corrugator supercillii), the raising of the upper eyelid (levator palpebrae superioris), the stretching of the lips (risorius and platysma), and the dropping of the jaw (masseter). Disgust is marked by the wrinkling of the nose (levator labii superioris alaeque nasi), and the lowering of the lip corners (depressor anguli oris) and lower lip (depressor labii inferioris). Finally, anger is depicted by the lowering of the brow (corrugators supercillii), the raising of the upper lid (levator palpebrae superioris), tightening the eyelids (orbicularis oculi), and tightening the lips (orbicularis oris).

Furthermore, emotional expression research moved beyond identification and classification of expressions to investigate why there is a substantial cross-cultural agreement. More specifically, there are movements and bodily reactions associated with fear and disgust. When an individual is frightened, heavy breathing, blood redistribution through an increased heart rate, and resource attention prepare an individual to move quickly in an effort to escape harm.⁵⁹ Similarly, the expression of fear, marked by the widening of the eyes, serves as an evolutionary function to enlarge the

optical field and allow the eyes to move more quickly to heighten one's ability to detect threat.⁶⁰ Likewise, disgust performs an opposing adaptive function. Rather than augment the perception and alertness to stimuli, movements associated with disgust attempt to reduce the perception of stimuli. The expression of disgust is marked by the scrunching of the nose and mouth. This movement serves an adaptive function by constricting the flow of air through the nose and mouth—guarding an individual from unpleasant (or even harmful) stimuli.⁶¹ While there is evidence that facial expressions are a derivative of physiological and adaptive functions, the modern existence and use of expressions is largely communicative.⁶² In short, emotions play a role in our own decisions and influence other people's decisions.

Conclusion

Individuals vary in their ability to identify and interpret emotional expressions in everyday life and in the marketplace. This individual difference, furthermore, suggests that there is individual ability, or lack thereof, that may differentially impact choices and judgments. Marketers already use emotion in advertising (cue in standard picture of a baby or puppy) to elicit consumer favorable user response (e.g., brand awareness, liking, loyalty, and purchase); the use of emotion in the retail environment and in negotiation is also likely to affect purchase. Given that people are likely to use emotions strategically,⁶³ retailers and salespeople are likely to use emotional expressions to influence, persuade, and even deceive consumers. But just how good are consumers at interpreting emotional expression in a salesperson's face when negotiating the price of a new car? What do consumers infer from a smile versus a frown after a bid is offered on the car? And, if salespeople are good at masking their emotions, or strategically using emotional displays in negotiation settings, how good are consumers at detecting face deception in the marketplace? Therefore, with the establishment of the universality of the six basic emotions, it would be useful to understand the role of perceiving emotions (i.e., viewing another person's facial expressions) in consumer judgment and decision making. In sum, emotional responses and emotion regulation frequently take place in social situations and are often defined by the

social context. These emotions are reciprocated by and transmitted to the social partners and, therefore, affect the quality of one's relationships with others. Emotional reactions of other people affect us, and we respond to them by appropriate emotions in turn. The next chapter outlines how emotion and emotional expressions might influence consumer judgments and choice.

It also discusses and highlights that whether, there is a need to understand the role of social cognition, emotions in social, cultural, intergroup, and gender context.

CHAPTER 4

Emotions and Group Behavior

Introduction

Consumer markets are characterized by constantly growing market saturation, exchangeability of products, and an overload of information for the consumers. Therefore, marketing strategies try to differentiate markets psychologically, for example, by experience-oriented strategies. Addressing the consumer is consequently becoming more personal, and communication is co-determined by emotions. In business-to-business markets, practitioners like to confirm that emotional decision criteria like credibility, confidence, continuity of customer-contacts, and personal relationships are constantly gaining significance through oligopolistic market structures with a matured quality-supply. However, there is a need to understand the role of social cognition; cognitive achievements, particularly emotions, in social, cultural, intergroup, and gender context. Although, the synonymous terms for emotions are feelings or sentiments or the process of affecting; sometimes, these terms are differentiated with regard to the temporary dimensions, but the complex nature of the consumer decision-making processes is shaped by the interaction of various forces, such as culture, cognition, and emotions, and the emotional and psychological state and processing of the needs of the individual. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to discuss the importance of emotions more than activation.

Emotions

Following the activation theory, emotions are characterized by the already defined activation, which can be experienced more or less consciously concerning their direction (pleasant–unpleasant) and their content, that

is, quality or nature of emotion.¹ Emotions are biological responses that organize an individual's reaction to significant events in life. An emotion begins with an eliciting event followed by awareness, interpretation, and response.² Emotions evolve within the context of the ongoing relationships of everyday life and are most frequently caused by interactions with other people, they are presumed to serve social functions.³ Emotions imply a sudden and brief response to an object or a stimulus leading to distinct physiological, experiential, and behavioral changes. Physiological and neurological patterns, subjective feelings, and facial or bodily expressions elicited by emotions are highly specific.⁴ The cognitive approach emphasizes cognition as information processing, where the objective is to explore the way man collects, stores, modifies, and interprets environmental information or information already stored internally.⁵ Thus, emotions help determine the quality of life experiences, and also help in organizing and guiding perceptions, thoughts, and actions.⁶

Emotion and Cognition

There are different aspects of the emotion-cognition relationship, such as information storage and retrieval, attribution or judgmental heuristics, capacity and strategies of information processing, and decision making and creative thinking. Therefore, there is a need to understand as to how emotions contribute to our understanding of the cognitive mechanisms that regulate emotion. There is now a strong consensus that emotion is elicited, supported, and regulated by a variety of cognitive processes, many of which are implicit and automatic in nature.⁷

Schematically, cognitive processes take place at the input and output levels in emotional phenomena. The cognitive process at the input level, situations, whether external or internal stimuli are appraised as either emotionally significant or emotionally insignificant. This appraisal process is cognitive in nature and relies on a range of cognitive processes operating at various levels of automaticity, voluntariness, and complexity.⁸ At the output level, emotional states prime or facilitate specific cognitive modes. For example, negative emotion biases attention toward the focal aspects of the situation that are emotionally relevant. Such focal attention might have a continuous appraisal feedback, biasing the evaluation of the

situation toward the activated emotion.⁹ Traditionally, cognitive aspects of emotion have focused on the central question of how emotional meaning is ascribed to a situation. Such research has identified a series of dimensions, such as novelty, valence, goal congruence, or potency, along which a situation is evaluated to yield emotional meaning, and which account for the nature of emotional feelings and responses.¹⁰ So, the emotional information can be processed on at least two distinct levels and that the outputs of these levels lead to different emotional consequences. At the structural level, two types of memory systems can work a *schematic* system and a *propositional* system. The schematic system refers to an implicit memory that conveys the immediate emotional meaning of a situation for a given individual. The propositional system pertains to declarative, conceptual knowledge about emotion. The schematic and the propositional system receive their input from different systems—the sensory and the object recognition systems, respectively—and, in turn, feed into different output systems (e.g., the body response system). There are different systems for different sensory modalities. These structures are innate and develop early in ontogeny, and they have an innate output to the body response system. That is, certain patterns of perceptual stimulation, automatically identified at the perceptual system level, automatically trigger specific body responses. For instance, a sudden loud noise, which has the perceptual feature of unanticipated stimulation, automatically triggers a startle response. Similarly, body responses encompass facial expression, body postures, and movements, as well as the whole range of visceral responses. A set of such prepared body responses is innate, and organizes the first emotional responses in ontogeny with the aim of fostering the survival of individuals, their social integration, and their affective and intellectual development. There are eight innate action tendencies in the human species: approach, inhibition, play, dominance, submission, aggression, rejection, and panic.¹¹ Each of these action tendencies is supported by a specific body state. These innate body responses constitute the building blocks of later more elaborate and automatic responses. In associative processing, a schema is an abstract and implicit representation, which integrates sensory, perceptual, and semantic information typical of a given category of emotional experiences, and their relation to the activation of specific body response systems. When perceptual

elements are repeatedly activated at the same time as innate connections between perceptual features and body responses, they become integrated in an abstract representation that encodes high order reoccurrences between the activation of perceptual—and, later in ontogeny, semantic—elements and body responses. For example, touch and odor are perceptual features in any product displayed in stores that automatically trigger an approach body response in the consumer. Repeated associations between experiences of activation of these basic features and the approach response, together with new product or service features, such as auditory features of the sales personnel's voice or the fragrance and ambience of the store will become integrated in a schema. Each schema carries an implicit meaning which can be conceived of as a holistic theme, and consumer use metaphors to express implicit meanings. This cognitive ability to identify stability in perceptual information and to recognize objects develops very early in childhood. In contrast to the schematic system, the meaning stored in the propositional system is thus specific and has a *truth validity* (i.e., a meaning statement can be declared true or false). Knowledge at the propositional level can be activated willfully and consciously. It constitutes the basis for conscious identification of emotion, for verbal communication about emotion, and for willful problem solving and coping in an emotional situation. Consumers translate source of information into propositional networks of concepts can be incorporated in the propositional representational system. Thus, it can be augmented through conversation with the sales staff, reading product details on labels and packaging, and so on.

There is another class of processes that operates on both the schematic and propositional representations and enables reflexive consciousness of emotional experience. Two types of consciousness, producing different phenomenological experiences and mental phenomena (such as memory experiences), have been proposed: noetic and auto-noetic consciousness.¹² In a state of noetic awareness, individuals experience the direct consciousness of being aware of things, that is, knowing them. For example, a consumer can realize that she is not feeling happy with a particular brand and its features, but without being able to remember or to re-evolve the specific experience of it. In the state of auto-noetic awareness, individuals experience a reflexive type of consciousness: They know they are or

have been the subjects of a specific product or service experience. They can remember and reactivate the experience of that unhappiness, or a disliking store purchase episode, against a specific brand. These qualities of consciousness apply to past as well as to future or present purchase situations. In sum, auto-noetic consciousness relies on the integration of schematic and propositional information. Processes leading to auto-noetic awareness thus have the capacity to activate and to regulate both schemata and propositional networks.

