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„The Effect of Emotions on the Formation of Political Opinion in Austria"

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1.   INTRODUCTION

The end of last year and the beginning of 2018 were months of elections and change in Austria: a general election, regional government elections and new MPs, a new state council and - six days before Christmas - the new turquoise-blue federal government was sworn in.

A good year for the ÖVP (Austrian People's Party) and FPÖ (Austrian Freedom Party) and a complete disaster for the Greens, who did not make it into the National Council for the first time in 31 years.

The SPÖ (Austrian Social Democratic Party) took second place behind the ÖVP but were forced into opposition when it became clear that the ÖVP and FPÖ would form a coalition government. That was the first time in more than 10 years that the SPÖ had not been in government.

The elected representatives of the people are of course obligated to take part in the political process and make decisions but there is also a representative and mediation component.

Political action in democracies is subject to justification and public approval. In public discussion, **'staging'** and **'rhetoric'** are often perceived as incompatible opposites. Political actors who make use of '**rhetoric'** try to adequately convey appropriate information and thus make a positive contribution to the formation of political will and opinions. By contrast, **'staging'** as part of political reporting is classified as information-preventing. If the actors make use of staging techniques, it is claimed that they deceive the public, manipulate them, disguise facts and rely on emotions instead of information.

„Politics is show business for ugly people”

(Jay Leno. American talk show host

In the context of audiovisual reporting, in which quotas bring money, politics is processed through entertaining forms of personalization and scandalization with the help of infotainment elements in order to be able to compete with non-political topics. At the same time, the pressure on the political actors for political marketing or for a symbolic policy adapted to the needs of the media is increasing (Schicha, 1999).

Social values such as education, the environment, immigration and crime are becoming increasingly important. (Morris, 2002).

Especially topics such as crime, immigration and work related issues are preferred by the so called 'populists'. Populism is on the rise - especially among Europe's right and in the US. But there's a difference between being popular and being populist. The true populist leader claims to represent the unified "will of the people" (David Molloy, 2002).

1.1. <u>Research Interest</u>

The present work seeks to connect individual candidates, their political statements and the associated emotions of the recipients in Austria.

It examines how relevant candidates are to political content and how they affect emotions in political opinion-forming. The aim is to find out to what extent the source of the information influences the emotions of the recipients and whether the source of the information amplifies the emotions negatively or positively.

From the perspective of the subject area "politics as brand(s)", "political branding", politics is examined here to see whether parties and politicians, like commercial companies, can also function as brands. Some studies examine and compare how people interpret the same message when presented by different speakers or, in this case, different politicians.

In the field of political branding, the "theory of affective intelligence" (Marcus, Newman & MacKuen, 2000) plays a major role since it shows that emotion and reason work closely together.

What we understand by emotions. how they have been studied in science and politics so far and their role in the media and in media reporting is explained in more detail as is the theoretical basis for this work.

Marcus (2007) links - in his research results of *'Theory of Affective Intelligence'*- assumptions of the 'psychological choice model' with the 'rational choice model' for a more flexible interpretation. Motivating behavior and the forming of a political opinion are also discussed, as well as the 'Consistency Theory by Heider', the 'Elaboration Likelihood Model' and the 'Theory of Cognitive Dissonance'.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the conclusions reached by means of a representative sample, an experimental design in the form of a randomized questionnaire has been chosen for the study. For the experiment, statements by Austrian politicians from different parties represented in the Austrian parliament during the 2017 election to the National Council were selected and allocated to two questionnaires at random. Before examining how relevant candidates are to

political content and how they affect emotions in political opinion-forming, politics is observed from the perspective of the subject area 'politics as brand(s)'.

It shows parties and politicians can also function as brands and influence voters. Some studies examine and compare how people interpret the same message when presented by different speakers or, in this case, different politicians.

2.   THE ROLE OF THE SOURCE

In normal circumstances, citizens cannot inspect the workings of the political system directly, which means that trust in political institutions and politicians is essential (Bentele, 1998). Trust in the party leader as a beacon of hope for voters has become one of the most important on each party's political agenda (Wolf, 2007).

As early as the late 1980s Sarcinelli (1998) wrote that personalisation is a fundamental dimension of our perception of politics and has a lot to do with the presentation logic of the mass media. Seemingly insolvable issues are broken down to the level of personnel-based decisions by reducing their complexity. The public's central need for orientation and identification is fulfilled, just like that of the mass media after a concise yet open-ended presentation of politics (Blumer, 1990).

A number of studies show that recipients exposed to political messages are strongly influenced by the perceived credibility and trustworthiness of their source (Lupia & McCubbins, 1998; Popkin, 1991). The source is frequently even seen to be a decisive factor when evaluating a statement and also when deciding on a political action (Mondak, 1993; Popkin, 1991; Pornpitakpan, 2004; Ziegler & Diehl, 2003).
The effectiveness of heuristics, media priming and theme-based frames (Druckman, 2001; Kuklinski & Hurley, 1994; Miller & Krosnick. 2000; Mondak. 1993) is influenced by the recipient's evaluation of the news source.

Individuals do not always evaluate arguments in a deliberative, systematic manner. Often they are unmotivated or unable for various reasons to analyze a statement precisely and question it, relying in consequence on less complex evaluation mechanisms such as the type of source (Chaiken, 1980; Petty & Cacioppo 1981, 1986). In this situation, knowledge of the skills, expertise and credibility of a politician provides information that goes beyond the content of the message.

Research on the effect of sources conducted in the field of political science also follows this socio-psychological tradition. Knowledge of an interest group's position during an election campaign can influence preferences (Lupia. 1994), as can the positions of trustworthy or positively rated politicians (Carmines & Kuklinski, 1990; Kuklinski & Hurley, 1994; Mondak, 1993). The reception of thematic frames and media priming also depends to some extent on evaluations of the source (Druckman, 2001; Miller & Krosnick, 2000).

Waheed & Chung (2016) used the heuristic-systematic model (HSM) to show that statements made by the preferred candidate have a more significant effect on attitudes held both by people interested in politics and people who are not than statements made by candidates who are less preferred. This also influences attitudes towards specific topics. Other studies came to varying conclusions.
In their study of the German parliamentary elections of 2003, for example. Ziegler & Diehl (2003) observed that the strength of a political statement had more influence on the way it was received than the party or person who made it.

Chaiken & Maheswaran (1994), Petty et al (1981) and Ziegler et al (2002) confirm that factors external to the statement are of less importance, even in terms of recipient agreement. Instead, agreement is based on the strength of the argument. Fishkin (2011) supports this thesis and goes so far as to characterise deliberative democracy as decision-making by laypersons who genuinely weigh up all arguments on the basis of evidence and do not use this alone to decide who represents which viewpoint.

Numerous studies therefore confirm that the source of the respective political statement definitely influences the voter's appraisal of it and the opinion formed. Based on this information, this work also assumes that the source plays a considerable role in the (emotional) evaluation of a message.

Another insight fundamental to this work comes from Ottati (1990). He postulates that the voter or person questioned automatically assumes that a popular candidate is in favour of a positively rated position, while an unpopular candidate supports a negatively rated position (according to Brent & Granberg, 1982; Granberg & Brent, 1974, 1980; Kinder, 1978). Using this heuristic inference strategy allows the person questioned to form a judgement quickly without having to carry out a time-consuming analysis of the statements.

