“I don’t care”
Describing digital natives emotional response towards provocative advertising

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Abstract
Consumers are actively avoiding advertising, which has made the advertising landscape more challenging, resulting in the implementation of other strategies. Provocative advertising is a strategy implemented to make a strong impression on the consumers. However, the discussion of consumers becoming more and more resistant towards advertising lifts the question of provocative advertisement as an effective strategy. Digital natives is the part of the population who are the most exposed to information on online platforms, therefore the question of lessening of response to provocative advertisement from the digital natives is investigated. As emotional response previously has been used to understand the effect advertising elicits from consumers, the purpose of this research is to describe the emotional responses digital natives have towards provocative advertising. The empirical material gathered has been among digital natives in Växjö, Sweden, studying their emotional response towards the seven types of provocative advertising provided within the theoretical framework. The focus group consisted of four different gatherings, with six participants in each in order to create an understanding of how digital natives perceive provocative advertising and resulted in an understanding of the effectiveness of it. The results indicate that provocative advertising does evoke emotions. Specifically, the advertisements that include a cause or message evoked more emotions from the digital natives, and therefore is an effective strategy to implement from a practical perspective. The result also allowed for an understanding that digital natives expressed more resistance towards expressing their emotions rather than showing specific resistance towards the provocative advertising itself, which is recommended by this study for further research.

Key words
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# Table of contents

1 **Introduction**

1.1 Background  
1.2 Problem Discussion  
1.3 Purpose  
1.4 Research Question

2 **Theoretical Framework**

2.1 Provocative advertising  
2.1.1 Disgusting Images  
2.1.2 Sexual References  
2.1.3 Profanity/Obscenity  
2.1.4 Vulgarity  
2.1.5 Impropriety  
2.1.6 Moral Offensiveness  
2.1.7 Religious Taboos

2.2 Emotional Response  
2.2.1 Positive Emotions  
2.2.2 Negative Emotions

2.3 Research Model

3 **Methodology**

3.1 Research Approach  
3.2 Research Method  
3.3 Research Purpose  
3.4 Research Design  
3.5 Data Source  
3.5.1 Primary and Secondary Data Gathering  
3.5.2 Source Criticism

3.6 Data Collection Method  
3.6.1 Focus Groups  
3.6.2 Social Desirability Bias

3.7 Sampling  
3.7.1 Sampling Frame and Sample Selection  
3.7.2 Non Probability versus Probability Sampling  
3.7.3 Composition of Sample within Focus Groups

3.8 Method of Analysis

3.9 Operationalization

3.10 Interview Guide

3.11 Execution of Focus Groups  
3.11.1 Advertisements Search Process  
3.11.2 Pre-Test for Provocative Advertisements

3.12 Ethical Considerations  
3.12.1 Societal Issues  
3.12.2 Respondent  
3.12.3 Ourselves

3.13 Quality Measurement
3.14 Methodological Summary 35

4 Empirical Investigation 36
4.1 Disgusting Images 36
4.2 Sexual References 36
4.3 Profanity/Obscenity 37
4.4 Vulgarity 38
4.5 Impropriety 39
4.6 Moral Offensiveness 40
4.7 Religious Taboos 41

5 Analysis 42
5.1 Contentment 42
5.2 Happiness 42
5.3 Love 43
5.4 Pride 43
5.5 Anticipation 43
5.6 Surprise 44
5.7 Trust 44
5.8 Sadness 44
5.9 Anger 45
5.10 Fear 46
5.11 Shame 46
5.12 Boredom 46
5.13 Disgust 47

6 Conclusion 48
6.1 Managerial Implications 49
6.2 Academic Implications 49

7 Limitations and Future Research 50

References 51

Appendices
Appendix 1. Advertisements
Appendix 2. Source Criticism
Appendix 3. Justification of Articles
1 Introduction

In this chapter the phenomena of provocative advertising, emotional response and the concept of digital natives are introduced, which works as a foundation for the research of this study. The background leads to a discussion concerning the problems within the field and the chapter is summarized by presenting the purpose and research question of the study.

1.1 Background

Advertising is a tool organizations use to communicate their brand (Skorupa, 2014) and is further considered to be a main communication channel within branding (Armstrong and Kotler, 2011). It is defined as “...brand-initiated communication intent on impacting people.” (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016, p.343). Today, most businesses use advertising to support their branding by making their audience aware of goods, services or social issues (Skorupa, 2014), where monitoring emotional response is important in assessing advertising effectiveness (Bogdan & Raluca, 2012). However, advertising being a well used tool also leads to a more competitive approach to the use of it. Pieters, Wedel and Batra (2010) state that since consumers are actively avoiding advertising, the advertising landscape has become more challenging. This since the market is at a competitive stage as a result of business implementing new strategies and advertising techniques that are developed to draw the attention of consumers, which in turns makes the consumers more resistant to the advertising (Skorupa, 2014). The competitive advertising environment leads to implementing different types of advertising executions and strategies (Huhmann & Mott-Stenerson, 2008).

One type of strategy used to act on this challenging market is provocative advertising, which has as its main purpose to grab the consumers’ attention (Skorupa, 2014; Andersson & Pettersson, 2004; Dahl Frankenberger, & Manchanda, 2003). Vézina and Paul (1997) define provocation in advertising as “a deliberate appeal, within the content of an advertisement, to stimuli that are expected to shock at least a portion of
the audience, both because they are associated with values, norms or taboos that are habitually not challenged or transgressed in advertising, and because of their distinctiveness and ambiguity” (Vèzina & Paul, 1997, p.179). Bogdan and Raluca (2012) state that it is important to assess emotions when looking at advertising effectiveness, since the more consumers like the advertising the more likely they are to create a favorable perception of the brand. Derbaix (1995) state that emotions have been used as a measurement in order to understand consumer perceptions towards advertisement, by measuring the emotional responses. Further, Chamberlain and Broderick (2007) identifies that emotions are a central component of consumer responses and that advances within researching advertising stimuli in advertisements is helpful for marketers in order to understand the effects it elicits from the consumers. Virvilaitė and Matulevičienė (2013) and Waller (1999) state that provocative advertising is implemented to leave a strong impression in the consumers’ minds that in turn make them remember the brand better than its competitors. This is confirmed by Andersson and Pettersson (2004) through stating that provocative advertising is a strategy that is more effectively gaining people’s attention, compared to other advertising strategies (Waller, 1999).

Provocative advertising started gaining popularity in the late 90’s with the intention to shock particular segments of the population and the strategy was quickly adopted by several brands (Vèzina & Paul, 1997). Kraidy and Goeddertz (2003) state that Benetton have used provocative advertising tactics and challenged social norms and beliefs. An example of Benetton provocative advertising is the campaign “We on Death Row”, where the company challenge the view on capital punishment, which was a campaign that got a lot of attention and critique from the US media and the result of this Benetton advertising campaign has become a unique example of global communication (Kraidy & Goeddertz, 2003). It has been proven by researchers within the field of branding that provocative advertising has delivered both value and influence to, as well as on, consumers (Waller, 1999; Andersson & Pettersson, 2004; Virvilaitė & Matulevičienė, 2013). Beyond initial attention, provocative advertising makes consumers remember a specific advertisement better compared to other appeals (Andersson & Pettersson, 2004). However, consumers are becoming more resistant to
advertising overall (Skorupa, 2014), as well as having a negative response to provocative advertising (Bae, Rudd & Bilgihan, 2015). Further, researchers are discussing if provocative advertising is an effective strategy on consumers who are highly exposed to provocative advertisement, specifically through emphasizing that the large amount of platforms providing provocative material has made consumers more resistant towards provocative advertising (Amyx & Amyx, 2011; Skorupa, 2014; Bae, Rudd & Bilgihan, 2015).

1.2 Problem Discussion

Emotional response has been used as a tool to understand how individuals react towards advertising (Stout & Leckenby, 1986; Edell & Burke, 1986; Derbaix, 1995; Bogdan & Raluca, 2014), where the emotional response has been used to understand the effect advertising elicits from consumers (Chamberlain & Broderick, 2007) and to assess effectiveness of advertising (Bogdan & Raluca, 2012). Throughout literature and scientific research, a practiced way to understand emotions has been to divide them into positive and negative emotions (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Edell & Burke, 1987; Richins, 1997). Emotions are still a relevant way to understand response to advertising, however, more recently it has been suggested to emphasize the nuances within positive and negative emotions to further understand emotional response (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). In a review of literature Laros and Steenkamp (2005) present a model including eight basic emotions which according to them discovers more nuances. The basic emotions are *Contentment, happiness, love, pride, sadness, fear, anger and shame* (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). Since a scale with more emotions, compared to only positive and negative, discovers more nuances of the emotions (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005), it has been implemented to, or suggested to be implemented to; characterize products (Meiselman, 2015), understand emotions in relation to product use (Tsao & Chan, 2011) and assess advertising effectiveness (Hupp, Gröppel-Klein, Dieckmann, Broeckelmann & Walter, 2008). Furthermore, while Laros and Steenkamp (2005) present the eight basic emotions, it was important for this study, since it applies a descriptive stance, to include theories of emotions that are not limited to one set of authors, to provide a wider perspective with more nuances and depth to the material. Therefore, theory as presented by Plutchik (2001;2003) who provides a theory of emotions from a psychological, biological and evolutionary
perspective with eight basic emotions is included in this research both to support the existing framework but to develop it with four new emotions too. Namely; Anticipation, surprise, trust, and disgust (Plutchik (2001;2003). Lastly, boredom was found to be a recently well researched emotion with importance for marketers (Bench & Lench, 2018; Van Tilburg, Igou, Desteno & Pietromonaco, 2017), in order to understand the effectiveness of advertising.

Provocative advertising is a well researched area (Vezina & Paul, 1997; Huhmann and Mott-Stenerson, 2008; Skorupa, 2014; Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003) and covers shocking- provocative- and controversial advertising (Huhmann & Mott-Stenerson, 2008). Within research, attempts have been made to divide the area into different categories where an accepted division to understand the different types of provocation was presented by Dahl, Frankenberger and Machanda (2003). The authors divide provocative advertising into seven different categories which are: Disgusting Images, Sexual References, Profanity/Obscenity, Vulgarity, Impropriety, Moral Offensiveness and Religious Taboos (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). This division was discussed and applied by Skorupa in 2014 as well as more recently by Gheorghe, Radu, Gheorghe, Negoiță, and Purcărea (2017). Different types of provocation have been researched such as nudity by Amyx and Amyx (2011) who proved that consumers who are more exposed to this type of advertisement have become more resistant towards it. This is consistent with Danaher and Rossiter (2011) who, during the result phase of their research, acknowledge and confirm previous research on the general idea on the threshold of irritation, which suggests that the increase of being exposed to many marketing communications results in a negative response to it. Further, Amyx and Amyx (2011) suggest that there are different levels of resistance towards advertisement depending on how exposed a consumer is on a daily basis, were digital natives are brought up as being highly exposed to provocative advertisement and therefore more resistant towards it (Skorupa, 2014; Bae, Rudd & Bilgihan, 2015).
A digital native is defined as a person grown up with internet as a natural part of their lives (Brännback, Nikou & Bouwman, 2017). Digital natives are constantly and increasingly sharing content on social platforms, and are more exposed to information and impressions than previous generations (Brännback, Nikou & Bouwman, 2017). This generation is defined in terms of behaviour, not age, and their behaviour is driven by technology. In the life of a digital native the smartphone is not only a tool but their source of information (Smith, 2017) and the digital natives can express and share opinions globally as a result of the easily accessible international platforms (Brännback, Nikou & Bouwman, 2017). A consequence from the sharing on social media among digital natives is the lessening of reaction towards provocative material. Meaning that when a digital native is exposed to provocative material by someone they trust, example a friend, they might approve the provocation and the reaction may become less striking (Sabri, 2017).