Emotions are memory units linked to the memory system,¹³ which facilitate access to mental representations associated with targets of judgment.¹⁴ Memory is a network of nodes representing concepts, ideas, events, or propositions. Memory occurs when activation of one or more nodes spread within this network and activates other related nodes. These can become *primed*, as subjects are often unaware of the concept that originally spread the activation.¹⁵ Due to prior associations, innate and learned environmental situations activate particular emotion nodes stored in memory. This activation spreads throughout the neuronal circuits to mental representations of events associated with that emotion, influencing encoding and retrieval of material, as well as the valence of judgments of people, events, objects, and behaviors.¹⁶

Emotions are activated by repeated experience or by activating any of their links. The stronger the activation of particular emotional nodes, the greater the mood-congruent effect. More specifically, in this affect priming approach, an emotion node spreads activation throughout the memories to which it is connected, increasing the chance that those memories will be retrieved

Also, the accessibility of information for judgment is biased by mood, creating mood-congruent judgments. For example, consumers can use ambiguous gestures, speech acts, intonation, and body language in a mood-congruent way. Also, happy consumers make quick positive acumen rather than negative judgments about the attributes a product or service or inversely when consumers are in a bad mood. Thus, emotional states can facilitate access to associated mental representations of concepts, images, and actions, which are the base for subsequent interpretations of contextual factors and ambiguous stimuli, that is, affect-congruent associations. A variety of competing brands available in a store can also offer

a threat, which can result in an indecisiveness to buy because competing brands also share points of similarities. Rather than appraisals of the new situation, reinstatements of prior appraisals from earlier situations such as brand recall, brand awareness, and brand knowledge can reactivate earlier experiences together with their emotional significance. More specifically, advertising may appeal to the rational side of consumers, convey information, and elicit cognitive reaction. Yet, the most interesting facet is the emotional aspect of advertising that affects the feelings of the audience. Striving for exceptionality and persuasiveness, advertisers tend to use dramatic emotions; they create messages that would shock consumers. Do you remember the advertising campaign by United Colors of Benetton where you see a group of men stoning a woman with flower petals in support of the United Nations agency that promotes gender equality and empowerment of women? In this campaign, United Colors of Benetton chooses to overturn the cliché of “do not hit even with flowers,” conveys the powerful and surprising symbolic image and emotions of a woman in order to promote gender equality and empowerment of women and the elimination of violence against women. In other words, the effort is to call for ending all forms of discrimination and abuse and to remind the world that women should no longer have to put up with discomfort, suffering, and a life of misery. They should have the freedom to be able to choose to be themselves and not what their society, religion, men, or partners would like them to be. The goal of the campaign by United Colors of Benetton is to advocate international awareness of the need for concrete actions to support women and prevention programs, beginning with efforts to promote an education for young men and women that develop a culture based on recognition, respect for difference, and equal opportunities. The campaign takes United Colors of Benetton’s communications down a new and unconventional path, symbolically representing the deconstruction of stereotypes and prejudices, calling for an end to the culture of violence—even in its underlying values—and strongly affirming that men and women should have equal rights and opportunities in society and in life. It also seeks to highlight the urgent need for men and women to think and act together. In sum, United Colors of Benetton has gotten the concept of *shock advertising* down to a science. They show images that either revolt consumers, tug at their heart strings, or provoke new ideas of

thinking. Everything from a multiracial family to mating horses to death-row inmates has been featured in one way or another in a Benetton campaign. This unconventional approach may bother and offend the older, more conservative crowd, but from Benetton's perspective, advertising is not a means by which a company sells a product, it is a means to convey its position on ethical, experiential, and emotional aspects.

Similarly, anxiety can also result in risk aversion by consumers as they might think why try a new brand; why not avoid such offerings to mitigate any inherent risk involved in purchase decision making. Further, emotions also reflect a relationship between cognition and motivational drive to buy anything. People evaluate and interpret the significance of a sales encounter in terms of their own motives and beliefs. Therefore, cognitions and motivations play a critical role in the consumer's interaction with the environmental stimuli. These interactions are interpreted in terms of its impact on buying satisfaction and feel good experiences.

In other words, people make decisions based on an evaluation or appraisal process, through which the transaction is judged to be essential in maintaining, enhancing, or hindering one's wellbeing. In adaptational coping, subjects act on or reframe the person environment relationship.¹⁷ Consumers' appraisal consists of judgments concerning the relevance of what is happening in the transaction to one's values, goal commitments, beliefs about self and the world, and situational intentions. The appraisals are built by assembling interpretation of data from the perceived world.¹⁸ Without important personal goals at stake, or core values threatened, stress will not occur and emotions will not develop. Goal congruence refers to whether the conditions of a transaction frustrate the person's desires. Positive emotions arise in the presence of favorable conditions, but negative emotions follow under unfavorable ones.

Finally, type of ego involvement refers to commitments that can be thought of as goals. It means that the person will strive hard to achieve something personally valuable in spite of adversities. Social and self-esteem, moral values, ego ideals, meanings and ideas, own and others' well-being and life goals are main goals that constitute the core of ego involvement and, as such, can shape emotions in consumers. Perception of control and intentionality are also relevant issues pertaining to the attribution of liking or disliking products and services. Subjects ask

themselves whether they can act successfully to transform or eliminate a harm or threat, or complete a challenge or achieve a benefit. They evaluate their coping potential and what do they expect as the outcome of that encounter. If a situation is perceived as imposing excessive demands on subjects' resources, it will lead to threat; however, if consumers believe they have developed sufficient skills to deal with the situation, challenge will more likely develop. At the same time, consumers develop future expectation for the outcome of a transaction. Subjects evaluate whether the person environment relationship will change for the better or worse. Thus, coping consists of choosing the most appropriate strategy of constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external, or internal, or both demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person. There has to be a fit between what one does, the requirements of one's conditions being faced, and one's individual needs.¹⁹ Consumers can cope with sales encounters by obtaining information about what to do and mobilizing actions for the purpose of changing the reality of the indecisive person environment relationship while purchasing. Apart from this problem-focused coping, consumers also cope-up with their emotions by regulating the emotions tied to the stress experienced during buying situations without changing the realities of the stressful situation. Similarly, in an avoidance coping²⁰ condition, there can be a purchase avoidance situation where consumers decide not to purchase or look for another alternative choice. In sum, consumer appraisals and consumer coping should also be considered as a unit in the study of consumer emotions.

Social Cognition

Most of a person's everyday life is determined not by their conscious intentions and deliberate choices but by mental processes that are put into motion by features of the environment, which operate outside of the conscious awareness and guidance.²¹ The term unconscious means currently inaccessible to conscious introspection; specifically, it means largely inaccessible at any given time.²² Operationally, this means that the person is unable to accurately report the relevant mental phenomenon when

asked. There are, two different types of unconscious social cognition: (1) unconsciousness of the influences on judgment and behavior, and (2) unconsciousness of the mental states (i.e., attitudes and feelings) that give rise to such judgments and behaviors. An unconscious influence occurs when an individual is unaware that a stimulus in the environment has led to changes in her feelings, attitudes, judgments, or actions. For instance, a consumer may be unaware that the order in which she viewed a series of nightgowns influenced which one she decided to buy,²³ unaware of the role played by location in her choice of colleges,²⁴ and unaware that an interaction partner's subtle chin rubbing has led her to rub her own chin in a kind of unconscious mimicry.²⁵ The unconscious state exists when the person is unaware of the feeling or attitude that gave rise to her judgment or action. For instance, an individual may be unaware that she is suddenly feeling especially committed to the goal of behaving cooperatively or that she has negative automatic attitudes toward a company, product, service, or people. It is impossible to be aware of influences on a state if you are not aware of the state itself. Also, the state in question could be either temporary (e.g., a fleeting commitment to cooperativeness temporarily primed by the environment) or stable (e.g., a person's longstanding attitude toward members of a social group). As such, state unconsciousness can be considered a deeper or more profound form of unconsciousness. Consider the effects of violent media on aggressive behavior, Unconsciousness of the effects of violent media may take different forms. An individual may be unaware that he is behaving aggressively due to watching a violent movie or television program (influence unconsciousness), or he can be unaware that he is feeling aggressive at all (unconsciousness of the mediating state). There also exists unconscious perception,²⁶ unconscious learning,²⁷ unconscious memory,²⁸ and, even, unconscious behavior.²⁹ Thus, people are often unconscious of the influences on their judgments and behaviors.

Cognitive Achievements

Achievement emotions are defined as emotions tied directly to achievement activities or outcomes. Achievement can be defined simply as the quality of activities, or their outcomes as evaluated by some standard of

excellence.³⁰ The achievement emotions are grouped by their valence (positive versus negative, or pleasant versus unpleasant), degree of activation (activating versus deactivating), and object focus.³¹ More specifically, the achievement emotions are proximally determined by an individual's cognitive appraisal of control and value. Control appraisals relate to the perceived controllability of achievement activities and their outcomes. These appraisals are often indicated by expectations and competence perceptions, such as self-efficacy (i.e., task-specific self-confidence) and self-concepts of ability, respectively. Value appraisals pertain to the subjective value or importance of these activities and outcomes and can be intrinsic (e.g., an innate interest in buying computers or other technology related products) or extrinsic (e.g., valuing an activity because it is likely to bring some external reward or esteem). By implication, most emotions pertaining to consumers learning, decision making, and achievement are seen as achievement emotions, since they relate to behaviors and outcomes that are typically judged according to standards of quality—by customers themselves and others. Such approaches emphasize affect and put emotion and motivation on a similar footing as achievement emotions, their proximal antecedents, and their consequences for motivation, learning, and performance.³²

Intergroup Emotions

Many of people's reactions to social objects or events may be understood in terms of emotional responses on behalf of social groups with which they identify. That is, in contrast to the typical assumption that emotions only occur when events are directly and personally relevant to individuals,³³ this is when groups can become part of the psychological self. When this occurs, people react emotionally to events that affect their in-groups as well as to events that affect them individually. What it means? It means that positive or negative comments made about your group might elicit emotional reactions that are just as intense as those elicited by identical personal-level comments, especially if those comments reveal stereotypes or prejudices that the speaker may hold about your group. In addition, goals are always set in temporal contexts. When people perceive time as expansive, as they typically do in youth, they tend to focus on preparing

for the future. They value novelty and invest time and energy in acquiring information and expanding their horizons. In contrast, when people perceive boundaries on their time, they direct attention to emotionally meaningful aspects of life, such as the desire to lead a meaningful life, to have emotionally intimate social relationships, and to feel socially interconnected. So, if people increasingly prioritize emotion regulation as they get older, their cognitive processing of emotional material may remain relatively intact compared to their processing of other types of material. People are more likely to remember, and be persuaded by, messages that are relevant to their goals. Thus, the advertisements promising emotionally meaningful rewards would be more effective with older people than with those who want to increase knowledge or expand horizons.³⁴ Do you know that relative to younger people, older people remember emotional slogans—and the products they touted—better than other types of slogans? Studies have found that younger adults have a tendency to process negative information more thoroughly than positive information and to weigh negative information more heavily in impression formation, memory, and decision making.³⁵ Thus, marketers should focus on emotionally relevant information as it would help draw both an attention and memory in favor of both positive and negative information. However, a consumer would regulate and recall only that emotion relevant information which helps him or her further their emotional satisfaction and gratification. So there is a natural tendency among consumers to pay attention to positive promotional campaigns of products and services, which can optimize this gratifying emotional experience.

Gender Differences in Emotion Processes

Men and women, older and younger individuals, as well as individuals from a range of cultural backgrounds hold the belief that women are more emotional than men.³⁶ With the exception of anger and possibly pride, this belief generalizes across a range of discrete positive and negative emotions such as happiness, fear, disgust, and sadness.³⁷ Thus, the belief that women are more emotional than men is strongly held and pervasive across individuals, emotional response domains, and different emotions. The apparently obvious gender differences in emotional

responding that we read about and believe and observe on a regular basis are the result not of differences in immediate emotional reactivity—as we typically imagine—but instead of differences in emotion regulation. The evidence lies in the fact that the emotional responses are a joint function of initial emotional reactivity and ongoing emotion regulation.³⁸

In fact, the differences between men and women in emotional responding can be the outcome of differences in reactivity and regulation, where emotional reactivity refers to the processes that determine the nature and strength of an individual's unaltered emotional response, whereas emotion regulation refers to processes that individuals use to influence the nature of those emotions and how they are experienced and expressed. It can be deliberate or habitual, conscious or unconscious and can involve changes in the magnitude, duration, or quality of one or several components of an emotional response. Thus, reappraisal of situations by individuals and then controlling the negative responses by regulating emotions can play a critical role in measuring the level of customer satisfaction. Remember that a person's wants and behaviors are acquired through socialization processes with family and other key institutions, along with the influence of reference groups, family, social role, and status, and the characteristics like gender, age, stage in lifecycle, occupation, income, and lifestyle significantly impact the emotional expressions and emotional experiences. The regulation of these experienced emotions are also affected by psychological factors like motivation, perception, beliefs, and attitudes. Therefore, it is necessary to explore what influences a man and a woman to buy a product or service, and what appeals primarily to them. Marketers cannot promote to men the same way they do to women due to the fact that both genders are different biologically, psychologically, and socially. For example, the Verizon Foundation is committed to helping parents and teachers inspire more girls to get involved with science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) through its innovative learning programs.