According to Brady & Sniderman (1985), this schema can also be used by voters to simplify their appraisal of how politically strategic groups stand on important issues of social policy. These attributed attitudes again follow the simple calculation of the sympathy heuristic. This heuristic is rooted in the preferences

and aversions of each political group. Citizens are then able to draw an impressively accurate political map: who wants what in political terms, who holds the same views, and who takes an opposing stance on key issues. Recipients can achieve this by relying on their political influence, their likes and dislikes of politically strategic groups (Brady & Sniderman, 1985).

Ideologies have a simplifying effect in this context. The ideal scenario for the voter is when the parties' relative positions on areas of political dispute can be derived from a single ideological dimension. Analyses of party constellations in western democracies show that party positions on various political issues can indeed be traced back to one or two dimensions (Benoit & Laver 2006; Laver & Hunt 1994; McDonald/Mendes 2000). In many countries, it is even possible to follow all themes back to a single Left/Right dimension.

In Austria too, the Left/Right dimension is the dimension that dominates political discussion. Spatially aligning parties on just one dimension facilitates simple communication about the parties' positions. In Germany. understanding of the Left/Right dimensions has been generally explored in various studies. Klingemann (1979) showed early on that most voters are capable of a "passive" recognition and understanding of the Left/Right dimension but are significantly less capable of active conceptualization.

2.1.   Politicians as brands

The question is: can parties and politicians function as brands in the same way as commercial enterprises? There are numerous studies in this field of research which clearly affirm that yes, politics can be a brand (Kavanagh, 1995; Kotler and Kotler, 1999; Schweiger & Adami, 1999; White & de Chernatony. 2002; Needham. 2005). Scamell (2015) describes the importance of brands in politics as follows:

> *The beauty of the brand as a concept is that it is broad and inclusive; it brings together the rational and apparently irrational, the hard and soft elements of voter choice, the big dimensions of political reputation and the seemingly trivial details of appearance and tone of voice. In short, the brand concept is attractive because it has the potential to fuse insights from political science, economics-based approaches to political marketing and cultural analysis of modern politics (p.7).*

The study of politics from the perspective of "political branding" is an area closely associated with the evaluation of sources.

Needham (2005) postulates that branding is the best way to understand the "constant campaigning" of modern governments. Smith's (2009) explanation of the "brand personality" promotes understanding of how voters see each party, while White & de Chernatony (2002) use the brand principle to analyze the functional and emotional appeals of New Labour.

It is accordingly important to understand the concept of the brand if we are to understand the concept of the political image. Both politicians and parties can be brands. While politicians can directly influence voters with their personalities. parties usually offer an umbrella of solidarity, recognition and predictability. The fact that parties have greater longevity than individual politicians also means that the choice of possible attributions of meaning is much wider (Singer, 2002).

After some time. parties acquire a certain reputation among their voters. As already mentioned, the media frequently also play a role in this context. The concept of reputation is directly related to party identification and can exercise a strong influence on voter attitudes towards certain topics. Reputation also explains why people might vote for one party or candidate in certain circumstances while secretly preferring the politics of another.

Scamell (1995) cites examples of this from the politics of Great Britain.

Margaret Thatcher, for example. won the 1980s elections with an overwhelming majority, although opinion polls showed that the electorate clearly preferred the policies of the opposing Labour party. particularly with regard to employment and welfare (Scammell, 1995).

However, this all changed in the New Labour era. Despite David Cameron's best efforts, distrust of the Tory brand was still high during the 2010 elections. As soon as these voters found out that a proposal had come from the Tories they rejected it vehemently. Researchers asked two test groups whether they agreed with certain statements on immigration policy made by the Conservative Party.

The first group was informed that these statements had been made by the Conservatives, while the second group did not receive any information as to the

source of the statements. Agreement with the statements was 12 percent higher when no source was mentioned than when they were attributed to the Conservatives (Smith, 2009). This shows how powerful the influence of a party image can be, and also underpins the hypotheses put forward in this work.

The theory of affective intelligence (cf. section 5.1) also plays an important role in political branding. The concept of affective intelligence (Marcus, Newman & MacKuen, 2000) shows that emotion and reason work in close cooperation. The heart does not automatically follow the mind; instead, emotion and reason work together to come to a decision. The same occurs when evaluating a political brand.

After investigating the status of research in some depth, it is apparent that most studies come from Anglo-American countries and that little research into this topic has been conducted in Austria in particular. Furthermore. current research into source credibility and political branding pays little attention to the role of emotions. For purposes of positioning in this research gap, this work aims to link the source, the political statement, the recipients, and the emotions experienced. To understand the political statements chosen for the survey it is important to have some understanding of the political landscape in Austria.

3.   THE POITICAL LANDSCAPE IN AUSTRIA SINCE 1945

For a long time, the development of the Republic of Austria was shaped by two major parties, in conjunction with a comparatively strong social partnership. The latter is made up off our social partners, each representing the interests of different groups of people. This resulted in political stability and governability of the country, as well as an exceptionally high and constant voter turnout.

3.1.   The political landscape after 1980

In the 1980s, Austrian politics changed, with voter mobility in particular making a major contribution to changing the party landscape, while the media has also increasingly become a political factor.

In 1983 the SPÖ lost five seats in parliament and formed a small coalition with the FPÖ. This came to an end in 1986 because the SPÖ were unhappy with a change in the FPÖ party leadership (BPD, 2000). It was a key year, because Kurt Sinowatz resigned and Franz Vranitzky took over the leadership of the SPÖ and ended the Small Coalition after Jörg Haider forced the resignation of FP chairman Norbert Steger at party conference in autumn and took over the leadership.

The result was new elections leading to the formation of another grand coalition - this time under the leadership of the SPÖ - which lasted until the year 2000.

3.2.   The political landscape in Austria since 2000

Due to the coalition agreement between the ÖVP and the FPÖ, the SPÖ was forced into opposition in spring 2000 and despite 'losing' the election in the sense of the total number votes, Dr. Schüssel. leader of the ÖVP became chancellor with

the help of the FPÖ. (Demokratiezentrum Wien, 2015).

In the 2006 national elections the Green Party succeeded in breaking the 10% hurdle with Alexander Van der Bellen at their head and the BZÖ - splinter party from the FPÖ - entered parliament for the first time. The SPÖ under Alfred Gusenbauer became the party with the highest number of votes and the grand coalition returned.

Due to continuing conflicts between the two governing parties, early elections took place in September 2008. The result was yet another grand coalition but this time with Werner Faymann taking the Chancellorship for the SPÖ and Josef Pröll the Vice-Chancellorship for the ÖVP (BMI. 2006).

After the extension of the legislative period of the National Council to five years, which came into force in 2007, the 25th national elections took place in September 2013. The SPÖ became the party with the highest number of votes with Werner Faymann remaining at the topand the new parties NEOS and Team Stronach winning seats for the first time (BMI. 2013).