As exposure to provocative advertising and material is constantly growing with online information available for the public (Virvilaitė & Matulevičienė, 2013; Bae, Rudd & Bilgihan, 2015), and as digital natives are the group of people who are more exposed to information and impressions compared to previous generations (Brännback, Nikou & Bouwman, 2017), the question of the possible lessening of reaction towards provocative advertising is hereby raised (Sabri, 2017). As emotional response has been used to understand the effect advertising elicits from consumers (Chamberlain & Broderick, 2007) and is valuable in assessing the effectiveness of an advertisement (Bogdan & Raluca, 2012) describing the digital natives’ emotional response to provocative advertisement will provide an understanding of provocative advertising from a new perspective, digital natives. Further, taking the different categories, as presented by Dahl, Frankenberger and Manchanda (2003), of provocative advertising into consideration provides insight into if any types of provocative advertising elicit more emotions than others.

Practically, this study provides research for marketers and advertisers to work in an updated manner, concerning provocative advertising and digital natives. The
theoretical contribution for this paper lays in the area of researching an existing phenomenon in a new context, provocative advertising and emotional response in the context of digital natives.

1.3  Purpose
The purpose of this research is to describe the emotional responses digital natives have towards provocative advertising.

1.4  Research Question
- How do digital natives emotionally respond towards provocative advertising?
2 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework is used as a base and guide during this study. Literature regarding provocative advertising and the constructs of the concept is presented. At the end of the chapter theory regarding emotions and emotional response is presented which then guide the researchers of the study for the collection of relevant empirical data, as well as accounting for and assuring the quality of the study (Yardley, 2000).

2.1 Provocative advertising

Huhmann and Mott-Stenerson (2008) investigates controversial advertising and states that the term is also known by other words such as “shock advertisement, provocative advertisement and offensive advertisement execution” (Huhmann & Mott-Stenerson, 2008, p.294). It is stated that execution of this type of advertising is more frequently used by advertisers in order to attract attention in an increasingly competitive advertising environment (Huhmann & Mott-Stenerson, 2008). Further, the authors emphasize that the brand promotion strategy has received much notice in the recent popular press. Based on reviewing the literature Huhmann and Mott-Stenerson (2008) suggest a definition of controversial advertising execution as “Controversial advertisement executions are provocative images, words or situations that utilize or refer to taboo subjects (e.g. violence, sex/erotica, death, indecent/vulgar body parts or functions and political/ racial issues) or that violate societal norms or values” (Huhmann & Mott-Stenerson, 2008, p.294). The authors conclude with showing that studies have proven controversial executions of advertising to positively influence advertisement processing and brand information acquisition in comparison to non-controversial execution.

In previous research Dahl, Frankenberger and Manchanda (2003) investigates shocking, that is provocative, advertising. Their study includes a widely accepted division where they divide provocative advertising in seven different categories; Disgusting Images, Sexual References, Profanity/Obscenity, Vulgarity, Impropriety, Moral Offensiveness and Religious Taboos. These categories, as used by Dahl, Frankenberger and Machanda (2003), Skorupa (2014) and Gheorghe et al. (2017), are
adapted and used in order to create a strong pre-understanding for the research in this paper.

2.1.1 Disgusting Images
Disgusting images include depiction of blood, body part or secretions, orifices, disease, parasites, body harm, death and decay (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). Discussing depictions of death, which is usually explicit, it is suggested that the use of death draws attention to the advertisement and that from being risky it signals elements that makes consumers perceive the brand as avant garde or “cool”. At the same time as gaining people’s attention, death has been reported as offensive to broad consumer audiences (Sabri & Obermiller, 2012).

2.1.2 Sexual References
Sexual references contain everything from implied sexual acts and masturbation to nudity (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). Piron, Francis and Young (1996) refer to nudity in advertising as the depiction of bare bodies. This includes silhouettes and translucent undergarments, meaning to only wear a towel or lingerie. It has been suggested that explicit portrayal of sex relates to a human drive within people, which positively creates association (Sabri & Obermiller, 2012). The authors further state this explicit presentation of sex, even though it is only acted, offends people. However, Sabri and Obermiller (2012) suggest that younger audiences who are obviously targeted might not react with being offended but rather accepting it.

2.1.3 Profanity/Obscenity
Profanity/obscenity refer to swear words, obscene gestures and racial epitaphs (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003), where racial epitaphs are terms used to characterize people on the basis of their race (Camp, 2003). Racism in advertising has been found to be one of the main reasons for being personally offended and for women indecent language shown to personally offend (Waller, 1999).

2.1.4 Vulgarity
Vulgarity refers to acts which are crude or distasteful. Examples provided by Dahl, Frankenberger and Machanda (2003) are nose picking, farting, licking, humping or drinking from the toilet. When using vulgar humor, research suggest that it works for
attaining individuals’ initial attention but it is however unclear if it leads to a longer relationship. It is also suggested that even though being vulgar and provocative, advertising that carries vulgar humor can create a positive mood (Lee & Ferguson (2002).

2.1.5 Impropriety
According to Dahl, Frankenberger and Machanda (2003) impropriety refers to violations of social conventions for dress and manners. Gheorghe et al., (2017) refer to impropriety as indecency and defines it as “violence of social conventions, social decency and etiquette” (p. 61), where etiquette is considered to be a development from earlier definitions.

2.1.6 Moral Offensiveness
Dahl, Frankenberger and Machanda (2003) state that moral offensives refers to the harming of innocent people or animals in a violent manner. Meaning to provoke people into violent behaviour that is violating the standards of fair behaviors (e.g., shooting a person in the back, putting children in provocative or sexual situations, or violence such as abuse). Leonard and Ashley (2012) identifies the dimensions of violence in advertising. The authors enhance the understanding of how consumers makes sense of violent advertising by identifying the dimensions, hence type of level of harm, actors and context that shapes the consumers’ interpretation of violence in advertising. For the type of level of harm, it refers to the degree of violence where both physical and psychological harm is referred to as violence (World Health Organization, 2002). More characteristics included in the level of harm is the degree of commonplace, meaning if the degree of violence is “ordinary” such as beatings or threats in comparison to extraordinary cases such as bombs and attacks (Rosenthal & Wilson 2003). The actors refer to the perpetrators, victims, and bystanders or audience of the violent acts within an advertisement (Leonard & Ashley, 2012). Furthermore, the level of violence is dependent on audience perceptions of victims where different victims, example human, animal or an object, could affect the degree of violence perceived by the audience. Lastly, the contextual factors influence the degree of violence within advertising, which include presence of objects such as weapons, whether the violence occurs in a home or outside of a home, if it occurs in a familiar
environment, and the perception of consequences of violence such as reward or punishment (Rosenthal & Wilson 2003).

2.1.7 Religious Taboos

Religious taboos refer to using religious symbols and/or rituals in the advertising (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). The religious taboos is something that differs depending on which religion is being discussed.

2.2 Emotional Response

Studies have shown that emotions matter in measuring effectiveness of advertising (Edell & Burke, 1987) and that emotions are a central part in consumer response and therefore important for marketers to understand (Chamberlain & Broderick, 2007). Monitoring consumer emotional response can create an understanding and assess the efficiency of the advertising efforts (Bogdan & Raluca, 2012). Generally, there are two ways of measuring emotions which are positive and negative (Edell & Burke, 1987; Richins, 1997; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). Edell and Burke (1987) note that positive and negative is a clear division between the types of emotions, however it is not true that an advertisement only elicits positive or negative emotions but rather that the two can co-exist in different parts of a single advertisement (Edell & Burke, 1987). Further support for feeling opposing emotions at the same time was given by Larsen and McGraw (2011).

Previous studies have contributed with research and reviews within this area, which is presented according to emotional groups below, with Figure 2.2 as a visual representation of these groups. Laros and Steenkamp (2005) conduct a literature review where they gather research within the area, stemming back to Mehrabian and Russell from 1974, to integrate opposing research streams in psychology and consumer behaviour into one model. Laros and Steenkamp (2005) prove that the proposed model with basic emotions provides a better understanding on consumers’ emotions, as opposed to only including positive and negative response. “Because different emotions can have different behavioral consequences, it is important to know, for example, whether a failure in a product or service elicits feelings of anger or sadness” (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005, p. 1440). Further, Plutchik (2001, 2003)
provides a theory of emotions from a psychological, biological and evolutionary perspective with eight basic emotions. The theories related to emotions and emotional response are reviewed and presented below. From using positive and negative as major themes, and focusing on the basic emotions within these themes, more nuances can be discovered (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). The basic emotions are the base for the emotion groups.

![Groups of emotions](image)

Figure 2.2 Groups of emotions. Adapted by authors based on previous literature presented in chapter 2.2

### 2.2.1 Positive Emotions

Within the positive theme there are seven identified groups; *Contentment, happiness, love, pride, anticipation, surprise and trust*, as based on research by Laros and Steenkamp (2005) and Plutchik (2001, 2003), however supported by other authors within the field of research. The first group is from the basic emotion contentment (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005), which is an emotion that is passive and low in arousal (Storm & Storm, 1987). Richins (1997) present contentment, fulfilled and peaceful as emotions that belong to this group.
Happiness is an emotion that is more active and reactive, compared to contentment (Storm & Storm, 1987). To feel optimistic, encouraged, hopeful, happy, pleased, joyful, relieved, thrilled and enthusiastic is connected to happiness (Richins, 1997). Joy is a basic emotion which has been described with the same characteristics as happiness (Plutchik, 2001, 2003). Optimism is lifted as a mix between joy and anticipation by Plutchik (2001, 2003), however considered as a part of the happiness group (Richins, 1997; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005).