Before marketers construct promotional campaigns they need to identify the different attributes or traits that are associated with both men and women, which ultimately groups them into either gender. For example, the most stereotypical traits that males are known for are being brave, competitive, aggressive, active, and strong. Whilst women on the other

hand are usually stereotyped as being sensitive, gentle, caring, and emotional. Advertisers can utilize these stereotypical traits to create products and marketing material which appeal to a certain gender.

Emotions and Culture

Across academic fields from history and literature to economics and neuroscience, a convergence of opinion has emerged about the importance of understanding emotion. More particularly, the view of the role of emotions in consumer decision making has evolved from a focus on positive or negative emotions at the end of a consumer transaction,³⁹ to understanding the impact of negative emotions,⁴⁰ consumer ambivalence,⁴¹ consumer conflict,⁴² openness-to-feeling,⁴³ and consumer emotional intelligence⁴⁴ during the decision-making process. People's judgments often reflect their current moods. In happy moods, people judge many things, from consumer products to life satisfaction, more positively than when they feel sad. In social situations, for example, the crucial factor in our evaluation of other people is often the feelings that they elicit in us. However, knowing and feeling are tightly linked. So there is a need to move from product based marketing strategies to more holistic strategies that appeal to the whole person. We should focus on creating marketing strategies that are collaborative, cultural, emotional, and spiritual. The need of the hour is to include both cognitive and affective messages in the marketing communication, as consumers experience simultaneous cognitive and emotional consonance and dissonance. Marketers must focus on helping people feel good about a problem that the purchased product will solve rather than trying to convince consumers they will feel *happier* overall if they purchase the product. However, behavior in a cultural context is extrinsic. It is the effect of multiple overlapping group memberships, personal and cultural histories, current events, political and social climates, geography, and so on, rather than intrinsic, along the straightforward lines of the commonly held perception-decision-action loop in cognitive modeling and artificial intelligence. People with different cultural backgrounds have different expectations, norms, and values, which in turn have the potential to influence their judgments and decisions, as well as their subsequent behavior. European Americans, for example, are

generally influenced by the positive consequences of a decision, whereas Asians appear to be more influenced by the negative consequences that may occur due to a decision or line of action. Asians are therefore more *prevention* focused, manifesting a greater tendency to compromise, seeking moderation, or postponing decisions if it is possible. However, recent research shows that cultural norms and values are not the only criteria to influence behavior. The extent to which they come into play also depend on situational factors, and how much the situation calls these norms and values to mind when the judgment or decision is being made. Different languages can also play a part in processing of information and activating cultural norms and values in a culture specific buying behavior. During their shopping experiences, consumers may experience a range of emotions—excitement, happiness, hope, love, sadness, fear, anxiety, anger, disgust, cultural norms and values, and so on—each of which may uniquely impact consumer decision making, behavior, and interactions. Cultural factors like regional level factors (individualism–collectivism) and individual cultural difference factors (independent–interdependent self-concept) systematically influence and moderate consumer’s impulsive buying behavior, including self-identity, normative influences, the suppression of emotion, and the postponement to instant gratification. Therefore, the unique challenge for marketers is of not only understand and predict the emotions and consumers’ experience, but also to shape and create appropriate cultures.

The positive emotions toward the brand basically translate to a higher chance of the consumer wanting to purchase and consume the products or services associated to the brand. The changes in socioeconomic and political landscapes have also resulted in the shift in consumer tastes, affordability, living standards, lifestyles, and consumption patterns. For the marketer, the objective should be to create a strong emotional attachment between the consumer and the brand. Having mere positive emotions is insufficient in creating brand loyalty. There needs to be a stronger emotional connection where the consumer will *irrationally* favor one brand over any other in the market. We have many brands that we see and think of in a positive light but there is only a handful that we remain loyal to. It is evident that it is not mere positive and happy feelings that the consumer develops rather there are other *higher level* emotions that

the brand presents, and should arouse. Culture specific consumption is a means of self-expression, identity and self-definition, a means of empowerment, escapism, self-worth, and even therapy. The consumer needs to feel the corresponding emotions—love, uniqueness, acceptance, possessing self-esteem and confidence, feeling good about one's culture, and empowerment. Brands, products, and services that can arouse and elicit such emotions are easily preferred over others that provide a superficial, surface-level feel good reaction devoid of cultural norms and values. Societal expectations, and its unwritten rules of one's physical presentation, have set the guidelines for individuals in gaining acceptance, happiness, and, even, success.⁴⁵

Conclusion

There is a complexity involved in the consumer decision-making processes which are shaped by the interaction of various forces, such as culture, cognition and emotions, and the emotional and psychological state, and processing of the needs of the individual. Corporations should seek to develop products and services that trigger purchase behavior and consumption; their focus should be on understanding the driving forces like social cognition; cognitive achievements; emotions in social context; intergroup emotions; and cultural and gender difference in processing the product and service related information leading to consumer decision making. On the consumer's end, there is a need to understand why we buy and consume products and services, as a means to address the concerns of the consuming society and culture. In Chapter 5, I will discuss about *emotions and individual behavior perspectives*.

CHAPTER 5

Emotions and Individual Behavior

Introduction

Consumers can see the brand as the kind of person he or she wishes to be, or the consumer simply likes to associate with a personality exhibited by the brand, which drives him or her to make the purchase. In this case, the consumer wants to establish friendship with the brand, and the brand need not represent their characteristics or their aspirational values. Therefore, there is a need to understand as to how brand associations and the components of brand perceptions help to build brand image attributes, and benefits encompassing functional and emotional values that can represent culture and personality of the user. Many consumption encounters are inherently stressful. From coping with poor service or product failure to making difficult purchase decisions, consumers frequently encounter stressful consumption episodes. Consumers follow a process of cognitive appraisal in which they first assess the relevance of an external stressor to their wellbeing. They then determine whether the stimulus has positive or negative implications.¹ Positively appraised stressors induce challenge emotions that are characterized by feelings of eagerness, hopefulness, and confidence. Conversely, negatively appraised stressors usually bring forth threat emotions, fostering characteristic feelings of anxiety, fear, and apprehension.² Personality influences the manner in which the consumer takes up the dispositional decision making in order to overcome the previous feelings. Consumers prefer something that exhibits their characteristics or their ideal values. Specifically, when the product is socially conspicuous, for example, products like automobile, clothing, or scarce luxury goods or complex high tech products. Highly self-conscious consumers rely on brand image rather than on the features of the product. Personality is used as a vehicle to match and represent the benefits

of the brand, and the brand appeal is largely done at an emotional level, based on the brand's symbolic image and key associations. However, the customers may have internal and subjective responses to any direct or indirect interface and involvement with the company. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to discuss the emotions and individual behavior, particularly, in context of the body nervous systems and hormones, personality, and decision making.

Consumer Personality

Freud was the first psychologist who presented a personality theory. He perceived personality as something dynamic, multiple, and cumulative. Freud argued that every personality consists of three layers or elements: ego, superego, and id. Theory of Freud is rarely applied in marketing directly; however, it is very important as he introduced the idea that people make decisions unconsciously.³ Freud's ideas were partly developed by Adler and Jung who argued that personality is formed not only by ego, superego, and id, but also by social environment. Jung presented his theory of personality typology based on two main components: outward direction (extraversion) and inward direction (introversion); and main functions of psyche (senses, thinking, feelings, and intuition). Eight personality types were developed: four extroverts with dominating senses (thinking, feeling, and intuition) and four introverts with the same dominating functions.

As per Big-Five theory,⁴ there are five dimensions of the personality and are often labeled as OCEAN:

1. *Openness to experience*: inventive or curious versus consistent or cautious. For example, elements such as appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, intellectual curiosity, imagination, and variety of experience.
2. *Conscientiousness*: efficient or organized versus easy-going or careless. Such traits have a tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, be orderly, be trustworthy, aim for achievement, and planned behavior.
3. *Extraversion*: outgoing or energetic versus solitary or reserved. For example, traits like energy, positive emotions, openness to others, sociability, and impulsivity.

4. *Agreeableness*: friendly or compassionate versus cold or unkind. As such traits like kind, compassionate, modest, trust, and cooperative.
5. *Neuroticism*: sensitive or nervous versus secure or confident. For example, traits like anxious, unstable, nervous, vulnerable, and a tendency to express unpleasant emotions.

Nevertheless, the development of the Big-Five model was not theory-driven; the model integrates personality concepts of such scientists as Jung and Eysenck, which makes it more reliable.⁵ Adjective-based approach is more often used compared to statements-based approach for evaluation of personality using the Big-Five model.⁶ The major theories of personality are Freudian theory, neo-Freudian theory, and trait theory.⁷ Consumer personality is a description of consistent emotional, thought, and behavior patterns in a person. In fact, consumers' inner psychological characteristics establish and project as to how an individual would respond to his or her environment. It is this individual difference that describes how one person varies from another in his or her distinctive patterns of behavior. Consumer researchers using Freud's personality theory see consumer purchases as a reflection and extension of the consumer's own personality. As per Freud, personality (Id) means instinctual needs for which individual seeks immediate satisfaction and gratification. An individual's internal expression of society's moral and ethical codes of conduct where any internal expression of society's moral and ethical codes of conduct represents *superego* which is counterbalanced by the individual's conscious Ego that controls Id and superego. Similarly, in case of trait theory, the focus is on psychological characteristics that are distinguished, relatively enduring, but differing from individual to individual. Personality is linked to how consumers make their choices or to consumption of a broad product category—not a specific brand. There is a natural need of cognition in consumers; they want to enjoy seeking information, thinking information is a natural craving for enjoying thinking and processing. However, they may have preference for information presented visually or verbally, that is, consumers get attracted to background or peripheral aspects of an advertisement, or they respond to advertisements rich in product-related information. However, according to Neo-Freudian personality theory,

social relationships may also become a fundamental reason behind the formation and development of a personality of an individual.

Personality Attributes Reflected in Brands

Brands convey the style and attitude to mirror consumer personality. This is done with a focus on reflecting the relationship between the brand as person and the consumer, much similar to the relationship between two individuals. Brands create and project the perceptions, motivations, and values of its targeted audience. Brands can reflect the *sincerity* attribute like down-to-earth family oriented, genuine, and old-fashioned, like Kodak and Coke, showing that the relationship might be similar to one that exists with a well-liked and respected member of the family. Brands can also show *excitement*, where attributes like spirited, young, up-to-date, and outgoing are reflected, for instance, by Pepsi. Similarly, the personality attribute *competence* shows accomplishment, influence, and competency in brands like Hewlett-Packard, Apple, Master, and Visa card. It may be sophistication where wealthy and pretentious aspects are projected by BMW and Mercedes, and ruggedness by, say for example, Nike—showing the adventure and athlete in you. So what do you think? Is there a challenge in creating and projecting a personality that reflects a culture and self-image? However, the perception of the self could be different: real, ideal, private, or public. Therefore, the strategy of brand personality development should be chosen deciding on what positioning is the most important in each case: user, situational, usage, and so on, rather than simply developing the personality profile of target group, as consumers might choose the brand with personality that is congruent not only to consumers' real self, but also the ideal self. And the brand that is chosen might be different in these situations.