3.3. <u>General Election in Austria 2017</u>

The last general election in Austria took place on 15 October 2017 with an 80% turnout. Neither the Green Party nor Team Stronach made it past the 4% barrier but Peter Pilz, who had left the Green Party in the summer, founded his own movement and won a handful of seats. On 18 December 2017 President Alexander Van der Bellen swore in the new ÖVP-FPÖ government with the 31-year-old Sebastian Kurz - the youngest chancellor of all time - leading the third ÖVP-FPÖ coalition (Salzburger Nachrichten. 2017).
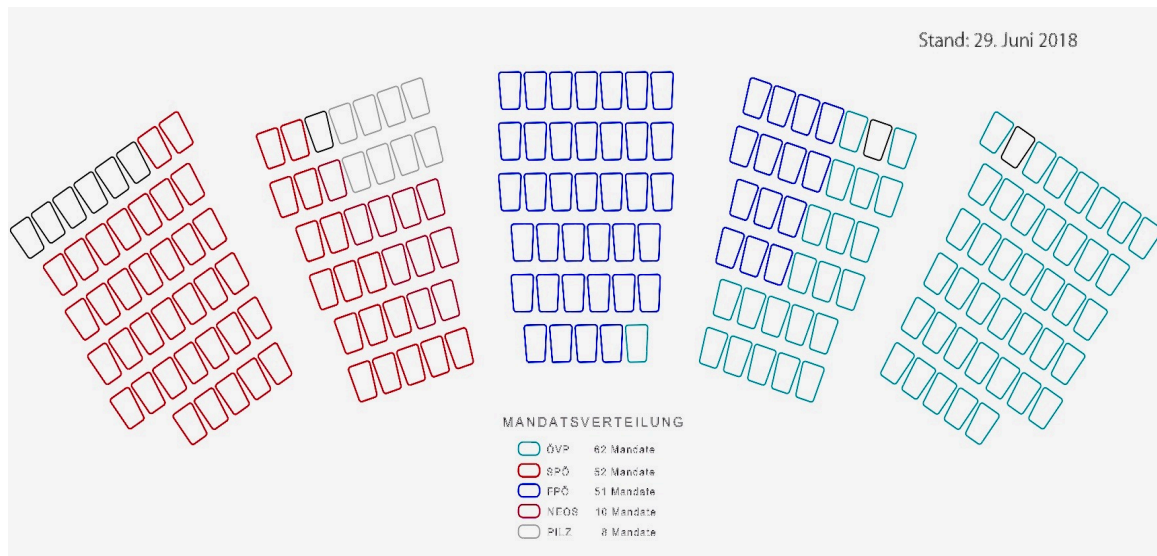
Figure 1: Austrian parliament and political parties (July 2018)

At the time of writing the heads of each political party with seats inthe Austrian parliament are Sebastian Kurz (ÖVP), Christian Kern (SPÖ), H.C. Strache (FPÖ), Beate Meinl-Reisinger (NEOS) and Liste Pilz.
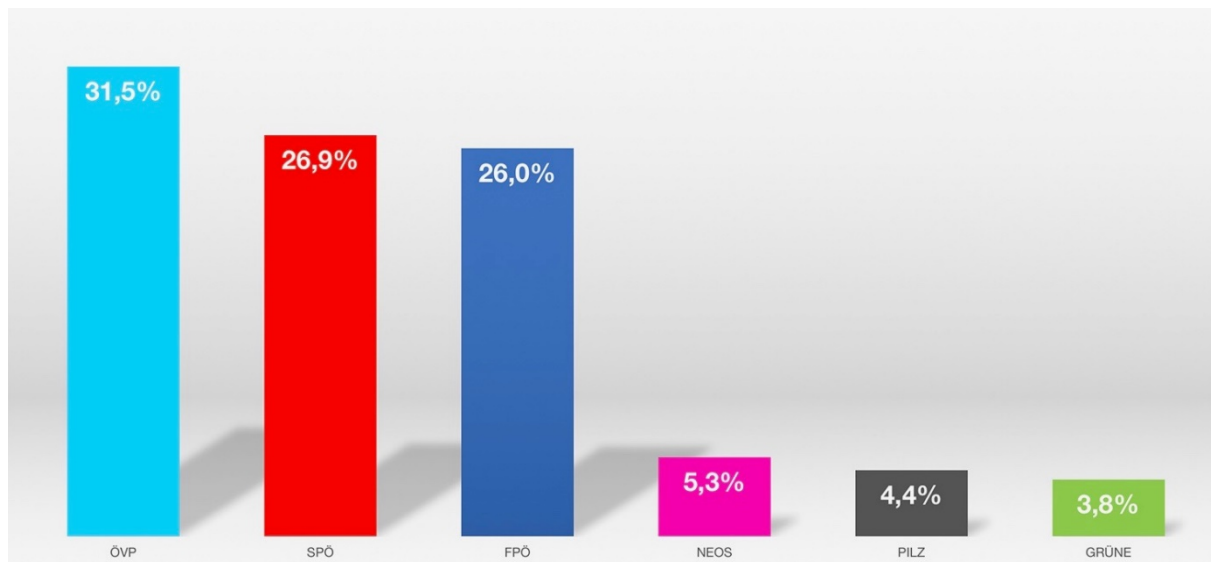
Figure 2: Results general elections Austria 2019

These people are open to the public, top listed in the news, seen on round-tables on TV, and have a strong presence on the internet and in social media.

By this, the understanding of 'the concept of the public sphere' has changed. Papacharissi (2010) observes that public deliberation is important for democracy and reminds us that not only is the world overall changing along with its economic, political, and cultural systems and networking, but also that individual life is changing. It is about enablement, affordances, and changes in how humans organize their lives by taking advantages of the doorways and capabilities offered by network technologies (Hacker, 2013). A new type of citizen - the monitorial citizen - is coming into being. Said new citizen contains the potential for activity, but spends most of their time in the suspended inactivity of monitoring (Papacharissi, 2010).

It is not only important who is broadcasting and disseminating information, but also who can listen to it. Regarding the growth of social media, thousands of people follow opinion leaders on T. This facilitates feelings of engagement.

Papacharissi (2016) states in her article 'Affective publics and structure of storytelling:

"for the time being and in the moment, they are our means for feeling our way into the world we cannot experience directly, and as such, they mean something."

When it comes to politics, social media, TV and radio, and print media -– the means of mass communication -, often focus on the personality of a political leader, as well as on emotional content. Researchers study leaders or publics and are divided into two groups, as well as the research programs.

There are those who use emotion to explain why people respond to the immediate contemporary circumstances around them and those who use emotion to explain reliance on early experience (Marcus, 2000).

4.   EMOTIONS

It is an absolutely integral part of our understanding of the everyday world that we have feelings and emotions, i.e. that we carry them within us, that we can control and conceal them, and that they influence our actions.

In this context emotions can be seen as elements of an individual interior life and as public phenomena in social situations involving interpersonal interaction. These two perspectives are by no means mutually exclusive, because if we investigate emotions as phenomena of interaction, we find that the interacting person also has fundamental feelings, an individual interior basis that wishes to be expressed during the interaction.

Emotions are also a special topic in the field of science, as the contradiction between the intensity, dynamic, variability and linearity of emotions is often viewed as dubious and problematic (Fiehler, 1990).