Love is an interpersonal emotion (Storm & Storm, 1987) relating to feeling sexy, romantic, passionate, loving, sentimental and warm-hearted (Richins, 1997). Warmth belongs to this group and has been defined as a positive and mild emotion that involves physiological arousal and can be encouraged from experiencing a love, family or friendship relationship (Aaker, Stayman & Hagerty, 1986). Plutchik (2001, 2003) describes love as a mix between joy and trust, however more recently included as a basic emotion in research by Laros and Steenkamp (2005). Pride (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005) as a basic emotion relates to being proud (Richins, 1997) but feelings of superiority also belong to this group (Storm & Storm, 1987).

Plutchik (2001, 2003) includes anticipation, surprise and trust to be three basic emotions, here sorted under the positive theme. Surprise (Plutchik, 2001, 2003) as a basic emotion is simple and is at its core the emotion when a person perceives something as different and unexpected (Scherer, 2001 in Silvia, 2009).

Anticipation relates to looking forward to something (Plutchik, 2001, 2003) and to prepare for upcoming events in terms of planning behaviour strategies (Erk, Abler & Walter, 2006). As an emotion however, it creates a positive momentum of looking forward to a known or unknown upcoming event or happening (Erk, Abler & Walter, 2006; Plutchik, 2003).

Trust (Plutchik, 2001, 2003) is the willingness to accept vulnerability based upon
positive expectations about another person's behaviour (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998).

2.2.2 Negative Emotions

Within the negative theme, six groups are identified; Sadness, anger, fear (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Plutchik, 2001, 2003), shame (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005), boredom (Van Tilburg et al., 2017) and disgust (Plutchik, 2001, 2003: Shimp & Stuart, 2004).

Sadness is considered to be a basic emotion (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Plutchik, 2001, 2003). It is an emotion that comes from situations that are caused by others or circumstances and the feeling that something wrong has been done towards oneself and makes people become inactive and withdrawn (Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson & O’Connor, 1987). Feeling depressed, sad, miserable, helpless, nostalgic, guilty and disappointment belong to this group (Richins, 1997).

Anger as a basic emotion (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Plutchik, 2001, 2003) comes from a similar situation as sadness, but the response of the individual when something wrong has been done towards themselves is to become more energized to fight against the cause of anger (Shaver et al., 1987). Richins (1997) describes it as being angry, frustrated, irritated, unfulfilled, discontented, envious or jealous. Plutchik (2001, 2003) discuss aggression as a mixed emotion, between anger and anticipation which however belongs to this group.

Fear is an emotion relating to being scared, afraid, panicky, nervous, worried and tense (Richins, 1997; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). Shame is caused by a negative action of the consumer him- or herself (Roseman, Antoniou, & Jose, 1996) and results in being embarrassed, ashamed, humiliated and feeling regret (Richins, 1997). Plutchik (2001, 2003) describes the emotion remorse, which belongs in the same group as shame.

Discussed in literature is boredom (Darden, 1999; Bench & Lench, 2018) which is a negative emotion defined by Van Tilburg et al. (2017) as a mildly negative emotion,
relatively low in arousal with little relevance to morality, associated with low perceived challenge, low perceived meaningfulness and low attention. Boredom is elicited as a result of situations that either give a person nothing to do or activities which seem meaningless to the person (Darden, 1999).

Plutchik (2001) includes disgust as a basic emotion, an emotion that is less discussed within consumer behaviour compared to the emotions above, but suggested to be more common than it is acknowledged to be (Shimp & Stuart, 2004). Richins (1997) identifies disgust as a relevant, but not key emotion in her research. Disgust belongs in the negative theme (Richins, 1997) and is a response when people are stripped of their dignity or when they see people act in an undignified manner. An audience is likely to experience disgust for example when an advertisement does or says something that is considered extreme or outstandingly bad or when advertising attempts to create a humoristic element by mocking or creating a parody of people or a situation considered morally offensive (Shimp & Stuart, 2004).

2.3 Research Model
Previous research has given a strong foundation in terms of presenting provocative advertising and dividing it into categories. Disgusting images, sexual references, profanity/obscenity, vulgarity, impropriety, moral offensiveness and religious taboos as presented by Dahl, Frankenberger and Manchanda (2003) are seen as the main categories within provocative advertising. In terms of emotions and emotional response as a measurement tool, Laros and Steenkamp (2005), Richins (1997) and Plutchik (2001, 2003) has given a thorough presentation on the different types of basic emotions and their description, with support from other sources. Previous research leads to the simple model presented below, with the aim to guide the research of this study.

Figure 2.3. Research Model
3 Methodology

This chapter presents and justifies the research approaches and designs which are applied during this study. The methodology chapter further describes the data collection process and the instruments chosen in relation to it. Further, an operationalization is provided which adapts the theory into practice which in turn is the base for collecting the empirical material. The chapter ends with theories and argumentation regarding validity, reliability and ethical considerations of the study. The thorough description, both theoretically and practically, supports the transparency and coherence of the study, which assures the quality of the research (Yardley, 2000).

3.1 Research Approach

Hyde (2000) states that there are two approaches to reasoning that leads to gaining knowledge, inductive and deductive reasoning. On one hand, when implementing a deductive approach, the research is built on existing theory (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Meaning that the deductive approach guides the researchers and audience through having an existing theoretical chapter as a starting point. The deductive reasoning, which is described as a theory testing process, begins with an already established theory or generalization, and seeks to test the theory on specific instances. On the other hand, Hyde (2000) states that the inductive reasoning is a “theory building process” (Hyde, 2000, p.83), by starting the investigation with observations, and through these observations seek to establish generalizations about the phenomenon under investigation. Since the purpose of this research is to describe the emotional response digital natives have toward provocative advertising, where provocative advertising and emotional response are fields were existing research already exists, the most suitable research approach for this study is a deductive approach. Meaning that theory concerning provocative advertising and emotional response provides a theoretical base for this study which further is applied in a new context, digital natives. Therefore, a deductive approach where the research of this study is based on existing theory is argued to be beneficial.
3.2 Research Method

When determining research strategies, there are two main and opposing strategies to choose between, quantitative and qualitative research approaches (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Hyde (2000) emphasizes that the traditional view of qualitative enquiry examines data which is narrative. Quantitative methodologies seek to describe the general characteristics of a population, and ignore the details of each particular element studied (Hyde, 2000). Further, when implementing a quantitative approach, with statistics and numerical formulations of data, and generalizing the results it could be a difficult task to distinguish the people within the sample, which is said to create a static view of the social world. Meaning that it does not understand the underlying thoughts and behaviors of the people who create social behaviors and the social world. In contrast a qualitative approach seeks to describe the particular by providing conclusions which account for the particulars of every case (Hyde, 2000). The qualitative approach is aiming to understand the underlying thoughts and behaviors of the people who create social behaviors and the social world (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Since the purpose of this paper is to describe the emotional response digital natives have towards provocative advertising and the digital natives are important actors within the online social world (Smith, 2017), a qualitative approach is justified as beneficial for this study. Meaning that a qualitative approach is favorable since it discovers deeper knowledge of those understandings that a number cannot measure. As opposed to quantitative approach, which has a highly structured approach, a qualitative approach is more unstructured and not as formal in the guidelines, and therefore gives more room to adapt and change during the course of the study (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

3.3 Research Purpose

Bryman and Bell (2011) discuss three different designs to choose from when generating a purpose for a research. These are exploratory, explanatory and descriptive. As stated during former chapters within this study, the study investigates an area where the phenomenon of provocative advertising is an existing field with existing theory. Bryman and Bell (2011) states that a descriptive research purpose is, as understood by the name, describing different phenomena more in detail (Bryman & Bell, 2011). When collecting data for a descriptive study, there has to be a large
amount of research existing to allow the research to be as detailed as possible. As opposed to this an exploratory research provides new discoveries within an area where there is a lack of information within the field (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Appannaiah, Reddy and Ramanath (2009) defines explanatory as “causal” research, hence seek an understanding of how one variable has an impact on another variable in order to gain understanding behind certain outcomes. Meaning that the explanatory purpose usually takes the form of a quantitative research method, since there is a need for a well-researched field (Bryman & Bell, 2011). For this research the aim is to provide a more detailed view of the emotional responses that digital natives have towards provocative advertising. Therefore, the most suitable purpose used for this research is to take a descriptive stance. Meaning to collect information concerning the digital natives’ emotional responses and in turn provide a detailed description of the perceptions that can be tested and implemented in further research.

3.4 Research Design

Bryman and Bell (2011) discuss that there is no research strategy that is more effective than another, however, in relation to chosen research design there are provided weaknesses and strengths more suitable for the specific research strategies to use. The research strategies discussed by Bryman and Bell (2011) are; Experimental, case study, longitudinal, cross-sectional and comparative.

Experimental research aims to test and compare results of two groups, one experimental and one control group. Here the experimental group receives the “treatment”, which is the manipulation of a variable, and the control group does not. This is in order to understand the cause and effect, as well as create strong validity for results (Bryman & Bell, 2011). For this research, experimental research design is not suitable since it usually takes a quantitative stance. Further, this research does not aim to test and compare results or to manipulate variables.

Hyde (2000) states that qualitative enquiry usually takes the form of a case study, where a case study refers to a research design that analyses one single case. Bryman
and Bell (2011) support this by emphasizing that a case study represents an in-depth study of a particular instance of a phenomenon. However, this study investigates several cases at one single point in time and therefore the case study design is not the most suitable design for this research.

A Longitudinal research design refers to mapping out change over time, usually in relation to changes within social situations and events (Bryman & Bell, 2011). However, since this research does not aim to investigate changes over time, a longitudinal research design is not considered relevant.

Cross-sectional research design aims to collect as much data as possible from multiple cases or observations at a single point in time. A cross-sectional research design also includes using people who differ in variables, such as gender and interest, but shares a main variable relative to the importance of the study (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Since the aim of this study is to collect information from several cases, which are different provocative advertisements, and receive in-depth information concerning these at a single point in time, with a sample that includes different ages, genders, and interest however characterized as digital natives, a cross-sectional research design is of high relevance for this study and is therefore implemented.

A comparative research design aims to have an identical method to compare two more contrasting cases, in order to receive a deeper understanding of cause and effect when mapping differences and contrasting behaviors against each other (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This research does not investigate contrasting cases. The cases used for this research are all within provocative advertising and are not put as contrasting or compared to one another and therefore a comparative research design is not suitable.
3.5 Data Source

3.5.1 Primary and Secondary Data Gathering

Bryman and Bell (2011) state that data could be collected in two separate ways, primary data and secondary data. Primary data is information gathered from the researchers in first hand, meaning that it exposes the researcher to the most beneficial “first hand” collection of knowledge. Hence, primary data refers to the collection of data directly observed by the researchers of the source. When solving a problem, or a unique research problem for the purpose of the study, and there is a lack of existing knowledge and information within already written research, primary collection of data is the most suitable and more tailored to that exact subject of research. Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005) state that primary data is usually collected in a format where the researchers of the study could participate when the information is provided directly, example of this is questioning, focus groups and observations. However, it is discussed by researchers that the collection of primary data might be time consuming, as well as cost consuming (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005; Bryman & Bell, 2011). On the other hand, secondary data refers to the already existing research, meaning to collect information and knowledge from previous written research in order to analyze data collected for another purpose. Secondary data can be gathered by searching different databases on the Internet, as well as public documents (Appannaiah, Reddy & Ramanath, 2009).