Why It Matters

Consumers connect with a brand they can identify with, and prefer to pick the brand that complements their personality; therefore, brands are humanized, animated, and given anthropogenic qualities. Consumers look and measure the brand's distinctiveness and attractiveness, leading to

positive word-of-mouth. Consumers often buy products to enhance their self-image; celebrity endorsements attest this fact by increasing the *desirable* quality of brands. It is not only a complementing brand personality that consumers prefer, but also a self-enhancing brand personality that consumers wish to project as their own. Brands represent how people feel about a brand, rather than what they think the brand is, or how it projects you. For collectivist cultures, brands may be used as a medium of *fitting in*; while in individualistic cultures, brands may be chosen as a medium of differentiation. Understanding the customer's views toward a brand, and creating awareness of brand personality, enables marketers to design advertisement campaigns around the generic views toward the brand.

Emotions and Personality

Increasingly, companies are searching for ways to create strong emotional brand connections with consumers. It has been confirmed that despite functional characteristics such as price, packaging, and distribution, the brand also has a symbolic meaning, which is called brand personality.⁸ Nowadays, the concept of emotional marketing is spread world-wide and broadly used. Brand personality, which could be understood as an emotional connection between consumer and brand, acquires even more important role in creating, developing, and maintaining strong brands.⁹ For example, cosmetics companies have communicated for years to consumers that using their products will make them more attractive and beautiful and bring them closer to realizing an ideal vision of themselves (an *ideal self*). More recently, however, Unilever's Dove campaign has used models who are more average in appearance, presumably corresponding more closely to how the majority of consumers actually see themselves (an *actual self*). This approach hit a nerve with many consumers, causing them to form a strong emotional connection with the brand. In scientific literature, authors usually analyze two dimensions of brand image: rational and emotional. Rational brand image consists of such functional characteristics as price, quality, distribution channels, packaging, and so on. Nowadays, there are lots of brands which have similar or even the same functional characteristics; therefore, for marketers, it becomes almost impossible to differentiate the brand on a rational level. Differentiation

of brands using only functional attributes also poses a threat that features could be easily copied by competitors.¹⁰ By creating an emotional image of the brand, the company could obtain a really strong differentiator. Brand personality is emotional brand image, in other words: emotional connection between consumer and brand. The actual self seems to be growing in importance to consumers looking for reality and authenticity in marketing messages,¹¹ and many marketing managers seem to increasingly favor an authentic approach to branding. Nevertheless, other companies still create emotional connections with campaigns that focus on ideal self. In other words, the ideal self seems to remain important because many consumers like brands that do not fit with their actual reality but, rather, represent an aspiration as a means of self-improvement. The self-concept is defined as the cognitive and affective understanding of whom and what we are and can take two forms: the actual self and the ideal self. The actual self is based on the perceived reality of oneself (i.e., who and what I think I am now), whereas the ideal self is shaped by imagination of ideals and goals related to what a person believes that he or she would like to be or aspire to become.¹² Either way, the consumer can achieve self-congruence by consuming a brand with a personality that he or she regards as similar to either the actual or ideal self. Actual self-congruence reflects the consumer's perception of the fit between the actual self and the brand's personality, whereas ideal self-congruence is the perceived fit of the brand personality with the consumer's ideal self.¹³ An actually self-congruent brand reflects who the consumer actually is ("this brand's personality is like who I really am"), whereas an ideally self-congruent brand reflects who the consumer would like to be ("this brand's personality is like who I would like to be"). In psychology, attachment is an emotion laden bond between a person and a specific object.¹⁴ In a marketing context, people can also build and maintain emotionally charged relationships with brands.¹⁵ Thus, emotional brand attachment reflects the bond that connects a consumer with a specific brand and involves feelings toward the brand. These feelings include affection, passion, and connection,¹⁶ which represent *hot* affect from the brand's linkage to the self.¹⁷

In sum, there is emotional connection between brand and consumer personalities, but there is a potential hierarchy in traits of brand personality; therefore, it is important to analyze traits of both brand and consumer

personalities divided into main and complementary ones. Consumers might choose the brand with personality that is congruent not only to consumers' real self, but also ideal self. This could be the reason why brand with different personality compared to consumer personality is chosen during the purchase decision making.

Emotions and the Body

Emotions play an important role in people's lives, since they guide, enrich and enable life, and provide meaning to everyday existence.¹⁸ When consumers encounter garment fit problems as a result of their body shape, an emotional experience may result due to the failure to attain the personal values they are aiming to achieve. In fact, there is quick evaluation with respect to fit and a person's well-being, and it causes generation of emotions and personal experiences. The differences in body shapes will often result in strong emotions to look attractive and have a desired appearance. Also, personal values can be regarded as the points of reference in the evaluation processes. If, for instance, body shape is contributing to the problems of garment fit, emotions may be elicited depending on the perceptions of whether the fitting of the garment matches or mismatches the personal values, which the female consumer may seek through clothing. Hence, an emotional state will not be elicited by the garment fit problem as such, but by the evaluation significance of this problem to an individual's personal values.¹⁹

Nervous Systems and Hormones

When a task as simple as a trip to the supermarket becomes an emotional ordeal, little things like making decisions about buying groceries, or getting dressed in the morning, become monumental. Ask yourself if it is because of hormones influencing your mood. The secretions and corresponding fluctuations of hormones in our body definitely affect emotions, processes of thought, and physical well-being. This may result in more spending on personal grooming items, cosmetics, buying of clothes, and so on to look attractive, or it may result in craving for some high calorie food. Emotion constitutes a major influence for determining human

behaviors. It is believed that emotions are predictable and are rooted in different areas in our brains, depending on what emotion it evokes. An emotional response can be divided into three major categories including behavioral, autonomic, and hormonal. The hormones released facilitate the autonomic response. For example, the autonomic response, which has sent out the fight-or-flight response, is aided by release of epinephrine and nor epinephrine from the adrenal gland. It helps in increasing the blood flow and supplying more nutrients and oxygen to the body muscles.²⁰ The behavioral expression is explained by the muscular movements that accompany the emotion. For example, if a person is experiencing fear, a possible behavioral mechanism would be to run away from the fear factor, whereas the autonomic aspect of an emotion gives the ability to react to the emotion. This would be the fight-or-flight response that the body automatically receives from the brain signals. Several hormones are secreted in response to emotions and vary from general emotional tuning to specific hormones released from certain emotions alone: Oxytocin hormone affects our limbic system and it helps in suppressing the anxiety and stress, which is felt during various situations. It provides a calming effect to the body during these high stress situations. Oxytocin is also seen as a strong hormone in maternal attachment and aggression found in new mothers. Another hormone adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) is secreted by the posterior pituitary in response to fear and plays a role in the facilitation or inhibition of behaviors and actions to follow. Serotonin and dopamine regulate happiness. Serotonin acts on receptors in the gastrointestinal tract while dopamine acts on receptors in the brain.²¹ All of the body's functions can be influenced by the endocrine system. This includes metabolism, growth, water and electrolyte balance, sexual function, reproduction, and behavior. Tables 5.1 and 5.2 depict the name of the endocrine gland, the hormones secreted from tissues, and their functions.

The pituitary gland is the most important part in the endocrine system. It is often termed the *master gland* and is located at the base of the brain just below the hypothalamus. The pituitary gland secretes hormones on the basis of the emotional and seasonal changes. The pituitary gland (see Table 5.1) is divided into two parts—the anterior lobe and the posterior lobe. The anterior lobe of the pituitary gland regulates the activities of the thyroid, adrenals, and reproductive glands. The anterior lobe

Table 5.1 Role and functions of hormones

Endocrine gland	Hormone	Main tissues	Function
Hypothalamus	1. Thyrotropin releasing hormone (TRH)	Anterior pituitary	Promotes release of thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH)
	2. Somatostatin	Anterior pituitary	Inhibitory hormone that prevents release of hormones such as growth hormone (GH) from the anterior pituitary
	3. Gonadotrophin releasing hormone (GnRH)	Anterior pituitary	Stimulates release of follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) and luteinising hormone (LH) from the anterior pituitary
	4. Corticotrophin releasing hormone (CRH)	Anterior pituitary	Stimulates ACTH release from the anterior pituitary
	5. Growth hormone releasing hormone (GHRH)	Anterior pituitary	Stimulates release of growth hormone (GH) from the anterior pituitary
Anterior pituitary	1. TSH	Thyroid	Stimulates release of thyroxine and triiodothyronine (T ₃) from the thyroid gland
	2. Luteinising hormone (LH)	Testis or ovary	Males: promotes testosterone release from the testis. Females: promotes ovulation of the egg and stimulates oestrogen and progesterone production
	3. Follicle stimulating hormone (FSH)	Testis or ovary	Males: promotes production of testosterone from testis. Females: promotes development of eggs and follicles in the ovary prior to ovulation
	4. GH	Bones, cartilage, muscle, fat, liver, heart	Acts to promote growth of bones and organs
	5. Prolactin (PRL)	Breasts, brain	Stimulates milk production in the breasts and plays a role in sexual behavior
	6. ACTH	Adrenal glands	Stimulates the adrenal glands to produce mainly cortisol

(Continued)

Table 5.1 Role and functions of hormones (Continued)

Endocrine gland	Hormone	Main tissues	Function
Posterior pituitary	Vasopressin (antidiuretic hormone, ADH) Oxytocin	Kidney, blood vessels, blood components Uterus, milk ducts of breasts	Acts to maintain blood pressure by causing the kidney to retain fluid and by constricting blood vessels Causes ejection of milk from the milk ducts and causes constriction of the uterus during labor
Thyroid gland	Thyroxine (T4) T3	Most tissues Most tissues	Regulates the body's metabolic rate Regulates body's metabolic rate
Parathyroid glands	Parathyroid hormone (PTH) Calcitonin	Kidney, Bone cells Kidney, Bone cells	Increases blood calcium levels in the blood when they are low Decreases blood calcium levels when they are high
Adrenal cortex	Cortisol Aldosterone Androgens	Most tissues Kidney Most tissues	Regulates many physiological functions including blood pressure regulation, immune system functioning, and blood glucose regulation Maintains blood pressure by causing salt and water retention Steroid hormones that promote development of male characteristics.
Adrenal medulla	Adrenaline and nor adrenaline (the catecholamines)	Most tissues	Involved in many physiological systems including blood pressure regulation, gastrointestinal movement, and patency of the airways
Pancreas	Insulin Glucagon Somatostatin	Muscle, fat tissue Liver Pancreas	Acts to lower blood glucose levels Acts to raise blood glucose levels Acts to inhibit glucagon and insulin release
Ovary	Oestrogens Progesterone	Breast, Uterus, internal, and external genitalia Uterus, Breast	Promotes development of female primary and secondary sexual characteristics. Important role in preparing the uterus for implantation of embryo Affects female sexual characteristics and important in the maintenance of pregnancy