Emotions are mental states that emerge from cognitive evaluation processes and encompass several components. The subjective experience of an emotional state is described as an affective component, while the physiological component encompasses physical reactions to a stimulus and the conative component comprises associated behaviours and behavioural intentions (Kühne. 2015).

4.1. **Emotions in research**

Emotions are investigated using various methods and research models, e.g. experimental settings in which an emotional state is deliberately triggered in test subjects. In this context, the observation of emotions is guided by the emotional component, which is the focus of the research. When recording the subjective and cognitive components of the emotional experience, it is necessary to rely on statements and categorisations made by the subject or, as in the case of this study, on scale-based questionnaires.

As political events in a country are consumed and thus experienced through media, this work aims to explore the subject of *emotions in media use* in some detail.

As the emotions triggered by media reception do not fundamentally differ from everyday non-media situations, they must be understood as the result of an evaluation process, the so-called 'appraisal process'.

Here Scherer (1998) distinguishes between three types of emotional process: induction, contagion, and empathy. Emotional induction occurs when a politician's statement is not made with anger but induces anger in the recipients on account of their own goals and values. In the case of emotional contagion, the recipients imitate the behaviour adopted by the media person to express emotion without understanding what gave rise to it. We speak of empathy when the recipients are not affected by the incident but nevertheless try to comprehend the assessments made or appraisal steps taken by the media person that triggered the emotion displayed (Scherer, 1998).

Researchers present and discuss the various categories of emotion that arise during media reception in the form of concepts and theories (emotional involvement, emotional excitation, empathy, tension, fear and anxiety, and entertainment as a meta/macro-emotion).

According to Schramm and Wirt (2006), one theory that should be applied not only to the pre-communicative phase but also to the communicative and post-communicative phases of media reception is 'mood management theory'.

As moods and emotions are more or less desirable, i.e. pleasant. they are subject to constant regulation; Zillmann (1988) claims that media entertainment can be particularly helpful in this respect. This theory postulates that humans are fundamentally hedonistic beings that constantly endeavour to optimise their mood.

Emotional involvement is understood as the subjective experience of consumption (e.g. of election advertising), which can be divided into cognitive, affective/emotional, and conative components.

In the research field of *emotional excitation*, attempts are made to track the emotions triggered by media reception through continually measuring various physiological measures of excitation, which is interpreted as an indicator of certain emotions. As physiological excitation subsides relatively slowly, recipients can transfer some of the excitation induced by prior sequences to subsequent ones (Zillmann's excitation transfer theory, 1971).

However, media contributions evoke not only "as if" emotions, but also real states of anxiety that are by all means comparable with those that can arise without media use. According to Krohne (1996), anxiety is an affective condition of the organism characterized by self-perception and increased activity of the autonomous nervous system.

4.2. <u>Emotions in the media</u>

Research into media impact is dominated by studies of cognitive effects, while emotions are rarely focused on or appear to be less visible. According to Schramm and Wirth (2006), this is because no real field of research has yet been established in this area, and because emotional effects, unlike cognitive ones, are not linked with research areas that are as prominent as agenda setting theory, for example.

In their article "Media and Emotions", the two authors attempt to bring together the diversity and relevance in the research field of emotions and to emphasize the common basis of these approaches, referring to Zillmann. whose work and research in the 1970s had a lasting influence on and also professionalized communication science in the field of emotions.

Working groups evaluated psychophysiological measures such as pulse volume amplitude or heart rate as indicators for emotional aspects of media reception, with particular significance attached to the discovery of the "missing half second" (Schramm und Wirth. 2006). Here it is asserted that television triggers a certain form of media-mediated perception that does not correspond to ordinary human perception or the mental processing of impressions. This medium takes way the short period of time usually available for reflection or internal verbalisation of what

happened, and does not give the viewer time to pause, rethink and marshal his/her expectations, plans of action etc.

During the late 1990s, emotion psychology, for example Scherer's appraisal theory (Scherer, 2001), injected new input into this area of research.
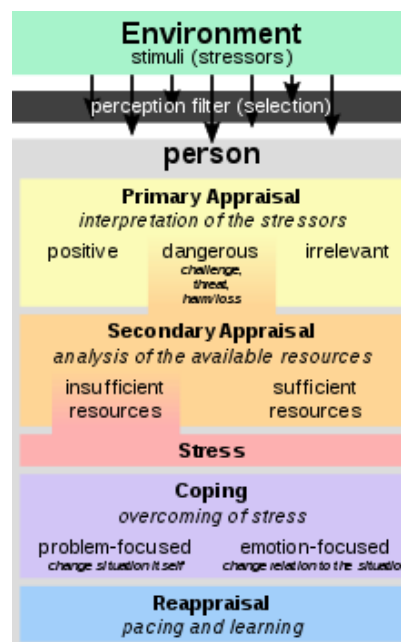
Figure 3: Appraisal theory

Emotions can be defined as a complex construct of interactions between subjective and objective factors, which in turn comprise several components (affective, cognitive, conative, and physiological).

Although emotion theory offers a large number of approaches, the majority of authors mention three in particular (Merten, 2003; Meyer Reisenzein and Schützwohl, 2001; Meyer et al., 2003; Reisenzein et al.. 2003; Ulrich and Mayring, 2003; Otto, Euler and Mandl. 2000). These include the theories that see

physiological reactions as the basis of emotional processes, those in which cognitive aspects play a role, and those rooted in evolution biology.

4.3.   <u>Emotions in reporting</u>

Along with an abundance of theoretical approaches, research objects and findings on the subject of emotion, we are seeing an increase in emotional reporting. Unz, Schwab and Winterhoff-Spurk (2002) discovered that the main news in Germany reported between 11 and 20 acts of violence such as disasters, accidents, deaths etc. In Switzerland too, emotional communication is one of the most significant strategies employed in images and text. In the USA for example the word "fear" was used a third more frequently in newspaper reports and headlines published in 1996 than in those that appeared 10 years earlier (Altheide and Michalowski, 1999).

In general it can be said that mainstreamnews is becoming increasingly oriented towards entertainment, and that emotional images in news reports trigger more feelings in the recipients that non-emotional ones. However, a study by Brosius and Kayser (1991) showed that the quality of information in news reports with emotional images was rated better by consumers than reports without such images.

The research arising from studies of the relationship between emotion and memory can be roughly divided into four areas. These comprise remembrance of the individual's own experiences, remembrance of emotional media content, the influence of media content on memories of the programme context, and the recall effects of specific emotions (Schramm and Wirth, 2006).

As the phenomenon of politics is largely communicated through mass media, the acceptance or rejection of political decisions by the general population depends to a large extent on the way in which they are portrayed in the media.

The media have a dual role in this context. Firstly, because they report on political events and the grounds for political decisions made by politicians, and secondly because they discuss these decisions from their own perspective, shedding light on these events in a specific way. The role they assume in this context depends on the stages of the political decision-making process, while the type of media report also influences the population's reception of political decisions (Scheufele and Gasteiger, 2007).

The framing concept can be used to explain how far media frameworks influence the population's acceptance or rejection of a political decision.
A study by Scheufele and Gasteiger (2007) investigated how the influence of political reporting influenced the population's legitimation of political decisions and concluded that a frame of reference can make certain aspects more salient in cognitive terms. This in turn makes the associated appraisals more significant in terms of legitimating the decision and triggers emotions that appeal to certain fundamental values. However, it must be kept in mind that every media representation is also a function of political reality (Scheufele and Gasteiger, 2007).