Because of the new perspective on the area and subject within this research, the most beneficial data source method is primary data collection. Even though primary data is both time and cost consuming it is still considered by the researchers of this study that because the area has not been described before and in order to provide the most relevant and informative findings, primary data is chosen as the data source method. Meaning that secondary data does not provide enough information relevant for this study in order to provide new findings and a solid conclusion.
3.5.2 Source Criticism

For the information provided concerning previous research in the areas of provocative advertising, emotional response and digital natives, secondary sources have been used. In Appendix 2, Source Criticism, information concerning the choice of articles is presented and in Appendix 3, Justification of Articles, more information on specific articles can be found.

3.6 Data Collection Method

3.6.1 Focus Groups

When doing a qualitative approach, the most suitable methods for collecting empirical material are observations, focus groups and in-depth interviews. This since the methods are used when aiming for rich and deep data collection (Bryman & Bell, 2011). An observation refers to the method of collecting data when behaviour is observed in a systematic way, which for this research is the least suitable. The purpose is to describe the emotional responses digital natives have towards provocative advertising, where observations would not allow for a deeper understanding of the emotions that could be expressed. Therefore, in-depth interviews and focus groups were considered. Since the research focuses on showing provocative material that the digital natives should express their emotional response towards, having in-depth interviews and providing each participant the material would not be time efficient as well as not allowing for discussion between participants concerning the subject, and therefore not relevant for this study. Applying a method which excludes possible discussion (Bryman & Bell, 2011), would contribute to a less nuanced and not as rich collection of data. For this study, where the importance is on collecting rich and in-depth data of the emotional responses digital natives holds towards provocative advertising, focus groups is considered the most suitable since it allows for unbiased participant discussion. Meaning that, the authors of this paper, as well as the moderator, are not asking leading questions, or contributing to the discussion in a biased stance allowing the participants to discuss depending on their own emotions towards the material provided.
Focus groups are a qualitative research method technique and is a form of group interview with several participants. Focus groups is one of the most common data collection method in qualitative research. The aim of usage is to create discussion between the participants that reveals a deeper understanding of how the participants feel (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005; Bryman & Bell, 2011). Meaning that focus groups facilitates a more detailed understanding of how a given subject, which in this case is provocative advertising is viewed and understood by digital natives. This method also could create more realistic answers by allowing the participants to feel more comfortable in a discussion rather than a one-to-one interview. According to Bryman and Bell (2011) the participants are subsequently led through a chosen subject, an area of interest, mainly in relation to the research conducted. This is done by having a moderator which is familiar and knowledgeable with the subject, following the discussion in an unstructured or semi-structured environment. The moderator is therefore responsible for guidance of the participants and the discussion, however, it is important that the moderator is not influencing or manipulating the participants answers or thoughts. Bryman and Bell (2011) further emphasizes that the aim with collecting data from the focus groups is for the answers to become theoretically saturated, meaning that when the answers are more in a repetitive nature the information is saturated.

3.6.2 Social Desirability Bias

Castro (2013) discusses data collection tools within a methodological focus and states that participants could work as a potential source of measurement error. One of the constructs to address this issue is called social desirability bias (SDB). King and Bruner (2000) defines SDB as an individual's pervasive tendency to project themselves in the most favorable way relative to prevailing social norms. Meaning that participants could use temporary strategies that would “shield” themselves, or to maintain a socially favorable self-representation. The participant would act as if conforming to social norms, since social norms are perceived to be socially desirable. Therefore, the researchers need to be aware of SDB threats when interpreting the data and findings in a study. SDB is also taken into consideration during the focus groups by attempting to provide the participants to feel as comfortable as possible. This by providing them information about confidentiality and anonymity, as well as providing
them beverages, snacks and asking them if they would like anything else that could allow them to be as comfortable as they can. Further, the moderation presents that they are here voluntarily and could therefore only share what they are willing to. The researchers provide the information concerning anonymity and confidentiality at the beginning of the focus group, as well as repeated later on in order to allow the participants to feel more comfortable in sharing their opinions.

3.7 Sampling

3.7.1 Sampling Frame and Sample Selection
Expressed explicitly throughout this paper, as well as in the purpose, is that the group of interest is digital natives. Therefore, it is important that the individuals participating in this research are people grown up with internet as a natural part of their lives. Digital natives are considered to be the population, where population refers to the totality of cases who together create the area which the phenomenon is observed within (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Since the researchers of this study are located in Sweden, more specifically Växjö, these are limits put on the population. Since it is not possible to acquire the whole population for a study, sampling is applied. A sample is a small group of people that are believed to be representative of the entire population (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Therefore, the sample frame is digital natives living in Växjö, Sweden.

3.7.2 Non Probability versus Probability Sampling
Discussing sampling techniques, there are two major areas as put forward by Bryman and Bell (2011), non-probability and probability sampling. Non-probability refers to selecting specific people, for example experts, to participate within the study whereas probability sampling refers to random ways of collecting participants (Koerber & McMichael, 2008). Probability sampling is often perceived to have a higher level of generalization whereas non-probability is more commonly used for qualitative research and for descriptive approaches. Since this study is descriptive and qualitative, non-probability sampling is applied. In favor for non-probability is also the use of experts, where a digital native can be seen as an expert in the area. The reason for digital natives to be considered as experts is that they are fulfilling the desired characteristics with specific knowledge and behaviour limited to their specific group.
They are experts in terms of having grown up with internet as a given, as opposed to older generations. Convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling and refers to choosing individuals who are convenient and available to researchers. It is common to use for short-term studies since it is less time consuming compared to other methods (Koerber & McMichael, 2008). Another common non-probability technique is snowball sampling, which refers to selecting an initial sample which in turn selects more participants (Bryman & Bell, 2011). To be able to assure that each focus group includes the desired respondents with desired characteristics, convenience sampling and snowball sampling is suitable. Homogeneous sampling refers to choosing individuals that share the same characteristics (Bryman & Bell, 2011), were the unifying characteristic for this research is that they are digital natives. Further the participants are selected out of people the researchers already know, or can easily access through convenient channels such as Facebook. More details on the composition of the sample and how there were selected is found in chapter 3.7.3.

For the sample size, qualitative research often has a smaller group compared to quantitative. This since the qualitative research does not seek to generalize, but rather understand a phenomenon from a group of people more detailed (Koerber & McMichael, 2008). Saturation is applied to this research and refers to continuously collecting and adding information until the information is no longer adding any new information to the data (Bryman & Bell, 2011), saturation also assures the quality of the study (Yardley, 2000). In literature it is suggested that each focus groups contains between six to 12 participants (Guest, Namey & McKenna, 2016) and that application of focus groups within research usually involves conducting two to four groups (Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook, 2007). This research follows these guidelines from having six participants in each focus groups, which are selected based on criteria stated above and judged by the researchers to fulfil them. Further, there was in total four focus groups conducted since after this saturation was reached.
3.7.3 Composition of Sample within Focus Groups

Based on the information shared in the two previous chapters, this chapter follows with a description of how the sample will be constructed within the focus groups, in terms of which characteristics the participants have.

The sampling focuses on collecting individuals that are digital natives. This is firstly assured from including young participants, since the younger the participants are, the more internet is a natural part of their daily life. The first groups are individuals that are born in 1998 and 1997 and the second groups are collected from a high school where participants are born in 1999 and 2000. That they are digital natives is then reassured through asking them if and how they have grown up with internet as a part of their life. Since the sample group is defined in terms of behaviour which is not connected to income, education or occupation these factors are not be taken into consideration for composing the focus groups. The participants are chosen based on convenience and they are individuals that the researchers already know or can conveniently access through local high schools. Snowball sampling is used in order for participants to invite people who they know are who are in the desired group. To conduct this, the researchers contacts digital natives who they know via phone or Facebook, and these individuals are then asked to contact 1-2 friends. Depending on how many other participants the digital native can provide, the participants are then arranged into focus group together with the individuals they know. Because of good availability, facilities and geographical location the focus groups are held at Linnaeus University and at the local library in Växjö, Sweden. The individuals from the high school were selected based on their class and they participate with peers they know.

In 2007, internet was used by 97% of the Swedish population in the ages 16-24 (Findahl, 2007). At this point, people born in 1998 were turning 9 years old. This implies that including people born in Sweden for the ages which are considered, should assure that these participants have had internet as a natural part of their lives. The focus groups include people who know each other and are friends. This since research suggest that using friendship groups allows for a more honest and open discussion, since the participants are more comfortable (Jones, Newsome, Levin,
To raise the willingness to join participants who join the focus group are given coffee or tea and cake or fruit as a thanks for contributing to the study.

3.8 Method of Analysis

The analysis method reflects other choices made within this research. The coding schedule presented in Table 3.8 is based on the theoretical framework and functions as a base of how to sort and code the collected empirical material. Grounded theory as a method of coding and analyzing was firstly introduced by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and their traditional view on coding has since then developed. For the analysis in this paper the developed types of grounded theory, known as initial and focused coding (Saldana, 2009), are applied. Coding as a method is a way to read a text and find patterns and themes within the text. A code is described as a word or short phrase that symbolically or in visual terms represents a longer part of a text. The coding process consists of three steps: First cycle coding, Second cycle coding and post-coding/pre-writing (Saldana, 2009). Where in the first cycle coding, this research implements initial coding when reading the empirical material. In this process the researchers read the text and interpretively produce codes relating to the different parts of the text. In this first step it is important to stay open to the process and code with an open mind to include the collected empirical material (Saldana, 2009).

In second cycle coding the aim is to develop a categorical, thematic, conceptual and/or theoretical organization from the first cycle of codes. In this step the codes from the first cycle have to be compared and categorized according to similarity. Focused coding is the type of second cycle coding that follows initial coding and refers to searching for the most frequent or significant codes from the first cycle, to create salient categories in the second cycle (Saldana, 2009). The last step of the coding process is known as the “Post-Coding and Pre-Writing” process, and refers to using the codes in order to draw a conclusion.