Table 5.2 *Role and functions of hormones*

Endocrine gland	Hormone	Main tissues	Function
Testis	Testosterone	Sexual organs	Promotes the development of male sexual characteristics including sperm development
Stomach	Gastrin	Stomach	Promotes acid secretion in the stomach
	Serotonin (5-HT)	Stomach	Causes constriction of the stomach muscles
Duodenum and jejunum	Secretin	Stomach, Liver	Inhibits secretions from the stomach and increases bile production
	Cholecystokinin (CCK)	Liver, Pancreas	Stimulates release of bile from the gall bladder and causes the pancreas to release digestive enzymes
Kidney	Erythropoietin	Bone marrow	Stimulates red blood cell development in the bone marrow
Heart	Atrial natriuretic factor (ANF)	Kidney	Lowers blood pressure by promoting salt and water loss
Skin	Vitamin D	Small intestine, Kidney, Bone cells	Stimulates the uptake of calcium in the small intestine, retention of calcium and release of calcium from bone stores

also produces hormones such as: GH, PRL, TSH, and corticotrophin. Also, the posterior lobe of the pituitary gland produces ADH hormones and oxytocin. The thyroid gland secretes T₃ and T₄, and the adrenal glands are made up of two parts. The outer part is called the adrenal cortex and the inner part is called the adrenal medulla. The outer part produces hormones called corticosteroids, the inner part, or adrenal medulla, produces hormones called catecholamine's such as adrenaline. These hormones regulate not only the body's metabolism, the balance of salt and water in the body, the immune system, and sexual function, but they also help the body cope with physical and emotional stress by increasing the heart rate and blood pressure. Furthermore, in males, the testes secrete

hormones called androgens the most important of which is testosterone. These hormones affect many male characteristics such as sexual development, growth of facial and pubic hair, and so on. In females, the ovaries are located on both sides of the uterus. They produce estrogen and progesterone, as well as eggs during ovulation. These hormones control the development of female characteristics such as breast development, and they are also involved in reproductive functions such as menstruation and pregnancy. Similarly, the pancreas has digestive and hormonal functions. One part of the pancreas, the exocrine pancreas, secretes digestive enzymes. The other part of the pancreas, the endocrine pancreas, secretes hormones called insulin and glucagon. These hormones regulate the level of glucose (sugar) in the blood.

Hormones and Behavior

Harmful chemicals in the products and pollutants in the environment affect your face, body, and hair; lifestyle habits such as endless stressful routine and fast life, including poor dietary habits, exposure to toxins, result in liver toxicity. Oxytocin hormone is often called as a hormone of love, and is, usually, marketed as liquid trust. Describing oxytocin as the *hormone of love* is like describing a computer as a *writing tool*—it does other things too, some of which aren't pleasant. It regulates social behavior and emotions. It can increase trust among people and make them more cooperative—this works with marketers as well as sales personnel. It can also affect generosity, depression, empathy, learning, and memory. What do you say now? Would this affect brand recall and product attribute learning and knowledge? Although use of the phrase hormone of love for oxytocin may appear to be catchy and compelling, it can have completely opposite effects on the way consumers behave, such as how they view their relationships to other people like sales staff and other consumers. The hormone triggers a biased trip down memory lane. Under its influence, people are more likely to remember information about such products and services that fits with their current attitudes to relationships with the brands. If they are anxious, they're more likely to remember the negative side of their brands. ADH increases reabsorption of water by the kidneys, which prevents the body from losing excessive amounts

of water. So do beverages like tea coffee, colas, energy drinks, and so on can affect these hormones and turn in your mood and behavior. Think about corticosteroids such as mineral corticoids, glucocorticoids, cortisol (natural anti-inflammatory), and androgens. Hormone balance is deeply connected to many different factors including nutrition, exercise, detoxification capabilities, obesity, and stress levels. Our food has changed more in the past 50 years than in the previous 1000 years. We have managed to turn our diets from whole unprocessed foods to a whole range of fast and chemically laden processed foods. Consider cattle that were once raised on grass and natural organic feed, and chickens that were allowed to run free and how commercialization has now caged them. To add insult to injury, feeds are now laced with pesticides and hormones. These pesticides and hormones have estrogen-like effects and are passed on to humans when they are consumed. This explains the alarmingly high rate of endocrine disorders in our modern day population. Remember that chronic low dose exposure to pesticides in humans can negatively affect the nervous system, and can cause immune deficiencies leading to allergies and autoimmune conditions. Changes in behavior and hormonal imbalance can be the result of the following situations such as not enough time for relaxation and play, stress and overexertion, improper breathing, improper diet (excess saturated or hydrogenated fat, sugar, refined carbohydrates, meats, dairy, and toxins in fish), nutritional deficiencies—such as vitamins B5, B6, C, zinc, selenium, magnesium, tyrosine, tryptophan, and essential fatty acids. Additionally, intestinal toxins, such as yeast toxins, elevated blood sugar, excess alcohol, smoking, exposure to electromagnetic chemicals, including polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB), dioxin, pesticides, phthalates, bisphenol, poly vinyl chloride (PVC), fire retardants, parabens in cosmetics, pharmaceutical drugs, birth control pills, hormone replacement therapy, heavy metals (particularly cadmium, mercury, and lead), lack of exercise or excessive exercise, light at night, lack of exposure to sunlight, obesity or being underweight attribute to the changes in behavior and hormonal imbalance. Remember that man-made toxins can also act as hormone imposters that mimic the effects of the real hormones, but overstimulate cellular activity to an uncontrollable extent. Ask yourself as an informed citizen and consumer as to what lifestyle you have, what do you purchase from the malls and stores, how much and how frequently

do you eat or consume fast food, genetically modified food, and so on. All the above factors result in negative thought patterns and emotions.

What Consumer Buys from the Markets?

Consumers buy bleached feminine hygiene products, avail dry clean services, and purchase and eat pesticide containing food items. All these have organochlorines. These toxins result in hormonal imbalances and behavioral disorders. Similarly, remember the last time you had purchased plastic bottles or mineral water, packaged drinking water in pets or food cans, and juice containers—all these have bisphenol-A, a breakdown of polycarbonate can result in serious health hazards. Therefore, a proper understanding and awareness of product attributes, effect of them on our body and mind, is required before you actually get impulsive to purchase branded items. Avoid heating plastics, plastic lined items as the polycarbonates escape during the heating process; inculcate the habit of using glass, ceramics, or steel to store or consume foods and liquids. Exhibit 5.1 shows what we should avoid and what we should do while purchasing.

Effects of Emotions on Decision Making

Decision making is a cognitive process where the outcome is a choice between alternatives. We often have different preferences as to our preferred approach, varying between what we think and what we feel. Emotions are internalized enough for individuals who fail to notice when they are at work. Emotions can cloud judgment and reduce rationality in decision making as they affect temperament, personality, disposition, and motivation. At the individual level, for example, fearful individuals make more pessimistic judgments about future events, whereas angry individuals make more optimistic judgments.²² The emotional responses are elicited by individuals' subjective evaluation of an event that is relevant to their needs or goals. The ways in which people appraise an event will determine the emotion they will feel. The appraisal process provides great behavioral flexibility to humans, as it is linked to their capability of learning from experiences and adapting, by judging what is harmful or

Exhibit 5.1 Check list for consumers

1. Choose organic produce. Always go organic with thin skinned fruits and vegetables.
2. Buy hormone-free animal products (eggs, poultry, meats, and dairy) to avoid xenoestrogen injections and bovine growth hormones that are added to nonorganic animal products.
3. Avoid butylated hydroxyanisole (BHS) which is a common food preservative found in processed food.
4. Avoid nonorganic coffee and tea.
5. Use reverse-osmosis filtered water or purchase your own filter for drinking and bathing.
6. Many creams and cosmetics contain parabens and stearyl konium chloride. Choose natural brands with preservatives made from minerals or grapefruit seed extract.
7. Most skin lotions, creams, soaps, shampoo, and cosmetics use parabens and phenoxyethanol as a preservative, which are substances that are 100 percent absorbable by absorbed into the body.
8. Phthalates are commonly found in baby lotions and powders.
9. Sunscreen can contain benzophenone-3, homosalate, 4-methyl-benzylidene camphor, octalmethoxycinnamate, octal-dimethyl-PABA.
10. Many perfumes, deodorizers, and air fresheners have artificial scents and contain phthalates. Most perfumes are petrochemically based.
11. Nail polish and removers contain harsh chemicals.
12. The birth control pill contains high concentration of synthetic estrogen. Choose a condom or diaphragm gels without surfactants. Use a condom without spermicidal.
13. If you are going for hormone replacement therapy, think several times, as it contains synthetic estrogen as opposed to paraben-free progesterone cream.
14. Dryer sheets, fabric softeners, and detergents contain petrochemicals that can be absorbed by the skin. Use laundry detergent with fewer chemicals or use white vinegar and baking soda.
15. Be aware of noxious gas that comes copiers, printers, fiberboards, and new carpets.
16. Do not inhale, and protect your skin from, electrical oils, lubricants, adhesive paints, lacquers, solvents, oils, paints, fuel, industrial wastes, packing materials, harsh cleaning products, and fertilizers.
17. Avoid pesticides, herbicides, fungicides, parathion, plant and fungal estrogens, industrial chemicals (cadmium, lead, mercury), Prempro, DES, Premarin-cemeteries, Tagamet, marijuana, insecticides (dieldrin, DDT, endosulfan, heptachlor, lindane or hexachlorocyclohexan, methoxychlor), erythrosine, FD&C Red No 3, nonylphenol, polychlorinated biphenyls, phenosulfothizine, phthalates, and DEHP.

Source: <http://thelovevitamin.com/tag/estrogen/>

what is beneficial.²³ Specifically during decision making for an individual, consumer emotion is episodic, which conveys the idea of a dynamic process, with a beginning and an end, and of a relatively brief duration.²⁴ It is an event or object specific²⁵ and has usually a definite cause and a cognitive content;²⁶ therefore, its implications on behavior are focused

and specific.²⁷ Most of our purchasing choices and decisions are the result of a careful analysis of the advantages and disadvantages and of affective and emotional aspects. Traditional models of consumer decision-making are largely cognitive and sequential in nature. While there is some recognition of an emotional component in the decision-making process, traditional models assume emotions are sequential in nature with the most important emotion being the final one; negative emotions are bad and should be overcome; cognitive and affective processes and multiple emotions cannot exist simultaneously; and a dichotomy exists between satisfaction and emotion in consumer decision making. Nowadays, in purchasing, emotional factors are important as classic functional aspects of product or service. Enterprises with their marketing operations try to arouse the emotions for tying the customer to the brand of the company. Companies adapt their business strategies to the changes in technological evolution. Enterprises want to establish with the customer an emotional channel of trust and mutual collaboration. Now marketers are attempting to establish a relationship with the consumers rather than focusing only on products and services. So the important point here is as to how your products establish a communication with the consumers and help in the arousal of desired emotions.

Conclusion

The discussion on emotions and individual behavior, particularly, in context of body nervous systems and hormones, personality, and decision making can be used in emotional marketing. Emotions are reciprocal with mood, temperament, personality, disposition, and motivation. Emotions can be influenced by hormones and neurotransmitters, such as dopamine and serotonin. Dopamine can affect a person's energy level and mood, while serotonin can affect critical-thinking skills. As emotion is largely a chemical balance (or imbalance) in the mind, emotions can quickly cloud judgment and complicate social interactions without the individual being consciously aware that it is happening. However, there is need for adopting new assumptions about emotions in consumer decision making moves us toward a more contemporary framework within which

to discuss the role of emotions in consumer decision making. These new assumptions include multiple emotions existing simultaneously, no dichotomies between satisfaction and emotion or the roles of cognition and affect, as well as negative emotions not always leading to undesirable decision outcomes.