This leads us to questions like: 'How much do voters know about the political reality?' 'How do the audience of the mass media select the content to which they pay attention?' 'What are their criteria?'

In modern society a lot of information is produced every day and yet more and more remains unobserved due to the limited capacity of the audience.

As such the question of selection criteria becomes more and more important.

5. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

After Lazersfeld et al.'s (1944) famous study of the American presidential election campaign, it was long assumed that people would only turn to information that corresponded to their existing opinions and attitudes. while arguments and information from the opposite side of the spectrum would be avoided (Donsbach, 1989).

5.1. Theory of Cognitive Dissonance

Also within media-impact research. the 'rule of selection' formed the theoretical basis. underpinned by Festinger's (1957) general psychological law, according to which people try to avoid constellations that do not fit, i.e. are dissonant with their attitudes.

From a communication-science perspective, the possibilities of dissonance reduction, which can explain people's (media-) information behavior, are of particular interest. According to Festinger, someone who experiences dissonance actively looks for information that either reduces or increases dissonance (selective exposure).

Nevertheless, if recipients consume inconsistent contents, they are distorted until they match the existing setting (selective perception). Furthermore, recipients are more likely to remember information that matches their setting (selective retention). Is selection a form of protection against inconsistent information and influential media content (Pürer, 2015).

In his publication "Media Effect Despite Selection" (1989), Donsbach contends that there is currently consensus in the psychological literature that Festinger's theory cannot be upheld.

That people have a tendency to create coherence between existing cognitions and avoid dissonances is 'one' driving force, but not the only one.

In his study "The selection behavior of newspaper readers" (1989), Donsbach examines which role media recipients' existing attitudes and relationships play in the selection of information. He concludes that newspaper readers, given the constant environmental conditions of the content and form of the information offered, prefer reading those articles from which they can expect their own opinion to be confirmed.

If little time is available to select information, the selectivity increases.
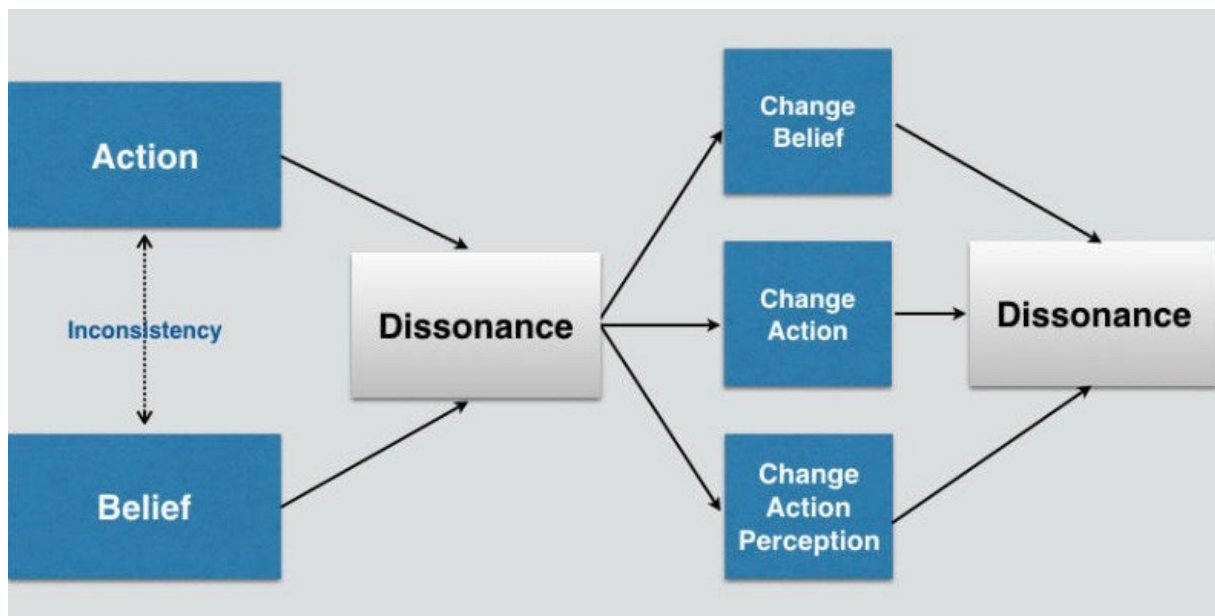
Figure 4: Model of The Cognitive Dissonance Theory

5.2. <u>Elaboration-Likelihood-Modell</u>

As politicians want to win our votes, they try to persuade or manipulate us with their rhetoric und staging techniques. They can do this by appealing to us with a convincing argument, backed up with solid facts and by accessing our emotions. Developed in the mid-1970s by John Cacioppo and Richard Petty, the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) seeks to explain how humans process stimuli differently and the outcomes of these processes on changing attitudes, and, consequently, behavior.

In the context of persuasion it means the time a person spends thinking about a statement by a politician and the message/messages contained therein. The level of elaboration is the critical value in this model. When for example a politician presents information to an audience, a level of "elaboration" results (Klimmt, 2011).
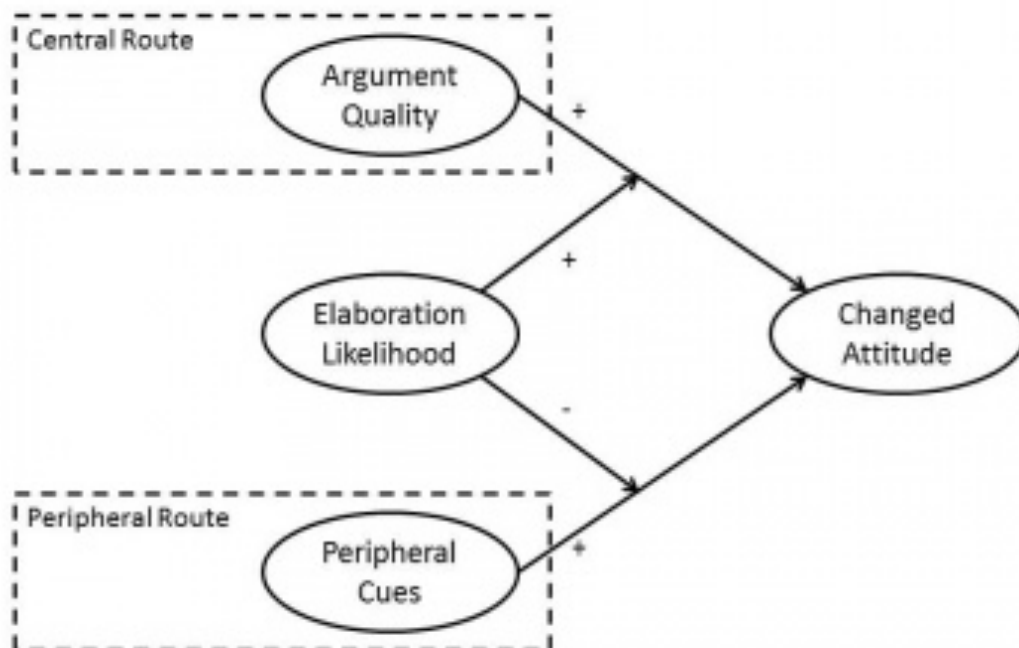
Figure 5: ELM

The ELM describes in an abstract form the very characteristics of persuasion experiments, which are important for influencing attitudes. Although it is not possible to make a perfect prediction, we can make a better assessment, because the message, target and situation could probably lead us to the following result

For example, if a politician focuses on argument A in situation B for person C, C will improve his attitude. (Klimmt, 2011).