The coding schedule is developed from the theoretical framework and is relevant to use since it includes both emotions from the psychological perspective but also draws
on important findings from other academic and important sources. Richins (1997), which is a part of the theoretical framework, develops a model that “includes most, if not all, emotions that can emerge in consumption” (p.1440). This means that the measurement is relevant to use for advertisements independent of what is being advertised, which in turn means that the measurement is able to relate to different types of advertising. In order to be able to analyze the results given from the focus groups, the answers are matched in to categories depending on the information the participants provide using grounded theory. The information that is interpreted to match the different categories under conceptual definitions, are classified as the emotions relating to the sub-concepts presented in the coding schedule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups of Emotion</th>
<th>Sub-concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contentment</td>
<td>Contentment, fulfilled, peaceful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>Optimistic, encouraged, hopeful, happy, pleased, joyful, relieved, thrilled, enthusiastic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love</td>
<td>Sexy, passionate, loving sentimental, warm-hearted, warmth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pride</td>
<td>Proud, superiority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surprise</td>
<td>Perceiving something as different, unexpected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anticipation</td>
<td>Positively looking forward to something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Willingness to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations about another person's behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>Depressed, sad, miserable, helpless, nostalgia, guilty, disappointed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>Angry, frustrated, irritated, unfulfilled, discontented, envious, jealous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>Afraid, panicky, nervous, worried, tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shame</td>
<td>Embarrassed, ashamed, humiliated, regret, remorse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boredom</td>
<td>Bored, activities seem meaningless, have nothing to do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disgust</td>
<td>Disgust, people are stripped of dignity, or perceive someone else to be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.8 Coding Schedule
3.9 Operationalization

Below, two different tables used to conceptualize the theory are presented. Table 3.9.1 presents an operationalization on provocative advertising and the specific categories as presented. The implementation of this can be seen in Appendix 1, where the operationalization is used to both find and decide on advertisements that suits the categories. In Table 3.9.2 an operationalization of emotions and emotional response is provided. This table include a column called questions, these numbers refers to the questions found in the interview guide in chapter 3.11 that are used to gather empirical material during the focus groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main concept</th>
<th>Sub-Concept</th>
<th>Conceptual definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provocative</td>
<td>Disgusting images</td>
<td>Depictions of blood, body parts or secretions, orifices, disease, parasites, body harm, death and decay (Dahl, Frankenberger &amp; Machanda, 2003).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>advertising</td>
<td>Sexual references</td>
<td>Implied sexual acts, masturbation and nudity (Dahl, Frankenberger &amp; Machanda, 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Profanity / obscenity</td>
<td>Swear words, obscene gestures and racial epitaphs (Dahl, Frankenberger &amp; Machanda, 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vulgarity</td>
<td>Crude or distasteful acts, such as nose picking, farting, licking, humping, or drinking from the toilet (Dahl, Frankenberger &amp; Machanda, 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impropriety</td>
<td>Violations of social conventions for dress and manners. (Frankenberger &amp; Machanda, 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moral</td>
<td>The harming of innocent people or animals in a violent manner (Dahl, Frankenberger &amp; Machanda, 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>offensiveness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>Using religious symbols and/or rituals in the advertising (Dahl, Frankenberger &amp; Machanda, 2003).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>taboos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.9.1
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main concept</th>
<th>Sub-concept</th>
<th>Conceptual definition</th>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Contentment</td>
<td>Passive and low in arousal (Storm &amp; Storm, 1987).</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>Active and reactive (Storm &amp; Storm, 1987).</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Love</td>
<td>Interpersonal positive emotion (Storm &amp; Storm, 1987)</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pride</td>
<td>Superiority (Storm &amp; Strom, 1987)</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anticipation</td>
<td>Positive momentum of looking forward to a known or unknown upcoming event or happening (Erk, Abler &amp; Walter, 2006; Plutchik, 2003)</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>The willingness to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectation about another person's behaviour (Rousseau et al., 1998)</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Surprise</td>
<td>Perceiving something as different and unexpected (Scherer, 2001 in Silvia, 2009)</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>Something wrong has been done towards oneself which results in inactiveness and withdrawal (Shaver et al., 1987)</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>Being scared, afraid, panicky, nervous, worried and tense (Richins, 1997; Laros &amp; Steenkamp, 2005)</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>Something wrong has been done towards oneself, resulting in being energized to fight against the cause of anger (Shaver et al., 1987)</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shame</td>
<td>Being embarrassed, ashamed, humiliated and feeling regret (Richins, 1997)</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boredom</td>
<td>When a person has nothing to do or only activities which seem meaningless to the person (Darden, 1999).</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disgust</td>
<td>Arises when people are stripped of their dignity or when they act in an undignified manner (Shimp &amp; Stuart, 2004)</td>
<td>Q1-Q3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.9.2
3.10 Interview Guide

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions Number</th>
<th>Main question</th>
<th>Follow up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>What is your initial impression of the advertisement?</td>
<td>Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>What are your overall feelings towards the advertisement?</td>
<td>Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>What do you think about this type of advertisement?</td>
<td>Why?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.10 Interview Guide

3.11 Execution of Focus Groups

The first rounds of focus groups are taking place at Linnaeus University and in these focus groups digital natives born in 1997 and 1998 participate. The second rounds of focus groups take place at the local library in Växjö, Sweden, and in these focus groups digital natives born in 1999 and 2000 participate. Other than this all focus groups are executed similarly after the guidelines presented below.

The participants are greeted and served beverages and snacks. The moderator starts the focus group by informing the participants about the research and the purpose of the research. Further, the participants are informed about their rights in terms of confidentiality and anonymity so that they feel comfortable. They are thanked for their voluntary participation.

After the initial background information, the actual focus group starts. The advertisements are shown one at a time. First showing the advertisement categorized as “Disgusting images”, then “Sexual References” and further following the order as presented in the theoretical framework. After each advertisement is shown the questions as presented in the interview guide are discussed in relation to that specific
advertisement. For this research, three questions are used and implemented within the focus groups in order to receive as much information from the participants as possible. The moderates guides the participants through the focus groups, shows the advertisements and leads the discussion, the other two authors of this study listens and notes all the information provided by the participants in a document, where this document is later developed into the empirical investigation. Meaning that, the two authors noting the information individually allows for different nuances and interpretations of the information to be discovered.

As presented in the table below, the questions are open ended and are not formulated in a leading manner since the purpose is to ask the same questions for each category. Meaning that after providing the focus group with the advertisement that is connected to the specific provocative advertisement category, the questions of the interview guide are asked to start and maintain a discussion. This is used after each advertisement is shown in order to keep a consistency during the focus group, and allowing the respondents to express their own emotions without leading questions.

When all advertisements and the relating questions have been discussed the authors thank the participants for their participation and open up for their questions. The researchers contact details are provided, as well as informing the participants on that they are welcome to take part in the presentation of the finished thesis as well as a digital copy of it.

3.11.1 Advertisements Search Process
In order to find relevant advertisements in relation to the categories presented in the theoretical framework there were several guidelines that needed to be followed. First of all the authors of this paper needed to understand the definitions of the different categories in order to understand what type of relevance within the advertisement should be searched for. Proceeding with this the authors decided to use search engines which are Google, YouTube and One Search. Furthermore, there were different search words applied which followed the keywords of the theoretical framework, such as,
Disgusting Images, Sexual References, Profanity/Obscenity, Vulgarity, Impropriety, Moral Offensiveness and Religious Taboos (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). There were also search words applied in order to find the specific material that was aimed to have, such as TV-advertisements, were search words such as provocative, advertisement, advertising, commercial, video, viral, offending, and shocking were applied. In order to limit the result the search engines allowed for only providing videos. Furthermore, all three authors of this study decided to search for specific provocative advertisements individually in order to create a more nuanced selection and when the specific categories had been decided individually, the authors of this study discussed which of the advertisements was most suited under each category. Lastly, in order to receive a even more nuanced and confirmed perspective of the relevance of the advertisements the authors of this study decided to include a pre-test.

3.11.2 Pre-Test for Provocative Advertisements

In order to decide if the advertisements, which could be found in the Appendix 1, are interpreted by the authors in a relevant way, it was decided by the authors of this study to use three participants for a pre-test. This pre-test allowed the participants to describe the advertisements in their own words after watching them in order to decide if the description the authors wrote follows in accordance with it. The participants were chosen depending on their availability, and since it only was a necessity for them to describe the advertisement there was no other factors taken into consideration. The pre-test showed that all three participants would describe the advertisements accordingly. However, two out of three participants described the disgusting images advertisement as more “drastically” disgusting in comparison to what the authors of this study did at first instance. Therefore, the description of the disgusting images was changed to match what the participants of the pre-test described the disgusting images advertisement to be. All pre-test participants also stated that the advertisement matched their decided categories and therefore the advertisements were not replaced.

Andersson and Pettersson (2004) suggested in their study “Provocative advertising: The Swedish youth’s response” that future research concerning provocative material
should include TV-commercials as advertising format in order to receive deeper results rather than printed advertisement which was used in their study. Therefore, the authors of this study decided to use TV-commercials in order to receive a deep discussion from the participants, and to advance studies in the same field.

3.12 Ethical Considerations
Ethical issues can arise on several different levels when conducting any type of research, even more so when people are included. Considering ethical issues and being sensitive to the context improves the quality of the study (Yardley, 2000). There are three levels of ethical issues to consider; societal, respondent and on the level of the researcher (Bryman & Bell, 2011). For this study all three levels are considered and discussed.

3.12.1 Societal Issues
One harmful factor this study could have on a societal level is the discussion of provocative advertising, it is possible that shedding light on provocative advertisements makes consumers more aware that provocative material can be used as an advertising strategy from a marketing perspective and in turn make them more resistant towards it. This can in turn lead to a lack of success for businesses that uses provocative advertisement as a strategy. Another aspect that is taken into consideration is whether the subject of provocative advertising shows to have some kind of positive effect on digital natives which could lead to the usage of more provocative material on a societal level. The researchers of this study would like to emphasize that the research is not conducted for the purpose of encouraging any type of provocative material. The purpose is to describe how digital natives are perceiving the provocative advertisements since they are a generation which research has shown to be more exposed to and hence resistant towards it from a research point of view.

3.12.2 Respondent
Since the empirical material for this research is collected by conducting four focus groups there are several factors that could be harmful for the respondent. These include; *Harming their career prospects or future employment opportunities;*
These factors were taken into consideration and solved by providing the respondents as much anonymity as possible, also confidentiality towards the respondents and the information they are willing to share for this study is taken into consideration. Furthermore, the respondents are not forced in any way and their participation is voluntary, and the researchers of this study assures that the respondents are fully informed of their participation in the research project and the steps that it includes.

3.12.3 Ourselves
For this level it is important that the researchers understand what the consequences for themselves could be when conducting the research (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Bryman and Bell (2011) continues by stating that it is important that a researcher does not avoid results that could influence the study negatively, meaning that the researchers should take an unbiased role during the whole process of the project. Since this study takes a descriptive approach the researchers cannot be sure what the findings will look like when starting the project, and can therefore maintain an unbiased role when describing the field and when analyzing the data. Furthermore, the authors have discussed the possible harm after finishing the study and it has come to the researchers understanding that the possible effects are not of harm to themselves.

3.13 Quality Measurement
To assure the quality of this research four criteria, as provided by Yardley (2000), are applied. These aspects are; sensitivity to context, commitment and rigour, transparency and coherence and impact and importance, and the guidelines and implementation is presented below.