CHAPTER 6

Consumer Experience Management

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to revisit the fundamental concepts of market and marketing to establish the role and importance of emotions and experiences. It discusses the consumer experiences and approaches to consumer emotions along with various dimensions of experiences. The chapter highlights the issues and challenges faced by marketers in understanding and managing the consumer experiences, along with the new perspective of marketing and customer centricity and the issues and challenges involved therein. The chapter concludes by highlighting that in all businesses we create emotions and experiences only. Thus, a timely understanding and managing of key relevant emotions can grow your business in a sustainable manner. There are different approaches to conceptualize emotions and emotional experiences. It can be a simple approach of simple representation of emotional responses across a set of core dimensions: valence (continuum from positive to negative) and arousal (continuum from high to low). These two dimensions are viewed as a circumflex; discrete emotions are systematically placed around the perimeter of a circle, their placement representing the extent these emotions bear reflections of the identified dimensions.¹ According to these approaches, all feeling states have some valence and arousal level and can be thoroughly represented on this two dimensional circumflex.² However, these approaches seem to fall short when it comes to capturing the full range of emotions that people experience.³ The dimensional approach aims to represent affective responses using a limited array of common dimensions. Although, dimensional conceptualizations can be considered

among the more influential approaches to emotion in the context of consumer behavior, recently, researchers have started pointing out their limitations. A substantial criticism highlights that these accounts of emotion propose an oversimplified account, limited ability to distinguish between emotions of similar valence and arousal levels, and no theoretical explanation of the causes and consequences of discrete emotions.⁴ Similarly, there are attempts to group emotions based on their similarities. This research strives to identify a limited set of basic emotions that reflect the common characteristics of others in the same category. For example, one approach says that there are eight primary emotions consisting of fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, expectancy, and surprise.⁵ According to this approach, from these basic categories, one is used as an exemplar to determine what other emotions should be grouped in that category. A substantial amount of work on basic emotions categories was based on distinctive facial expressions associated with specific emotions. Drawing from developmental research, these conceptualizations assume that there is a limited set of emotions universally deemed to be associated with a certain facial expression, and these expressions are inherent to all humans across cultures. For example, the other approach says that there are 10 fundamental emotions: interest, enjoyment, surprise, distress (sadness), anger, disgust, contempt, fear, shame or shyness, and guilt.⁶ These theories mainly argue that any experience of emotion is the result of the particular pattern of responses across these various basic emotions. In other words, more complex emotions are the result of mixtures of these basic emotions. Thus, in any given situation, it is possible to describe emotional response by measuring the extent to which each of the basic emotions is experienced.⁷ However, as for the mechanisms by which second order emotions like pride, guilt, jealousy, or envy are evoked, these theories are not very informative, and not all emotions are communicated through nonverbal articulation or have a universal facial expression (e.g., hope).⁸ Therefore, the challenge is to address the excessively limiting range of concepts to describe the complicated phenomenon of subjective emotional experiences. Furthermore, I see that the focus of these approaches has usually been the communication of present emotions. It is not surprising that they have also been critiqued for merely labeling but not theoretically explaining the occurrence of emotions.⁹ I strongly

believe and suggest that some of the subjective experiences of emotion are culturally bound and, therefore, not easily defined by a combination of universal basic emotions only. Many researchers have acknowledged the lack of an overarching theory capable of thoroughly depicting the intricate phenomenon of emotional response.¹⁰ The common weakness of these conceptualizations is that although they systematically relate and categorize a wide array of emotional responses, they do not bring an explanation to the mechanism as to *why* certain situations and experiences lead to specific emotional responses. Their shortcomings render these theories merely descriptive of emotional responses in terms of their relation to other emotions and their interpersonal communication. Similarly, consumer behavior researchers have noted that although these theories have found acceptance in the field of marketing, these theories fail to rigorously explain the nature of emotional response in consumption contexts.¹¹ Recognizing these limitations, emotion researchers have directed attention to cognitive appraisal theories, which bring rigorous clarifications to theoretical and practical difficulties in the study of emotions.¹² This more flexible conceptualization enables cognitive appraisal approach to represent emotions at a more refined level. Rather than enforcing dimensions of valence and arousal on a wide range of emotions, this cognitive approach acknowledges different dimensions on which emotions can be further differentiated. Many empirical findings support this more fine-grained conceptualization. Remember that the information conveyed by emotions goes beyond their valence or intensity;¹³ therefore, different emotions with similar valences (and levels of arousal) lead to different experiences and outcomes. For example, sad individuals make situational attributions while angry individuals were more likely to attribute events to human factors.¹⁴ Also, there can be dissimilar effects of negative emotions on risk perceptions; even though fear and anger are both high-arousal negative emotions, fear tends to trigger risk-aversion, whereas anger tends to trigger risk-seeking. Fear and anger have opposite effects on cognitive appraisals and on optimistic risk estimates.¹⁵ Furthermore, there can be different motivational effects of negative emotions. For example, anxious individuals tend to prefer low-risk and low-reward options, whereas sad individuals tend to prefer high-risk and high-reward options—a seeming reversal of the high arousal and high-risk pattern

observed elsewhere.¹⁶ This is because anxiety, which is typically associated with situations of high uncertainty, activates a goal of risk and uncertainty minimization, whereas sadness, which is typically experienced in response to the loss of a source of reward, activates a goal of reward maximization.¹⁷ In consumption context, the dimensions of valence and arousal are inadequate for explaining how emotions impact consumer decision-making processes. For example, consumers, in post purchase, coping response to negative outcomes can reflect that emotions such as anger, regret, worry, and disappointment lead to distinct types of coping, even though they are of similar valence.¹⁸ So what do you think now? Do differing emotions lead to contrary decisions when the judgment or choice at hand involves real monetary outcomes. The feelings of disgust and sadness have opposite effects on economic decisions like selling prices of objects and endowment effect.¹⁹ In addition to this, as per appraisal theories, emotions result from cognitive activities such as processing, or evaluating personally relevant information.²⁰ In a sense, appraisal is the process by which the individual makes meaning of his surroundings. This often involves evaluation and judgment about a situation on different dimensions. Appraisal theories use principal assessments of situations and the environment to explain which specific emotions are elicited by those events. These theories assume that the emotion is elicited by the personal denotation given to a situation, and, therefore, it is not necessarily bounded by the objective assessment of the situation by others.²¹ Therefore, the prediction depends on the association between the individual's subjective meaning of what is happening and the emotion being elicited. Antecedents to the process of appraisal are these perceptions of the personally relevant information and individual expectations, as well as the person's goals related to the situation at hand. Every individual has his or her own personal perspective and previous experience as they get in a situation, as well as diverging expectations. Consequently, different people often experience widely varying emotional reactions to similar objects and events. Since evaluations of underlying causes or aspects of situations will determine which emotional responses are elicited by those events, the individual's knowledge is key, since it will define one's expectations and beliefs about a situation, as well as its relevance.²² Many dimensions have been suggested for explaining diverging experiences of emotions. There are six cognitive dimensions

that define the patterns of appraisal underlying different emotions: certainty, pleasantness, attentional activity, control, anticipated effort, and responsibility.²³

Dimensions of Experience

The most commonly studied dimension of emotional experience is the pleasantness dimension. Pleasantness accounts for the majority of variance explained in an attempt to categorize emotions.²⁴ This dimension has been conceptualized as a fundamental evaluation of whether the situation or one's environment is congruent or incongruent in terms of the desired personal outcomes.²⁵ Pleasantness is sometimes referred to as outcome desirability or goal congruence, and it is associated with valence. It refers to the cognitive appraisal of whether the outcome of a situation is good or bad (positive or negative) with respect to personal outcomes.

Parallel to this conceptualization, some theorists argue that the positive or negative evaluation of a stimulus is actually a function of its consistency (or inconsistency) with achieving one's goals. This basic evaluation of goal congruence is sometimes referred to as motive consistency,²⁶ and it basically involves an assessment of whether the situation is helpful toward or deterring from the achievement of personally relevant goals, which is facilitated or hindered in the current situation.²⁷ The appraised direction of goal congruence determines the valence of emotional response and differentiates positive and negative emotions. Different situations can bear different aspects that would be assessed differently in terms of congruence with one's goals; consequently, it is possible that one situation can elicit positive and negative emotional responses at the same time. The other dimension of experience is the perception of responsibility and control that the individual believes he or she or others have over the present situation. The control over the situation could be attributed to oneself, to another person, or to the situation itself without responsibility on a person.²⁸ Different attributions are related to discrete emotions even if they were to elicit emotions of the same valence; and causal inferences play a substantial role in consumer experience management. Also, the extent of certainty one has about a situation exerts a strong influence on the emotional experience of the individual. In other

words, some emotional experiences are associated with feeling certain and, thinking that one knows what is happening in the current situation, or with a feeling of confidence to accurately predict what will happen in future situations. Thus, among other dimensions, certainty has been deemed quite important in the determination of emotional reactions.²⁹ An emotion can be high or low on the certainty dimension regardless of its valence. In addition, certainty-related emotions seem to signal a higher inevitability and confidence about surroundings, while uncertainty related emotions signal lower levels of confidence, for example, high levels of uncertainty are most strongly associated with the emotions of hope, surprise, fear, worry, and, to some extent, sadness, while high levels of certainty are strongly related to the emotions such as anger, disgust, happiness, and pride.³⁰

Furthermore, there are effects of positive versus negative emotions on information processing. Here, the affective responses are taken as sources of information, and people inspect their feelings to see *how they feel* about a situation. Specifically, negative affect convey the information that the environment is potentially threatening, whereas positive affect signal that the environment is safe. People infer the extent of effort that they need to put in to a given situation from these different signals. Consequently, their judgments are affected by this information, which their affective state signals; they then make their judgments accordingly, usually resulting in a mood-congruent judgment.³¹ According to this, negative mood experiences convey the information that something is not right or missing, which motivates people to be more alert and attentive, leading to higher message elaboration. On the other hand, positive mood experiences convey that the situation is acceptable and safe, and, therefore, there is no need for higher elaboration. People in a positive mood engage in nonanalytic, top-down, creative processing styles, and people in a negative mood engage in analytic, effortful processing.³² For example, happy (compared to unhappy) persons are less likely to make an in-depth evaluation of the arguments contained in a message, and, therefore, less inclined to discriminate between strong and weak arguments.³³

Therefore, I think a cognitive fine tuning is required to encounter what you wish to experience. Undesired states motivate people to act and

change their situation to a more desirable one. A strive to change calls for a vigilant evaluation of different aspects and analysis of the details of the situation as well as projected outcomes of any action. Being in a negative affective state is associated with a narrowed focus of attention in an attempt to improve the currently undesired state,³⁴ promoting bottom-up, analytic processing. The people become more vigilant and careful and tend to revise their current state of mind or routine behavior, which in turn deters top-down approaches. On the other hand, the people in a positive mood are already in their desired state, and the maintenance of this state does not require as much effort, and, therefore, those in a good mood may spend less effort in an attempt to protect their current affective state,³⁵ increasing nonanalytic and top-down processes. In sum, affect regulation predicts that people in negative affective states will engage in the behavior if they believe that the behavior will uplift their mood.³⁶ People who experience a positive mood are more sensitive, than people in a negative or neutral mood, to the mood-changing consequences of their actions since any stimuli would be more likely to distract the person and uplift a negative mood. Hence, individuals who are in a positive mood will be more careful with their choices since they perceive that any stimulus would have the potential to hurt their mood. Therefore, people in a positive mood (compared to a negative mood) will be more likely to scrutinize messages which they think have the potential to be mood lifting, and they will also be more likely to avoid the messages that have the potential to be depressing.