The central route processing involves a high level of elaboration. Here, the audience scrutinizes the message's content rather than reading casually.

People, and in this case voters, know what's important to them. So, if they are persuaded via central route processing, they will have focused on the statements' strengths.

A low level of elaboration involves the peripheral route processing. The user isn't scrutinizing the message for its effectiveness. As such, other factors can influence him/her, including distractions. These include such users as those who know that they like the politician, but do not know much about the detail of his or her policy (Geddes, 2016).

5.3. Consistency/Balance Theory

Another theory is the balancing theory, which deals with the contradictions in the relationships a person perceives between himself and other elements of his environment. Heider's 1946 article "Attitudes and Cognitive Organization" describes the fact that people prefer balanced conditions to unbalanced ones.

Heider's theory applies the states of 'balance' and 'imbalance' to three elements. A configuration consists of a perceiving person P, another person O and an

impersonal object X. According to Heider (1946), X can be "a situation, an event, an idea or some other thing, etc."

The relationship system with the three elements P-O-X forms a triad (Fig. 1). It is important that the situation is always analysed from P's point of view.
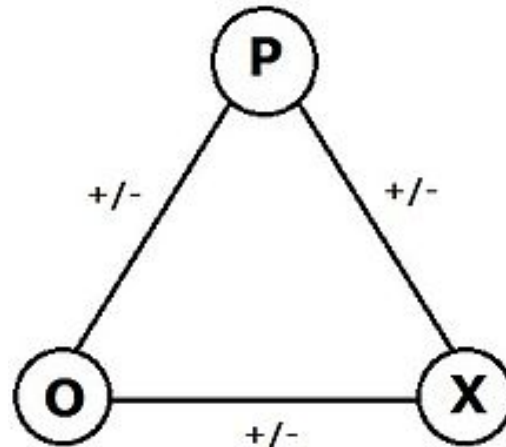
Figure 6: Relationship between P-O-X.

Emotional relations arise between the three elements. These relations refer to an evaluation of O or X by P and are either sympathetic or antipathetic, e.g. 'P has esteem for X' or 'O abhors X'. Only the number of positive and negative relations involved is decisive.

The formal definition of balance and imbalance is simple: "A triad is in balance when all three relations are positive or when two relations are negative and one is positive. Imbalance occurs when two relations are positive and one is negative" (Heider, 1977).

Unbalanced systems are perceived as dissonant and tense. They are unstable and tend to transform into balanced systems: "If no balanced state exists, then forces towards this state will arise . . . If a change is not possible, the state of imbalance will produce tension" (Heider, 1946).

In this research. balance theory is applied to the experimental objects. Person P is the test person. O is the party politician with whom the subject is confronted and X is the statement O makes.

According to Heider, P is always tempted to restore balance. The following solutions are available: either person P changes her attitude so that she follows O and X also evaluates positively, or person P revises his attitude to O and continues to hold on to the negative relation to X.

Hence, if P evaluates O positively but X negatively, he can either maintain confidence in O and negatively evaluate X or remain true to her attitude and insist on his negative evaluation of X. Thus, balance is restored in the triad.

5.4. Theory of Affective Intelligence

Marcus' theory of affective intelligence (2007) addresses the relevance of emotions in the formation of political opinions and explains how emotions structure voters' decision-making process. Emotions in this theory are viewed, as functional and rational.

In order to form a far more flexible interpretation pattern, Marcus (2007) links the assumptions of the 'psychological choice mode' (whereby election decisions are made by people who are mainly influenced by a strong party formation) with those of 'rational choice theory' (whereby people make election decisions through careful. rational consideration).

According to Marcus, people have two main decision strategies, each of which is determined by external factors from the environment. People in familiar situations decide routinely and heuristically, as dealing intensively

with a topic in such situations would waste resources unnecessarily. Here, people rely on their ideological attitudes and party preferences.

In unfamiliar and new situations, however, rational consideration is given to decisions. The decisive factor for Marcus is the emotion 'fear'. A person who breaks out of his/her usual structures of action becomes open to new impressions and willing to seek orientation. This rational consideration allows for a change in setting and selection behaviour.

Another major factor in the election decision is the emotion 'enthusiasm'. On the one hand, it strengthens people's loyalty to their favoured candidate. On the other hand, if it is directed at the candidate of the competing party, it even leads to a change in electoral preference (Marcus, 2007).

Based on the theory of affective intelligence, Brader and Valentino (2007) identify another emotion with a decisive influence on political opinion forming and motivation. They maintain that anger has a very similar effect on a person as fear. Thus, emotions, anger and fear share the same status as a perceived threat, for example (Brader & Valentino, 2007).

Based on these assumptions, the present work aims to examine *to what extent the source influences the emotions of the recipient*, whereby the emotions fear and enthusiasm are chosen as dependent variables.
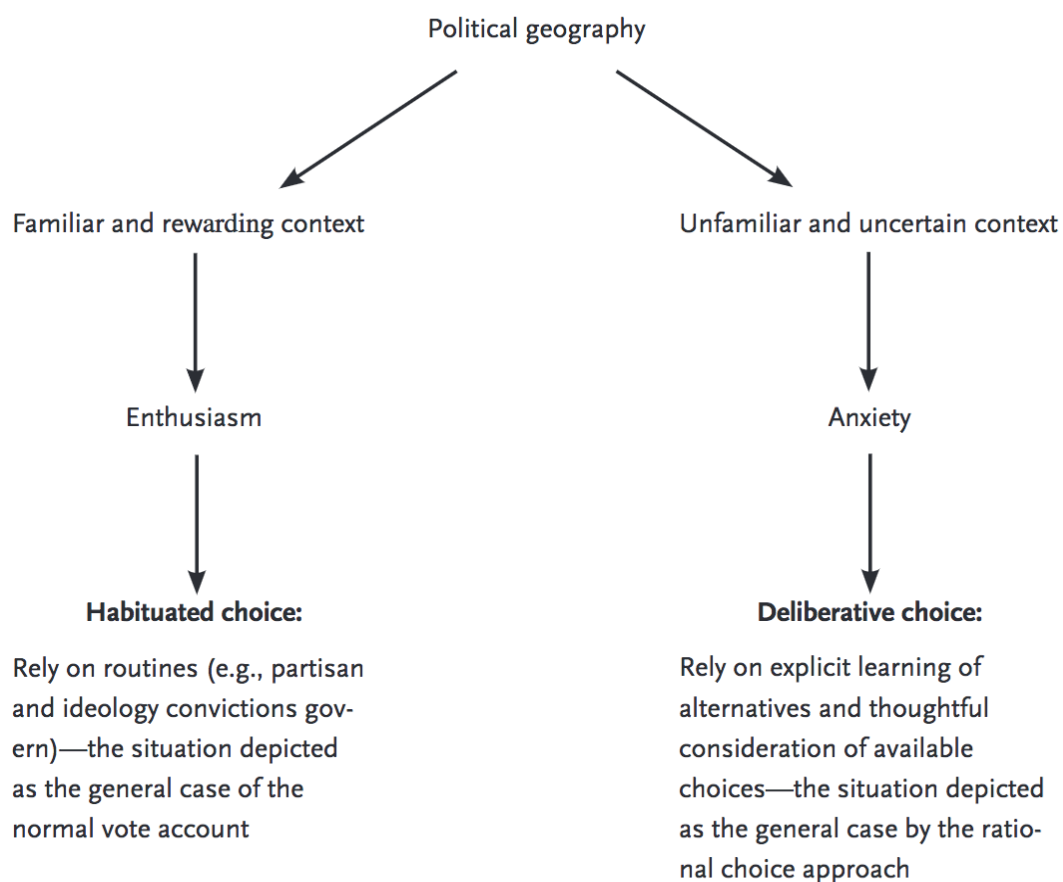
Figure 7: Responses to political geography