In the literature sensitivity to context is described as being aware of previous theory and understandings in similar fields, it is important that previous research within the field study is taken into consideration and used in a correct way (Yardley, 2000). Before conducting the research in this paper, thorough theoretical investigation has
been made to understand the context and field of study. Previous research within the field of provocative advertising and emotional response has been examined and used as a pre-understanding, with a presentation in chapter 2. The previous research is the base for the research conducted in this paper and is used as grounded theory. The conceptualization of the theoretical framework can be seen in chapter 3.9 Operationalization. This assures that the context of the study is well known to the researchers. Further, discussing context, it is important that research is sensitive to the context in terms of possible ethical issues. (Yardley, 2000). The possible ethical dilemmas in terms of society, the respondents and the researchers are considered and presented in chapter 3.12.

Commitment and rigor is assured from having substantial engagement with the subject matter and acquire the skills and tools needed for conducting the research. It refers to being thorough in the data collection, analysis and report of the results as well as making sure that the collected data is saturated (Yardley, 2000). Throughout the method chapter of this paper, the collection of empirical material is described and the method of analysis is described in chapter 3.8. The reporting of the results is clearly presented in chapter 6. The thorough theoretical description and practical application of methods supports the transparency and coherence of the study, which is important to assure the quality of the research (Yardley, 2000). For each method or choice made during or for the research, a clearly presented justification is made. Further the transparency and coherence is assured from having a reflexive stance (Yardley, 2000) and a well presented method of analysis.

Impact and importance refers to making an argument from the analysis. The ideas presented by the researcher should have influence on beliefs or actions. Two ways of having impact is by providing theoretical and practical implications (Yardley, 2000). The theoretical contribution for this paper lays in the area of researching an existing phenomenon in a new context, provocative advertising and emotional response in the context of digital natives. Practically, this helps marketers and advertisers to work in an updated manner, concerning provocative advertising and digital natives.
3.14 Methodological Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Research Approach</th>
<th>Research Method</th>
<th>Research Purpose</th>
<th>Research Design</th>
<th>Data Source</th>
<th>Data Collection Method</th>
<th>Sampling</th>
<th>Method of Analysis</th>
<th>Ethical Considerations</th>
<th>Quality Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A deductive research approach refers to the analysis of pre-existing theoretical foundations, in order to discuss a problematized subject (Hyde, 2000).</td>
<td>A qualitative study is commonly used to gather in-depth knowledge concerning underlying understanding and processes given a subject (Bryman &amp; Bell, 2011).</td>
<td>A descriptive research purpose is, as understood by the name, is describing different phenomenon more in detail or from a new perspective (Bryman &amp; Bell, 2011).</td>
<td>Cross-sectional research design aims to collect as much data as possible from multiple cases or observations at a single point in time (Bryman &amp; Bell, 2011)</td>
<td>Primary collection of data is the most suitable data collection method when solving a problem or a unique research question when there is a lack of existing information (Ghauri &amp; Grønhaug, 2005).</td>
<td>Focus groups are group discussions concerning a specific phenomenon with several participants. Focus groups are commonly used to deeply understand a subject (Bryman &amp; Bell, 2011)</td>
<td>Non-probability sampling through convenience sampling; selected through accessibility (Koerber &amp; McMichael, 2008).</td>
<td>Pattern matching, interpreting the empirical findings with theoretical foundations (Saldana, 2009).</td>
<td>Concerns of research harmful effects on society, participants and yourself (Bryman &amp; Bell, 2011).</td>
<td>Sensitivity to context, commitment and rigour, transparency and coherence and impact and importance (Yardley, 2000).</td>
</tr>
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Table 3.14 Methodological Summary
4 Empirical Investigation

In the following chapter, the empirical material gathered through the conducted focus groups are presented in line with the categories of the theoretical framework. Primarily it displays the emotions digital natives has towards the provocative advertisement.

4.1 Disgusting Images

When discussing the initial impressions of the advertisement, one comment made by a respondent was that she wanted to see the end since the advertisement confused her as the message of the advertisement was not provided until the end of it. Respondents of this focus group agreed on the message being fuzzy until the end. Further discussing initial impressions, respondents said “eew” where others added that watching a woman drinking water with a frog inside made them confused and that it was disgusting. However, there were respondents who initially felt that the advertisement made them proud and happy since it was interesting. When asking what made it interesting and what made them proud and happy they said that the fact that there are businesses and organizations who are trying to lift the question and making consumers aware of the negative aspect of smoking makes them feel this way. Respondents also developed this to say that the advertisement was fun and a new way of lifting the question. However, when continuing the discussion, several respondents said that the connection between the frog and cigarettes was a bad parallel making them negative towards the advertisement. That the advertisement would be about cigarettes was not clear and unexpected by the participants, where one participant expressed “There is nothing that makes me realize what this will be an advertisement for, until the text comes up”. Other participants in the groups agreed and discussed the confusing parallel and described it as bad since it was “unreal” and exaggerated that a normal person would drink water with a dead frog inside and therefore the respondents would not take the advertisement seriously. One respondent stated that “Why would someone believe that smoking is the same thing as drinking a frog? This is a bad advertisement since it is so stupid”. Furthermore, several respondents said that the advertisement was boring and that it did not evoke any emotions at all since the message was unclear, the parallel was bad and that they did not care for it. Many respondents from all focus
groups were in agreement that they would never watch an advertisement like this if they were not forced to do it. One participant stated that “I always try to avoid advertisements and even though I am somewhat forced to watch this advertisement, I would still not care for it after leaving this room”.

4.2 Sexual References

For the sexual reference advertisement, the respondents of the focus groups agreed with each other when discussing that it was a typical underwear advertisement context, expressed with a negative tone. In all focus groups it was said that there was nothing unusual about this advertisement. The respondents expressed that they were not surprised, not interested and that no emotions were evoked by the advertisement. One participant stated that “Every underwear advertisement you see have sex in it” and in another group a respondent said “Whenever you see an advertisement that is this nude you know that it is either for perfume or underwear”. Two respondents expressed that the advertisement was interesting and that it evoked interest since there is was erotic element and a different darker setting, however, both said that it did not evoke any emotion. The participants expressed the advertisement did not communicate anything, and the message was unclear. Furthermore, the respondents expressed that the advertisement was too long and too boring and therefore would skip to watch it if they had the possibility. One participant expressed that “It is because of boring advertisements like these YouTube developed the skip-button”. One participant stated that “The advertisement was transparent and it would be more interesting if they hadn’t put so much effort intro trying to make it sexy”. Furthermore, when discussing the reason for why the participants did not express any emotions, all respondents was in agreement that if was very “typical” and that they have seen it before. The participants expressed that they would like the advertisement to be unique, especially when it comes to underwear since all underwear advertisements are similar. Some respondents even expressed the opposite, by stating that they would like underwear advertisement to be less unique and more informative in order to create interest since nudity and erotic elements are boring after seeing it “all the time” expressed with a frown and a sigh.
4.3 Profanity/Obscenity

Participants expressed words such as anger, disappointment, shame and irritation initially after watching this advertisement. The participants commented further that these emotions are of the cause that they considered the advertisement as racist and only made in this way to cause interest and evoke emotions, which made them upset. One participant said “I just feel really angry and upset, I think nothing with this commercial is right”, where the other participants agreed and expressed that advertisements like this are “not okay” and not suitable to be an advertisement, because of the racist elements which made them frustrated. Upon this one respondent expressed that since they all are Swedish they probably consider the advertisement to be more racist than others cultures might consider it, since there is a very strong equality movement in Sweden. Another respondent agreed and said that if this were to be shown on Swedish TV she would be both sad and disappointed but also angry towards whoever approved it. One participant added he felt ashamed that advertisements like this still occurs where the participants in the group nodded their heads in agreement, as well as expressing that they agreed. Some of the participants expressed confusion for why the advertisement needed to include this degree of racist elements in an advertisement for washing detergent, according to them it felt unnecessary. As opposed to this, other respondents expressed that they understood that the racism was included since they think it is a necessity for brands to try to shock the audience by making the advertisements more about other aspects than the actual product in order to create interest. Furthermore, the respondents expressed that since they were aware of the advertisement “efforts” on trying to make the audience interested, they are not succeeding. One of these respondents expressed that advertisements like these is why he hates advertisement by stating that “They are trying to offend you, you should not give in to their efforts, it is better to laugh it off”. However, there were several respondents that thought the advertisement was funny, and expressed that the point with the whole advertisement is to create interest and make people offended and therefore they considered it to be funny.

4.4 Vulgarity

Several respondents expressed positive emotions towards this advertisement, by describing it to be funny, that is evokes interest and then surprises the audience at the
end. The respondents expressed that the interest of finding out what happened in the end was beneficial for keeping the advertisement interesting. Furthermore, several participants of the focus group were laughing during the advertisement, as well as afterwards. When asking what made them laugh the respondents expressed that the humoristic element within the advertisement is childish and therefore it makes it funny. However, there was a few participants who even though laughing during the advertisement, said that it was bad and described it as “cliché”, they said that their laughing was just superficial. The participants said that it was obvious that the advertisement was trying to provoke some kind of emotion or interest and therefore made it strange and irrelevant. A few participants also expressed emotions such as irritation and anger towards this advertisement by stating that they are focusing too much on everything else besides the product which is interpreted by the participants to be a dishonest brand. These participants said that it is weird to include that much acting and pretending, and “weird” elements such as the TV with the animals having intercourse when the products considers shoes. However, most of the respondents were in agreement that the advertisement did not evoke any emotions, just superficial laughing. This is expressed by one participant by stating that “It was funny to look at because you are forced to, but you will forget the advertisement as soon as it ends, and you will not remember the shoes”. One participant even stated that “If this advertisement is supposed to evoke any emotion, I am not even sure what that emotion would be”.

4.5 Impropriety
After having watched this advertisement the participants were in agreement when saying that this was the first and foremost advertisement that actually evoked emotions when watching it, because of the advertisement itself, as well as keeping the emotions even after having watched the advertisement. The respondents expressed this to be of the cause that the advertisement included an important message which actually made them want to watch the advertisement. One participant stated that “This advertisement makes you forget about product or the organization that they are trying to convince you about”. However, in the focus groups the participants were divided in two groups with opposite emotions as well as opposite perspectives on the advertisement. The first group, said to be happy, proud and feeling care and love towards this advertisement
also expressed that advertisements like these are beneficial for society, making the audience aware of the existing problem. One respondents expressed that if there were more advertisements which included a message such as this one, she would watch advertisement more often. Some of these participants also expressed that they felt sad while watching it since it was a harsh advertisement with children acting improperly, but the respondent explained that this turned as they saw that it was made for a good cause. When further describing this it was said that it was a good advertisement for making people understand, and influencing the people who could relate to the different elements of the advertisement. Several respondents of this group also agreed and said that they were happy to see that there were so many elements and examples making is easy for all people to relate to it. However, the participants who expressed emotions such as anger and irritation, said that the advertisement evoked emotions because it is awful that this actually is a problem. It made the respondents angry and irritated to see that people actually need this type of advertisement in order to understand that it is a wrong behaviour. When explaining this one participant stated that “A person should not have to watch this type of advertisement in order to be remembered that this is bad behaviour, this should be obvious and it makes me irritated”.