Consumer Emotion Management

Believing and communicating that any business is a value creation process without considering the emotions and experiences of people is like working out all predictions of value in a vacuum. Therefore, I propose that there can be a new perspective and understanding of the term *market*, where the word market conveys that it is nothing but timely management of all key and relevant emotions. In context of emotions, let us understand the term market differently. Instead of defining the market as a regular gathering of people for the purchase and sale of provisions, livestock, and other commodities or an area or arena in which commercial dealings

are conducted and promoted and advertised. Market in an emotional context may be defined as:

M—managing; A—all desires; R—relevant needs; K—key wants;
E—emotions and experiences; T—timely (Temporal effect).³⁷

In other words, market should be defined as timely management of all relevant and key emotions and experiences. Accordingly, *marketing* should be defined as the process of first identifying all key and relevant desires, needs, and wants, along with the emotions and experiences, and then creating, pricing, communicating, and delivering the desired and valued offerings and image so as to facilitate the transaction and exchange between two partners not parties in order to create and provide satisfaction in a win-win manner to both the company and consumer. Customer satisfaction continues to be one of the topics companies research most. Consequently, theorists are continuing to explore new models and methods that may unlock meaningful information about customer satisfaction. Marketing researchers have not yet agreed on one global definition for customer satisfaction. Although the constructs have been thoroughly explored, one theoretical model has not been, and likely will not be, accepted due to the complex process involved in arriving at a customer's judgment of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Prior experience, the relationship or history that a customer has with a business, moderates the customer's service quality judgment and level of satisfaction.³⁸ The satisfaction judgment a customer makes after each transaction may be a transaction-specific judgment³⁹ or a cumulative global judgment based on multiple interactions with the firm or product.⁴⁰ Customers continually update their beliefs and expectations regarding a service, and with each visit they integrate new information with their existing knowledge about the provider. Each service encounter yields a service quality judgment that results in updated expectations for the next visit. Expectations are norms based on experience with the product. These expectations vary with the consumer and are formed from past experiences with word-of-mouth and advertisements about a firm. Remember, regardless of how customers form expectations or arrive at satisfaction conclusions, all customers have expectations, and these expectations change as encounters

with a firm change. Meeting or exceeding these evolving expectations determines the financial success of a firm.⁴¹ Therefore, I strongly believe that customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction is in fact the consumer's judgments and experiences regarding a firm's success or failure in meeting expectations, with met expectations resulting in satisfaction and unmet expectations resulting in dissatisfaction. In addition to product- and brand-related knowledge, individuals systematically use nonmarket types of knowledge such as knowledge of emotions in evaluating products and prospective consumption experiences. The presence of emotional information (i.e., emotional benefits) facilitates access to categorical knowledge of an emotion and the types of experience associated with it. This information is then used to make favorable or unfavorable evaluations of the brand. Understanding emotional knowledge and how it leads to a desired outcome, that is, developing evaluations of a products or services or making a choice selection, is an important component of consumers' emotional experiences. For example, imagine browsing knife sets in an airport and then ordering one before you board your plane, or going to a department store to look at makeup without having to bounce from counter to counter to check out each brand's selection. Companies including Macy's HSN (Home Shopping Network) and Adidas are building large, TV-like interactive screens to give consumers experiences like these in an ever-increasing effort to bring the convenience of online shopping to the offline world. The whole idea is to enhance the in-store shopping experience, where the majority of retail sales are still rung up. Retailers are looking for ways to bring the convenience, selection, and ability for product comparison of the online world. For example, HSN's digital shopping wall could be set up in an airport and would allow someone to virtually browse anything while waiting for a flight, complete the purchase through their phone and have the item shipped home. It is a way to refresh the shopping experience without having to build a new store. Also, customer satisfaction involves cognitive and affective aspects in prepurchase, purchase, and postpurchase phases of buying goods, receiving services, or both. Therefore, the biggest challenge for marketers is to develop an ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express consumer emotions. Implicit in this is the marketer's awareness of both the emotions themselves and the thoughts

that accompany their emotions, the ability to monitor and differentiate among emotions, and the ability to adequately express consumer emotions. There is a need for distinct emotional reasoning abilities such as perceiving, facilitating, understanding, and managing emotional information.⁴² Where perceiving an emotion is the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotions.⁴³ Implicit in this is the individual's awareness of both the emotions themselves and the thoughts that accompany their emotions, the ability to monitor and differentiate among emotions, and the ability to adequately express emotions.⁴⁴ Facilitating emotion is the ability to access, generate, and use emotions to facilitate thought. This aspect involves assimilating basic emotional experiences into mental life.⁴⁵ More specifically, this includes weighing emotions against one another and against other sensations and thoughts, and allowing emotions to direct attention. With this ability, emotions are marshaled in the service of a goal, which is an essential component for selective attention, self-monitoring, self-motivation, and so on. Similarly, understanding emotions is the ability to analyze complex emotions and form emotional knowledge. This aspect involves the reasoning and understanding of emotional problems, such as knowing which emotions are similar and what relation they convey. Finally, managing emotion is the ability to regulate them to promote a desired outcome⁴⁶ by understanding the implications of social acts on emotion and the regulation of emotion in the self and in others. Regulating or managing emotions involves knowing how to calm down after feeling stressed out, or alleviating the stress and emotion of others. For example, let us see as to how, the company, Macy's Inc. is managing consumer emotions. Macy's Inc., established in 1858, is an iconic and premier retailing brand in the United States, with fiscal 2014 sales of \$28.1 billion. The company operates Macy's and Bloomingdale's brands with about 825 department stores in 45 states, the District of Columbia, Guam and Puerto Rico, and the macys.com and bloomingdales.com websites. The company also operates 13 Bloomingdale's outlet stores. Macy's offers powerful assortments and the best brands, tailored to each and every customer, with obvious value, engaging service, and unforgettable moments. Macy's is distinctly different from other major retailers. Macy's embraces customers and strives to provide an experience that transcends ordinary shopping.

Its DNA includes special events that are magical—the Macy's Thanksgiving Day Parade, Fourth of July Fireworks, flower shows, fashion extravaganzas, celebrity appearances, cooking demonstrations, and holiday traditions, ranging from the arrival of Santa Claus to tree lightings and animated window displays. Beyond fantastic events, Macy's is delivering magical moments every day. They surprise and delight customers with unique and interesting fashion merchandise—including exclusive brands that Macy's reminds their customers that they won't find elsewhere. They engage customers in stores, online, and via mobile devices by offering special experiences, as well as advice and options that bring fashion ideas to life. Macy's is committed to creating a more inclusive experience for people with disabilities by offering assistive technology for anyone reading a web page. They offer the use of a free app which is suitable for people with physical disabilities that prevent them from using a traditional mouse, keyboard, or both to navigate the web. This app provides special features to consumers for standard PC's including: hands-free tracking, onscreen keyboard, page reader, manual scan, auto scan, xy mouse, direction mouse, radar mouse, and customizable tool bar. The app is helpful for people with conditions such as stroke, paralysis, arthritis, multiple sclerosis (MS), Parkinson's disease, cerebral palsy (CP), mild visual impairment, and dyslexia. In short, Macy's is one of the first U.S. retail brands to take this initiative for better reach, serve and empower, and provide a good shopping experience to people with disabilities. Furthermore, Macy's offers the convenience of shopping digitally in their physical stores, particularly for a customer who comes into a department store but really prefers to shop on their own, as opposed to coming up to a counter and getting assistance. There is also a Macy's Beauty Spot kiosk, a rounded, roughly seven-foot-tall, four-foot-wide structure inlaid with interactive touch-screens on both sides, which allows a customer to browse the department store's makeup brands in one place. Customers can look at top-selling products or shop for products involved in specific looks on the 40-inch screen. In short, Macy's is able to access, generate, and use emotions to facilitate thought for creating a more inclusive experience for people with different abilities and offering to each and every customer with value, engagement, involvement, and unforgettable experiences.

Consumer Centricity

Marketing has witnessed revolutionary developments in the field of customer management. Viewing the customer as the key asset to the firm has led us to look for ways to increase value of the client to the firm. Concepts like customer lifetime value and valuation of customers, customer equity have emerged as important traditions in investigating ways to increase a firm's value. These concepts can be merged into a broader concept called *customer centricity*. Research investigating customer value has suggested that antecedents of increasing customer value can be grouped as organizational or product related variables. An organizational antecedent that is more relevant than others for customer relationship development is the customer centricity of the organization. In a customer centric organization, the main emphasis is on building long term and profitable customer relationships. All the organizational decisions must start with the customer as the focal point, and employees should act as customer advocates and be customer centric or relationship centric.⁴⁷ In a customer centric organization, the main emphasis is on building long term and profitable customer relationships. A customer-centric organization builds an operating model around a deep understanding of its customers—what they value and the contribution each makes to the profitability of the company. This requires designing business processes that recognize different customer segment needs, and delivering a positive and seamless customer experience at every touch point across the customer life cycle, thus promoting a culture where the customer is at the heart of any decision-making process.

Basically, customer centricity is a strategy to fundamentally align a company's products and services with the wants and needs of its most valuable customers, with a sole motive of making more profits for the long term. The key to successfully managing a customer experience initiative is the deliberate development of a customer centric framework. Customer centricity is actually an approach to doing business in which a company focuses on creating a positive and consistent consumer experience at the point of sale, through a call center, online, and via all communications, including mobile, email, and print. For example, in 2012, Banana Republic surprised passengers on a flight from New York to Los Angeles

with an exclusive in-flight fashion show. Banana Republic collaborated with five influential fashion bloggers to live-tweet the world's first ever in-flight fashion show and subsequent press event in Los Angeles. Banana Republic provided an unprecedented, real-time perspective for audiences around the world to have front-row seats at the in-flight fashion show. In addition to a fashion show, Banana Republic also brokered smart partnerships with Virgin America and Gilt Taste to provide Mad Men themed cocktails and meals in-flight, along with Mad Men episodes streamed live on TVs. Similarly, in 2013, there was a "BRLove4All campaign" launched by Banana Republic to support *love* for all. Couples—same and opposite sex—were invited to share their photos for the chance to be outfitted by Banana Republic for their nuptials (or other special occasion). The campaign was hosted on Facebook and entries were pulled from Twitter, Instagram, and Facebook leveraging the #BRLove4All hash tag. Banana Republic also supported the campaign by updating its cover photo and profile image and sharing a statement across all platforms with a unique version of the marriage equality symbol, comprised of folder t-shirts. Banana Republic proudly displayed all of the images and stories received on its Facebook page through a special photo gallery page and app. The gallery showcased a remarkable collage of affection, displaying couples from all walks of life, all united to celebrate love. The Banana Republic brand has started a new autumn campaign on Snapchat—and has signed a partnership with Instagram for image sharing, and, as such, the idea is to work directly with Instagram to leverage its insight into its audience. The previous examples show a true real life attempt by a brand like banana republic to be more transparent and customer centric in its working. It always allows customers and people, at large, to experience its new launches in a way that felt real.