Based on the theory of affective intelligence explained above, the first hypothesis are as follows:

"There is no difference in emotions if the source is coherent with the personal political attitude on the left-right axis (H0)".

"If the source is coherent with the personal political attitude on the left-right axis. positive emotions are evoked (H1)".

This means that when the source is known and liked, i.e. when it corresponds to someone's personal political opinion on the left-right axis, the positive emotion enthusiasm is evoked.

The recipient therefore relies on a routine decision, which is characterized by existing loyalty to the party, for example.

H2 forms the counterhypothesis, stating that when recipients are confronted with a source with which they are not familiar or which runs counter to their political tendencies, a negative emotion is evoked. The source is then questioned and analyzed in more detail.

"When the source of someone's personal political attitude runs counter on the left-right axis. negative emotions are evoked (H2).

6. RESEARCH DESIGN

To investigate the hypothesis that *sources influence the emotional response to content*. an experimental design in the form of a questionnaire was chosen.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the conclusions, a representative sample of more than 400 test persons (more than 200 for each control group) was taken.

For Porst (2009), a good questionnaire is one in which the "qualitative and quantitative agreement of the instruments with the research objective" is given. Using the chosen theories, quantitative agreement is given when the hypotheses and variables have been fully and adequately operationalized. Qualitative agreement refers to the appropriate operationalization of hypotheses and variables.

In addition, question and answer categories must be created so that the information can be measured reliably and validly. It must be ensured that respondents do not produce conflicting multiple answers or statements that cannot be used for the analysis (Porst, 2009).

The online questionnaire used in this work is designed in such a way that it is impossible to give contradictory multiple answers or to skip questions. Only fully completed questionnaires have been included in the analysis, as otherwise no correlation can be established between the variables.

The starting point for this study is Austria's political landscape. Five statements by Austrian politicians from different parties represented in the Austrian parliament were selected. In order not to falsify the results (especially for the experimental

group – Statements shown without source), it was important that the individual statements of the politicians could not be clearly assigned to the parties.

These statements were shown to randomly assigned persons through two questionnaires. While the test persons were given the statements together with their respective sources in the first questionnaire, the control group received the statements without the sources. In this way, it can be controlled whether the perceived emotion of the test persons changes depending on whether the source is omitted or named.

The selected statements refer to relevant topics about which as many people as possible have an opinion or emotional state. According to Morris (2002), social values such as education, the environment, immigration and crime are becoming increasingly important.

The debate about Turkey's possible entry into the EU was chosen as the topic for the two major parties, SPÖ and ÖVP. This makes it possible to make a direct comparison between the emotions under enquiry regarding the source. Both parties represent the same position in this debate, although they are differently positioned on the political left-right axis.

The other selected statements refer to the core policies of the respective parties. Based on the research results of the theory of affective intelligence (Marcus, 2007). the emotions of anger and enthusiasm were investigated.

The order of the statements corresponds to that of the statements in the questionnaire and was based on two different considerations. First. the almost identical statements on Turkey's possible accession to the EU (statements 1 and 5), made by two politicians anchored complementarily on the left-right axis. were compared directly.

For example, does a person who sees herself as more anchored to the left of the political spectrum or even espouses the SPÖ as her preferred party react more negatively (i.e. more angrily and less enthusiastically) to an almost identical quote from the top candidate of the more right-wing ÖVP and vice versa?

If this is the case. the results would support our thesis that the source of information influences emotion.

The three statements are positioned centrally to ensure that the respondent cannot remember the exact wording of the first question at statement five or which emotional state she indicated at the beginning of the questionnaire.

In order to draw conclusions about the emotions of the recipients, the Life Orientation Test was used for positive emotions (Glaesmer, H., Hoyer, J., Klotsche, J., & Herzberg, P., 2008) and the STAI Test (Grimm, Jürgen, 2009) for negative emotions.

6.1. Data Analysis and Operationalization

The data set of the questionnaire is evaluated with the software SPSS Statistics. The source is listed as the independent variable and the emotion as the dependent variable.

H1 and its counterhypothesis H2—formulated to prove or refute the direction of emotions depending on the source of the statement and the test person's political attitude—are operationalized as follows:

Independent variable: source and political attitude

The political attitude is measured in the questionnaire by the specified positioning of the test persons on the left-right axis. as well as by their voting behaviour.

Dependent variable: Emotion (anger and enthusiasm)

H3 and its counterhypothesis H4—measuring whether the source influences the strength of the emotion—are operationalized as follows:

Independent variable: source and strength of political interest

The strength of political interest is determined by asking this very question. whereby the factor of how comfortably familiar the respondent is with Austrian politics plays an important role in the strength of the possibly evoked emotion.

Dependent variable: strength of emotion

6.2. <u>Evaluation methods</u>

The statistical evaluation of the data was carried out using SPSS 24.00 for Windows. The significance level was set to p<0.05.

The following statistical methods were used to test the hypotheses:

To calculate mean differences between two groups, the t-test was used for **independent samples**. This statistical test can be used to calculate mean differences between two independent groups. The applicable conditions such as interval scale level. normal distribution of the data or a group size with N > 30 and homogeneity of the variances were checked before application.

The **Levene test** was used to check the homogeneity of the variances. If a significant result is available, this indicates heterogeneous variances, which is why the hypothesis testing was carried out using the modified t-test. If several t-tests are performed, the alpha error increases, which is why in such a case an alpha error correction according to Bonferroni was applied and a significance level of p<0.01 was assumed.

The normal distribution of the scales was calculated with the **Kolmogorov-Smirnov test**. In most cases no normal distribution can be assumed in the available data after extensive testing. However, this is very likely due to the sensitivity of the test to large samples (N=317) (Field, 2013).

The **Pearson test** was used to analyze the relationships between two interval-scaled variables. The **Spearman test** was used to analyze correlations between an ordinal-scaled and an interval-scaled variable.

6.1   Descriptive statistics

A total of 542 people completed the questionnaire. People who were not eligible to vote in Austria were not included in the survey. After the data collected had been adjusted and incomplete data sets had been excluded. 448 people remained in the sample.