4.6 Moral Offensiveness

For this advertisement there were three patterns seen for participants of the focus groups. Throughout the three groups, all participants described the message in regards to the advertisement as beneficial, but their opinions in regards to the design, quality and perspective of the advertisement was fragmented. One group who expressed that there were no emotions evoked by the advertisement, by stating that it was too long, too boring, bad design and a typical PETA advertisement. When following this questions up one respondent stated that he had seen this “shit” before and another participant stated that “PETA always does advertisements like this and they all look the same”. However, even though the respondents of this group stated that there were no emotions evoked by the advertisement they still though that the message “to not harm animals” in their opinion was important and beneficial for society. Further, there was a group that was positive towards the advertisement. These participants said that it is great that organizations such as PETA exists and that they use advertisements like these to make people aware of the cause, by stating emotions such as happiness, pride
and joy. One participant stated that “Since this is still a problem in society, advertisement like these are the most important advertisements, not advertisements such as the shoe one” (referring to the advertisement under vulgarity). This is related to the last group, who also said that the message is beneficial and important but expressed emotions such as anger, frustration and sadness by being reminded by the advertisement that this is an ongoing problem. One respondent stated that “It was awful to see the little girl being caged at the end, she looked very scared but at the same time that is a great way to show parallels to the animals”.

4.7 Religious Taboos

When discussing this advertisement there were respondents that stated that this advertisement was too long, too boring and felt uninterested since it took too long before the advertisement was understood. Respondents agreed with this and said that they managed to get bored while watching. All respondents expressed that they would never watch the advertisement until the end if they were not forced to, as well as the respondents being in agreement that it did not evoke any emotions. When discussing why they would not watch it until the end, they stated that it was because it was so long and one respondent stated that “It is so weird that someone would watch this advertisement from beginning to the end without having something else to do nowadays”. Several respondents expressed irritation since they thought that a advertisement which is supposed to sell glue should not focus on everything else, they should be more informative of the product. One participant agreed with this by stating that “This advertisement does not make me want to buy that glue since it does not feel serious, they are not good at convincing me by including so much other things in the advertisement besides information about the glue”. Several participants stated that since the former two advertisements were more serious and communicated a message this felt irrelevant to watch, at the same time they expressed relief that it was not as serious, where one participant stated that he was a bit nervous for what was about to come, and therefore felt relieved. Further, some participants considered the advertisement to have some funny elements, but expressed that it did not evoke any emotions.
5 Analysis

In this chapter the empirical material is discussed and analyzed together with the theoretical framework. This was done by using grounded theory to interpret the digital natives’ emotional response shared during the focus group and using this information provided by the theoretical framework as a base.

5.1 Contentment

When interpreting the material provided by the focus group in relation to the theory of contentment presented in theoretical chapter by Richins (1997) and Laros and Steenkamp (2005), there were no emotions in relation to contentment that was expressed by the digital natives.

5.2 Happiness

The first emotional response that was apparent is happiness, which is described in the theory as an emotion relating to optimism, feeling encouraged, hopeful, happy, pleased, joyful, relieved, thrilled and enthusiastic (Richins, 1997). This emotion was found to be a response to the advertisements in the categories disgusting images, profanity/obscenity, vulgarity, impropriety, moral offensiveness and religious taboos (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). Happiness arose either when the participants found a funny element in the advertisement, which made them laugh or when they were happy and optimistic about the fact that the creators or organization behind the advertisement were lifting important questions or causes. This relates to theory concerning emotions (Richins, 1997; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Plutchik, 2001; Plutchik, 2003). However, the theoretical framework of this research does not support that laughing is directly connected to the emotion of happiness. Further, in two cases the happiness was clearly a response from participants who found the cause the advertisement was made for to be important, which made them encouraged and hopeful (Richins, 1997). This was in the advertisement for impropriety and moral offensiveness. For religious taboos participants expressed relief which is a response related to happiness (Richins, 1997), however this was a result of the previous advertisements being more serious.
5.3 Love

Love is in the theory described as feeling sexy, romantic, passionate, loving, sentimental and warm-hearted (Richins, 1997), which was seen as a emotional response in two cases; sexual references and impropriety (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003. For sexual references participant found the advertisement to have erotic elements which made the advertisement more interesting. Impropriety received love as an emotional response, however in a combination with caring and warmth (Aaker, Stayman & Hagerty, 1986) expressed to be since the advertisement was beneficial for society making an audience aware of an existing problem.

5.4 Pride

Pride (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005) as an emotional response relates to being proud (Richins, 1997), which was found to occur in three cases during the research; disgusting images, impropriety and moral offensiveness (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). A clear pattern for responding as proud was found; in the three cases the response came from the participants expressing that they were proud as a response to the advertisement lifting an important question, making an audience aware of a problem or a making people aware of a cause. None of the respondents expressed feelings of superiority during the research (Storm & Storm, 1987).

5.5 Anticipation

The participants expressed the emotion of anticipation in regards to two different advertisements which were the disgusting images and the vulgarity advertisement (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). When discussing the disgusting images the anticipation was expressed to occur during the advertisement since it was the first one provided to the focus groups, as well as it was discussed to be a response to the advertisement being confusing since the audience did not know why the woman was drinking water with a frog which relates to theory of anticipation as presented by Plutchik, (2001; 2003) and Erk, Abler and Walter, (2006). Meaning that the authors interpret the anticipation of the digital natives as preparing themselves for the upcoming events in terms of planning behaviour strategies, which relates to the theory of anticipation (Erk, Abler & Walter, 2006). This was also the case for vulgarity where the funny elements within the advertisement created interest for what was going to
happen in the end of the advertisement which the participants was looking forward to, which also relates to the emotion of anticipation, where the theory states that anticipation occurs when a person positively looks forwards to something (Plutchik, 2001; Plutchik, 2003). However, anticipation was also created before the last advertisement of religious taboos, were the digital natives expressed that since the former advertisements were so serious the anticipation increased before the advertisement started.

5.6 Surprise
Surprise (Plutchik, 2001; Plutchik, 2003), which at its core refers to perceiving something as different and unexpected (Scherer, 2001 in Silvia, 2009), was a response that was orally expressed in one case; vulgarity (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003), when the participants were surprised of how the advertisement ended. However, it was experienced in one other case where the participants expressed that they were not expecting what was happening in the advertisement (Scherer, 2001 in Silvia, 2009), this was in disgusting images (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). This advertisement was described by the participants as having a bad connection between the advertisement and the message of it, which resulted in the message of the advertisement to be unexpected, which relates to the emotional response of surprise (Scherer, 2001 in Silvia, 2009).

5.7 Trust
When interpreting the material provided by the focus group in relation to the theory of trust presented in theoretical chapter by Plutchik, (2001, 2003) there were no emotions in relation to trust that was expressed by the digital natives.

5.8 Sadness
Sadness as an emotional response was expressed by participants in three cases; profanity/obscenity, impropriety and vulgarity (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). This response showed a clear pattern and was expressed by participants when they found the advertisement to contain a problem or something that made them disappointed. The participants felt that something morally wrong had been done in the advertisements, which is supported by theory as a part of sadness (Shaver, Schwartz,
Kirson & O’Connor, 1987). However, the advertisement did not make them feel like something wrong had been done towards themselves but that it would be wrong and disappointing to show the advertisement on TV, that the children were behaving morally wrong which evoked sadness or that being reminded of the problem made them sad. This relates to theory presented by Richins (1997), where disappointment and being sad is a part of sadness.

5.9 Anger

Anger was expressed by the participants in all provocative advertisement discussions. The digital natives showed the emotion of anger in several ways, with different perspectives depending on the advertisement. For example, under disgusting images and sexual references (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003) the participants expressed irritation, anger and disappointment towards the advertisements being bad, where irritation relates to the emotion of anger (Richins, 1997; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Plutchik, 2001; Plutchik, 2003). Another aspect that evoked the emotion of anger was the repetition, and the lack of informativeness of the advertisement. Meaning that the digital natives expressed irritation towards the advertisement including many elements which is not considered important only to create interest from the audience, which the digital natives found as a irritating factor. This could be seen under vulgarity as well as religious taboos where the participants expressed irritation towards the advertisements efforts to include so many unnecessary elements as opposed to presenting information regarding the product. Lastly, one of the more emphasized advertisements were impropriety and moral offensiveness were emotions in connection to anger was highly expressed by the participants because of the including of a cause and message within the advertisement. Meaning that the digital natives got frustrated, irritated and disappointed when the advertisement presented a “problem” in relation to a cause, because the visualization of the problem was hard to watch. Where frustration, irritation and disappointment are emotion in relation to the basic emotion of anger (Richins, 1997; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005).
5.10 Fear
The anticipation further evoked nervousness from one participant that expressed that the level of seriousness in the advertisement of the former two advertisements, referring to moral offensiveness and impropriety advertisements (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003), made him nervous for what was to come before the last one. Where nervousness relates to the emotion of fear (Richins, 1997; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005).

5.11 Shame
Shame as an emotional response (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Plutchik, 2001; Plutchik, 2003) was expressed as a response to the fact that the profanity/obscenity (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003) advertisement contained racist elements, which made participants ashamed over the fact that advertisements like that still occurs. Theory describes shame as a response to a negative action of the consumer him- or herself (Roseman, Antoniou, & Jose, 1996) which results in being embarrassed, ashamed, humiliated and feeling regret (Richins, 1997). The participants were not ashamed over something they had done themselves, however they felt shame as a response to the racist element and that someone had accepted them.

5.12 Boredom
Boredom was one of the emotions that were expressed in regards to all advertisements except two. Where the interpretation of boredom followed Van Tilburg et al. (2017) theoretical definition of low perceived challenge, low perceived meaningfulness and low attention. The emotion of boredom was mentioned when discussing the advertisement of disgusting images, sexual reference, vulgarity, moral offensiveness and religious taboos (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). The response of boredom was either mentioned of that cause that the advertisement was too long, or when the participants stated that the advertisement did not evoke any emotion they stated that it was because the advertisement was boring. Another aspect when boredom was mentioned was when the participants felt like they have experienced similar advertisements at other occasions prior to the focus group, or when the advertisement is “typical” in that sense that the context is similar to other advertisements. Lastly the
digital natives expressed that when an advertisement makes great efforts into creating interest they become bored, since the advertisement becomes transparent.