Furthermore, a customer centric approach can add value to a company by differentiating themselves from competitors who do not offer the same experience. Without truly understanding your customer's behaviors, likes, and dislikes related to your products, a customer will never be at the center of your efforts. In retail context, personalizing across channels (website, e-mail, display ads, mobile, store) allows retailers to dynamically personalize the experience for each shopper, delivering the products they are interested in at exactly the right time, no matter where they are.

Exhibit 6.1 Do you know your customer? A checklist

1. Do you understand changing needs, wants, desires, and behaviors?
2. Do you stay close to valued customers?
3. Do you know and do you have scale to measure loyalty? Remember, loyalty is more than satisfaction.
4. Do you know your specific customer loyalty groups like conditional, emotional, and passive?
5. Have you identified your customer segments based on differentiated value propositions and differentiated experiences?
6. Do you do an ongoing two-way or multiple dialogue, using direct and indirect channels?
7. For a trust based customer experiences, relationships, and emotions, have you empowered your executives?

This provides a consistent shopping experience, helps the consumer reach the ready state, and leads to improved conversion and revenue. Creating a dialogue between the organization and users facilitates consumer experiences in terms of a buyer's perceived involvement intensity and personal meaning. Do you know your customer and the emotions and experiences felt by her or him? Please see Exhibit 6.1 showing a checklist for your ready reference.

Issues and Challenges

How effectively business deals with the challenges of sustainability will define its success for decades to come. Current sustainability strategies have three major deficiencies: they do not directly focus on the customer, they do not recognize the looming threats from rising global overconsumption, and they do not take a holistic approach. Therefore, there is a strong need for a framework for a customer-centric approach to sustainability that should encompass and emphasize outcomes of business actions, measured holistically in term of environmental, personal, and economic wellbeing of the consumer. Marketers have a bigger challenge of understanding the consumption mediated impact of marketing actions on environmental, personal, and economic wellbeing of the consumer. The actions are needed both in external-market domain and in internal-company domain. Without a framework to create, continuously evolve, and ensure a unified customer experience, a company's best intentions in marketing, loyalty programs, employee involvement, product

development, and customer service can actually have a negative impact. In retail context also, the challenge is to implement customer-centric marketing. By employing customer centric marketing, retailers can reach consumers wherever they are to engage them throughout the shopper's lifecycle, utilizing different vehicles. Retailers need to build upon a holistic strategy and employ cross-channel personalization techniques across all touch points to attract, convert, and nurture consumers. Consistent, personalized communications will help increase buyer readiness leading to increased purchases from consumers. So where should you start? Make sure you are thinking about a strategic, holistic approach.

Conclusion

Customer centricity should ultimately result in improvement of consumer experience as executive leaders across all industries continue to face market challenges. Competition continues to accelerate, and, in retail, large chain stores compete by aggressively buying market share through acquisition, while small specialty and pop-up stores often lack the cost efficiencies of their larger competitors. New digital buying options are fragmenting the retail purchase process, giving customers the ability to shop anytime, from anywhere. Digital shopping opportunities make it challenging for retailers to keep and build store traffic without big price incentives. Being truly customer centric is increasingly difficult as channel options increase and customer expectations grow. Where it was once sufficient to collect and share customer data points across a line of business for better target marketing, now true customer-centricity means an ability to react in real-time, both inbound and outbound, and share data all across the organization's growing lines of business and channels of operation. Becoming more customer-centric requires retailers to engage in ongoing two-way dialogues with customers—shifting the focus from campaigns to customer lifetime value. And being customer centric requires knowing each customer, and being able to interact with them in a way that reflects their preferences, their past behavior, and their anticipated next behavior.

Notes

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3. Lazarus (1991) and Ben-Ze'ev (2000).
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5. James (1884) p. 189.
6. Lange (1885).
7. Ellsworth (1994); Reisenzein, Meyer, and Schützwohl (1995).
8. Ekman and Friesen (1971); Levenson, Ekman, and Friesen (1990).
9. Damasio (1999); Zajonc, Murphy, and Inglehart (1989).
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2. Izard (1977); Tomkins (1962).
3. LeDoux (1987).
4. For example, Davidson (1984).
5. Fox and Davidson (1984).
6. Flynn (1967).
7. For example, Izard (1977); Zajonc (1980).
8. Lewis and Michalson (1983).
9. Darwin ([1872] 1965).
10. Masters (1995).
11. Wright (1973).
12. Cummins (1975).
13. Solomon (1983).
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3. For example, Zuckerman, DePaulo, and Rosenthal (1981).
4. Fridlund (1994).

5. Ekman, Friesen, and Ellsworth (1972), p. 3.
6. Fridlund (1994).
7. Darwin ([1872]1998).
8. Compare de Saussure (1974).
9. See Ekman's editorial commentary in Darwin ([1872]1998), pp. 63–64, and Ekman and Hager (1979).
10. Tomkins (1995), pp. 90–91; Burkhardt (1985); Fridlund (1994).
11. For example, Tomkins (1962); Zajonc, Murphy, and Inglehart (1989).
12. Mead (1934).
13. Compare Beebe et al. (1985), p. 16; See also, Rizzolatti, Fogassi, and Gallese (2001).
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15. For example, Buck (1984); Izard (1971); Ekman (1972).
16. Fridlund (1994).
17. Howard and Gengler (2001).
18. Eagly et al. (1991).
19. Grammer and Thornhill (1994).
20. Montepare and Zebrowitz (1998).
21. Ekman et al. (1991).
22. Ekman et al. (1991).
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25. Kanwisher, McDermott, and Chun (1997).
26. DeRenzi (2000).
27. Hoffman and Haxby (2000).
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29. Van Kleef (2009); Schwarz and Clore (1983).
30. Clark, Pataki, and Carver (1996).
31. Van Kleef, De Dreu, and Manstead (2004a).
32. Zebrowitz (2006); Zebrowitz and Collins (1997); Zebrowitz and Montepare (2006).
33. Marsh, Ambady, and Kleck (2005).
34. Winkielman, Berridge, and Wilbarger (2005).
35. Zebrowitz (2006), p. 672.
36. Zebrowitz (2006).
37. Montepare and Zebrowitz (1998); Zebrowitz et al. (2003).
38. Zebrowitz et al. (2003); Zebrowitz and Rhodes (2004).
39. Pound, Penton-Voak, and Brown (2007).
40. Smith et al. (1993).

41. Zebrowitz (2006); Zebrowitz and Montepare (2006).
42. Zebrowitz (2006).
43. Hall (1984); Montagne et al. (2005).
44. Schimmack (1996).
45. Elfenbein and Ambady (2003); Meissner and Brigham (2001).
46. Penton-Voak and Perrett (2001).
47. Clark, Paraki, and Carver (1996); Fitness (2000); Frank (1988).
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50. For example, Leary (1957).
51. For example, Clark and Taraban (1991); Van Kleef, De Dreu, and Manstead (2004a, 2004b).
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55. Darwin (1872), p. 16.
56. Darwin (1872).
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59. Shariff and Tracy (2011).
60. Susskind et al. (2008).
61. Shariff and Tracy (2011).
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63. Van Kleef, De Dreu, and Manstead (2004a, 2004b); Kopelman, Rosette, and Thompson (2006); Andrade and Ho (2009).

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11. Frijda (1986).

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20. Endler and Parker (1990).
21. See also Dijksterhuis and Bargh (2001), p. 462.
22. Baars (1997), p. 187.
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32. Dai and Sternberg (2004); Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2004); Picard et al. (2004); Artino and Durning (2011).
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35. Baumeister et al. (2001).
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39. Taylor (2009).
40. Garg (2003); Khan (2010); Morris and Luce (1997).
41. Carrera and Ocejja (2007); Taylor (2009).
42. Beverland, Chung, and Kates (2009).
43. Chuang and Lin (2007).
44. Jewell et al. (2009); Kidwell, Hardesty, and Childers (2008); Peter and Krishnakumar (2010).
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4. Goldberg (1990) presented.
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13. Aaker (1999).
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15. Belk (1988); Fournier (1998).
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17. Mikulincer and Shaver (2007).
18. Cacioppo et al. (2002); Desmet (2002).
19. Desmet and Hekkert (2002), p. 3.
20. Carlson (2013).
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22. Lerner and Kelter (2000).
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28. Ortony, Clore, and Collins (1988); Smith and Ellsworth (1985).
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31. Schwarz (1990); Schwarz and Clore (1996).
32. For example, Bless et al. (1990); Bodenhausen, Kramer, and Süsser (1994).
33. Bless, Mackie, and Schwarz (1992); Mackie and Worth (1989).
34. Clark and Isen (1982); Forgas (1991).
35. Clark and Isen (1982); Isen (1984).
36. For example, Cialdini, Darby, and Vincent 1973; Zillmann (1988).
37. Kapoor (2014).
38. Oh and Parks (1997).
39. Bitner (1990).
40. Cronin and Taylor (1994); Ostrom and Iacobucci (1995).
41. Fornell, Anderson, and Lehman (1994).
42. Mayer (2000).
43. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999).
44. Roberts, Zeidner, and Matthews (2001).
45. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000).
46. Mayer and Salovey (1997).

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OTHER TITLES IN OUR CONSUMER BEHAVIOR COLLECTION

Naresh Malhotra, Georgia Tech, Editor

- *Consumer Behavior: Women and Shopping* by Patricia Huddleston and Stella Minahan
- *Store Design and Visual Merchandising: Creating Store Space That Encourages Buying* by Claus Ebster and Marion Garaus
- *The Inscrutable Shopper: Consumer Resistance in Retail* by Stella Minahan, Sean Sands, and Carla Ferraro
- *Consumer Cosmopolitanism in the Age of Globalization* by Melvin Prince
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Consumer Experiences and Emotion Management

Avinash Kapoor

Emotions can organize cognitive processes or disorganize them, be active or passive, lead to adaptation, or maladaptation. Consumers may be conscious of their emotions or may be motivated by unconscious emotions. The emotions in combined form with different intensities have an adaptive significance in consumers' life. Further, the challenges that marketers and researchers face in today's global markets are to understand the expression of the emotions or consumer emotional experience.

The purpose of this book is to emphasize the value of emotions and explore mental behavioral and emotional dimensions that affect consumers of all age groups, societies, and cultures. This book is an excellent reference for students, executives, marketers, researchers, and trainers. It includes the different elements of emotion, evidence of how emotions govern and organize consumer life, and emotion and individual functioning, including psychological disorders and well being.

Dr. Avinash Kapoor received his PhD in management and MBA from R.A. Podar College, University of Rajasthan, and Jaipur, India. He also received his MA and BSc degrees from the University of Rajasthan, India. He is a recipient of the National Scholarship Award, and has 15 years of industry, teaching, training, research, and consultancy experience to his credit. Further, he has held various academic positions and was the chairperson of postgraduate program in international management, coordinator consultancy; coordinator customized training program, and the chairperson of executive MBA. Currently, he is the Associate Professor of Marketing and the chairman of postgraduate program in management (MBA) at Management Development Institute, Gurgaon, India. He can be reached at: avinash_kapoor@yahoo.com, avinashkapoor@mdi.ac.in

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