5.13 Disgust
The emotion of disgust was related to the provocative advertisement of disgusting images (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). The participants expressed disgust by stating that they experienced the emotion of disgust while watching, as well as commenting words such as “euw” which the authors of this paper interpreted to be related to the theory presented by Plutchik (2001) and Shimp and Stuart (2004).
6 Conclusion

The aim for this study was to describe how digital natives perceive provocative advertisement by describing their emotional response in relation to the different categories of provocative advertisement. Concluding the results, the provocative advertisements which included a specific cause or message, discussed to be beneficial for society, the digital natives expressed emotions in relation to four basic emotions, both positive and negative. These were pride and happiness on the positive aspect and anger and sadness on the negative aspect, however, there were nuances to their emotions, but concluded is that these were the most emphasized emotional responses. The positive emotions were evoked because of the beneficial message for society, and the negative emotions were evoked because of the visualization of the problem within the advertisements. Meaning if a target group for advertising is digital natives, provocation with a cause that relates to society problems or benefits is an effective strategy to implement in order to evoke emotions.

Further, when conducting the study there was an understanding, as provided during the beginning chapters of the study, that the resistance of the digital natives would affect the degree of emotional response. This is confirmed, but not in regards to the emotional responses, the digital natives expressed more resistance towards expressing their emotions rather than showing specific resistance towards the provocative advertisements. Meaning that the digital natives were expressing anger and boredom in order to express how “uninterested” they were, expressing that they did not care for some of the advertising. The degree of “no emotional response” in relation to the words used by the digital natives were evident in comparison to the willingness to express emotions. This was an unexpected result, however very relevant in order to understand the resistance digital natives holds towards provocative advertisement.

The digital natives agreed that they would never watch these advertisements in their daily life, and that provocative advertisement is too transparent and obvious that it does not evoke any emotions at all. However, even though there were emotions
expressed by the digital natives, it was also evident that the digital natives put effort into creating the impression of being resistant and “advertising does not evoke any emotions from me”.

6.1 Managerial Implications
For practitioners the research contributed with several implications. Firstly, the research showed that digital natives are not willing to emotionally respond to provocative advertising and finds this type of advertising to be uninteresting. However, it was clear that the digital natives are more open in terms of expressing their emotional response when the advertisement has, what is perceived as, an important cause. Secondly, provocative advertising is not a strategy that is suggested to apply to gain an emotional response from digital natives. However, if the strategy is to be implemented it is suggested to use when the advertised product, item or organization is a cause or to lift an important question since this during the research proved to be effective in eliciting more emotions.

6.2 Academic Implications
Academically the research has provided new information to an existing field. The findings suggest that the emotional response to provocative advertising among digital natives is limited. The research sheds light on provocative advertising from a new perspective, digital natives. The qualitative research presents a connection between the message of the advertisement and the elicited emotions, which is to be tested quantitatively in further research.
7 Limitations and Future Research

This research aimed to describe the digital natives’ emotional response to provocative advertising which was done through collecting information from four focus groups with six digital natives in each. In regard to the method used, the number of respondents resulted in a relevant sample size since the aim was to reach saturation in the results. Convenience and snowball sampling within the area of Växjö Sweden was the chosen methods for conducting the sample which could be seen as a limitation as well as questioning of the possible generalizability of the results, however since generalizability was not included as an aim for this study, further research could take this aspect into consideration. However, concerning the sample a possible limitation could be the exclusion of digital natives which was not born in Sweden. Meaning that including digital natives with more nuanced ethnicities or culture differences in comparison to Sweden could have created a more nuanced result, and therefore this could be seen as both a limitation as well as a recommendation for future research.

This research focused on creating a combination study within two different fields, which included provocative advertisement described from a digital native perspective, were the findings provided a framework for a new perspective that could be further investigated. Further research could take a quantitative approach in order to test the cause and effect of the possible resistance digital natives holds towards emotions in general as well as emotions in relation to provocative advertisement since the result showed that the resistance towards sharing emotions in relation to advertising was emphasized. Since this research was aiming to address the gap of provocative advertisement from a digital native perspective, future research may be advised to continue to focus on adding to existing research by interpreting additional contexts such as theory in relation to resistance of sharing emotions and resistance to persuasion within advertising.
References


Accessed: 2018-03-30


Appendix 1. Advertisements

Disgusting images

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VWXrKccziSQ
This commercial is a TV commercial for the Tobacco free organization Tobacco free Florida. It represents, what the authors of this study, would categories as disgusting images since the the commercial provides visual images of a woman drinking some type of fluid of dissected frogs as a representation of the same cause which smoking cigarettes would. The commercial is 31 seconds long and the language used is English, with English text as well. In relation to the theory of disgusting images under 2.1.2.1 it is stated by Dahl, Frankenberger and Machanda, (2003) that it refers to death, secretions, parasites and orifices and therefore the commercial was found both provocative and disgusting.

Sexual references

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zB5RYCi-p-Iw
This commercial is a TV commercial for Calvin Klein underwear. It represents what the authors of this study would classify as sexual reference. The commercial represents a woman and a man, later on two men, during a sexual encounter. Further there appears to be nudity, sexual acts and bare bodies. This commercial is classified as provocative and follows the theoretical definition of sexual references provided in 2.1.2.2. The commercial is 57 seconds long.

Profanity/obscenity.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Few8kJ0zfnY
This commercial is a laundry detergent commercial for a Chinese laundry detergent company called Qiaobi. It represents an Asian woman doing laundry before she is joined by a black man, covered in some type of “dirt” similar to white paint. Further the woman persuades the man to approach and then forces him head-first into the washing machine with the branded detergent capsule. When the laundry machine is finished a white Asian man steps out of it. This commercial is seen by the authors as highly racist because of the metaphorical references to “cleaning a black man into
becoming white”, therefore this commercial falls under the category profanity/obscenity under 2.1.2.3. The commercial is 48 seconds long.

Vulgarity
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=T6mwNlZnkc
This commercial is a TV commercial for Bunker satis-fashion Footwear. It represents a man who is watching bears having sexual intercourse on TV while making a masturbating resembling motion while a woman walks into the room. This is categorized by the authors to represent the definition of Vulgarity under 2.1.2.4, since it includes distasteful and vulgar acting while still having a sense of humor at the end, with the actor polishing his shoe. The commercial is 37 seconds long and the language spoken is English.

Impropriety
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZHCuA0KnITY
Referring to the chapter 2.1.2.5 impropriety which is defined by Dahl, Frankenberger and Machanda (2003) as violations of social conventions of dress and manners the authors of this paper has decided that the TV commercial for Child Friendly Australia is a suitable advertisement. The commercial represents children following the “bad behaviors” that their parents do, mostly behaviors that within this commercial is classified as bad manners. The commercial is 1.31 minutes long.

Moral offensiveness
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Uqh3YpCvO8s
This is a TV commercial that PETA, people for the ethical treatment of animals’ organization launched in protest of a fashion week called “If the world was ruled by animals”. It symbolizes animals wearing human skin as clothing, to resemble a metaphor for humans wearing animal fur. At the end of the commercial the video proceeds “backstage” were humans, more especially a young girl is locked inside a cage “waiting” to be skinned for the clothes that should be showed on the runway. This is interpreted by the authors of this paper to fall under the category of moral offensiveness since the definition under 2.1.2.6 states that it refers to the harming of
innocent people/animals (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). The advertisement is 2.39 minutes long.

Religious taboos

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CHX-4cKEQH4

This Television commercial launched by a glue company called “Talens Rubber Cement” were the commercial is showing nuns who are trying to glue a genital back on a statue resembling a small penis. Which is could be interpreted as a religious taboo since nuns should not be associated with sexual references. Therefore, the authors of this study has categorized this commercial as a religious taboo were the definition under 2.1.2.7 states that it refers to the usage of religious symbols and/or rituals in advertisement (Dahl, Frankenberger & Machanda, 2003). The commercial is 1.20 minutes long.
Appendix 2. Source Criticism

Bryman and Bell (2011) suggest that when gathering knowledge and information in order to conduct a study it is important to determine the credibility of the sources, as well as the quality of it (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Since this study is based on information gathered from previous sources, in the introduction and theoretical framework, it is important to consider and evaluate the secondary sources used. Therefore, the researchers of this study will actively and critically discern the choices of sources when collecting and implementing data into the study. Kareklas, Muehling and Weber (2015) discusses that the collection of information from different sources and platforms the researchers should take a critical stance towards the relevance of the information in relation to the field of study. In order to conduct a scientific theoretical base for the study the authors of this paper have targeted articles that are from peer-reviewed journals, in order to validate the trustworthiness of the scientific contribution of the article. According to Linnéuniversitetet (2018) a peer-reviewed journal is a journal examined for publication, that should follow a specific process with a quality control of the article framework and consultation from experts within the field of expertise.

When searching for relevant articles for the introduction and theoretical framework within this study several search engines were used, which are OneSearch, Google Scholar, EBSCO and Business Source Premier. These engines provide the possibility to apply criteria in terms of time-intervals, peer-reviewed and subject matter. The time-interval was set on only including articles that were maximum ten years old. However, when applying this criterion, it was evident, from sources found within the sources or by the same authors, that original definitions and descriptions of theories were older. Therefore, articles from between 1964-2018 have been included to back statements in the introduction and/or to provide information in the theoretical framework. However, the articles written previously than 1990 are sparingly used. Subjects matters include, but are not limited to, provocative advertisement, shocking advertisement, controversial advertisement, emotions and emotional response. When the search engines would not include an article when adding the criterion for them
being peer-reviewed, those articles were evaluated by the researchers of this paper if being useful despite this.
Appendix 3. Justification of Articles


Article is used to inform and discuss in the introduction chapter, as well as to provide support to the theoretical chapter. The article is peer-reviewed, but does not follow a scientific structure. However, it does include a mentioning of the methods applied and an empirical presentation and discussion before providing the conclusion. Further, the article is used ALONE in three instances in this paper, and backed by other secondary sources in six cases. Therefore, the paper is evaluated as being useful and relevant for the introduction and theoretical chapter of this paper.

Andersson, S., & Pettersson, Å. (2004). “Provocative advertising: The Swedish youth’s response.” “Provocative advertising: The Swedish youth’s response” is a Masters Thesis. The subject in matter is very relevant and further it has been cited in other scientific articles, which raises the relevance of the article. Further it strengths and supports the relevancy of the research made in this study.


The article by Virvilaite & Matuleviciene is not peer-reviewed and appears to have a different structure compared to other secondary sources. However, it does include an introduction, an aim, a discussion and a concluding model and is presented as a theoretical paper analyzing scientific literature. Further, Virvilaite & Matuleviciene references consistently and includes a reference list in the end of their article.

Article is used to provide an example of provocative advertising in the background. Since it is not used to present theoretical or methodological frameworks or guidelines, it does not meet the criteria that is considered for other secondary sources included in this study. It is not peer-reviewed and does not follow a scientific structure. However, the Kraidy and Goeddertz consistently reference throughout the article and present a reference list with their sources, which implies more trustworthiness to the article, compared to if it would not include this.