As regards the gender distribution, the proportion of women was 50.7% and the proportion of men 49.3% (see graph 1).
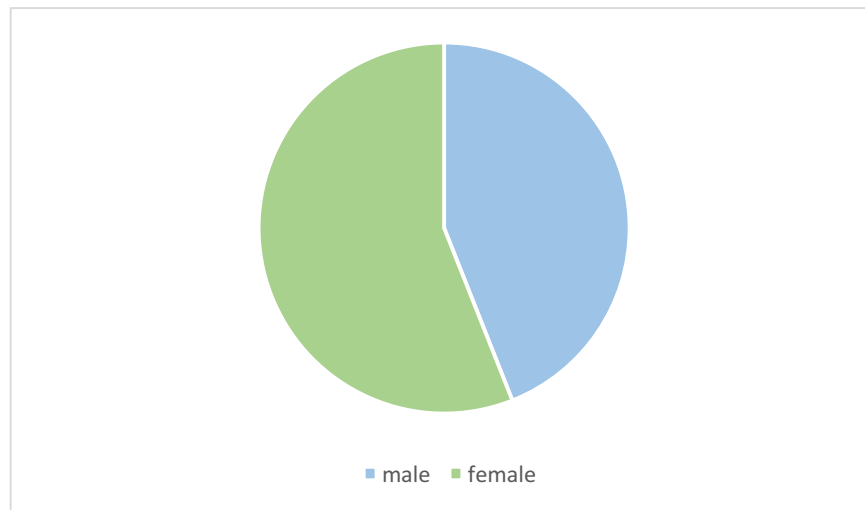
Graph 1: Percentage distribution of sexes

As regards the age of the interviewees the following percentage distribution was observed:
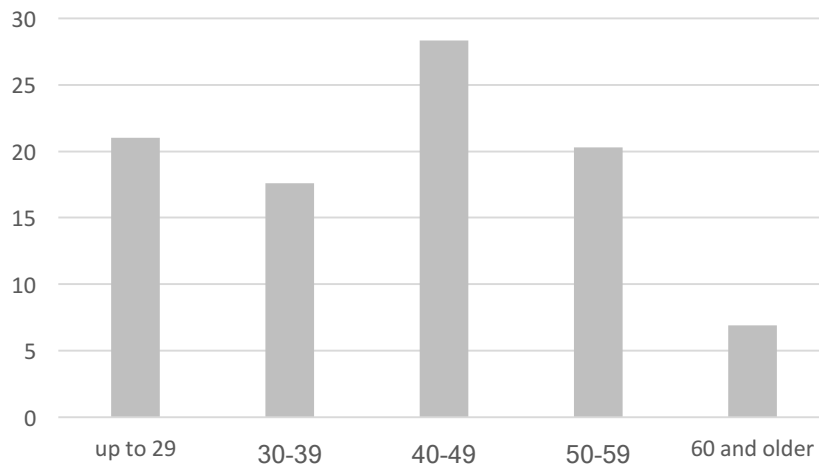
Graph 2: Age distribution in percent

In regard to the question of which media are used to obtain information about politics, the following distribution occurred. Due to the multiple answers, absolute figures are given here instead of percentages.

As can be seen in graph 3, 347 people indicated that they obtained information via TV, 292 people via radio, 346 via newspaper, 254 via social media, 18 via Youtube, 40 via party events and 173 via personal conversations. 14 people indicated that they currently were not informed.
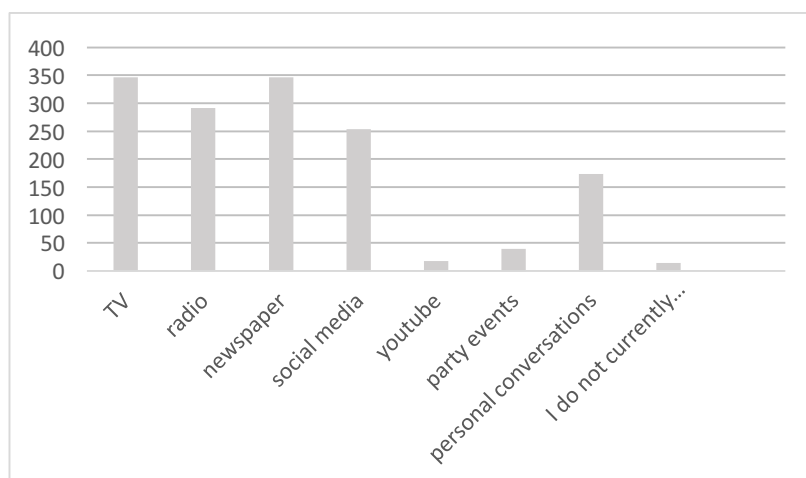
Graph 3: Which media are used to obtain information about politics

7.   TESTING HYPOTHESES

On the following pages. the results of the hypothesis test are analyzed and graphically displayed for a better view.

7.1.   <u>Source, political attitude and positive emotions</u>

H0 "There is no difference in emotions if the source is coherent with the personal political attitude on the left-right axis"

H1: "If the source is coherent with the personal political attitude on the left-right axis. positive emotions are evoked"

A Spearman correlation was used to analyse question 1. This checks whether there is a significant correlation between interval-scaled and ordinal-scaled variables. As Table 1 shows, there is a significant positive correlation between party membership and the statements of the SPÖ, the FPÖ and the ÖVP. This means that people who feel that they belong to the right-wing political side are more likely to have agreed to the items. In addition, there was a negative correlation between party affiliation and the Greens' statement. This means that people who feel that they belong to the left side of the political spectrum tended to agree with this item.

In addition, the FPÖ statement had a positive connection with optimism. People who tended to agree with the item felt positive emotions. For this item, the null

hypothesis can be rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis: People whose political attitude corresponded with the statement felt more positive emotions. For the other variables there was no connection with positive emotions, so the null hypothesis is maintained for these variables.

Statements	Party membership (N=205)		Optimism (N=220)	
	Correlation coefficient	Significance	Correlation coefficient	Significance
"You [Turkey] are simply not a candidate for membership." (Christian Kern SPÖ)	0.219	0.002	0.068	0.317
"Childrearing needs to be given a much higher financial value, whether it takes place at home or in the kindergarten." (Heinz-Christian Strache. FPÖ)	0.224	0.001	0.169	0.012
"The climate crisis has also affected our country, our glaciers. Austria must therefore, as one of the richest countries, lead the way" (Ulrike Lunacek. die Grünen)	-0.252	0.000	-0.076	0.265
"Those who love Europe must criticize and decisively engage in the further development of the	0.009	0.901	0.118	0.080

European Union." (Matthias Strolz. NEOS)				
"Turkey has no place in the EU." (Sebastian Kurz. ÖVP)	0.329	0.000	0.014	0.831

Table 1: Results of the Spearman Test on Question 1 (experimental group)

In comparison, Table 2 lists the results of the control group that had not been shown the names of the politicians in the statements. There was a significant positive correlation between party membership and the SPÖ statement as well as the ÖVP statement.

People who feel they belong to the right-wing political side tended to agree with the statements. In addition, there was a significant positive correlation between the NEOS statement and optimism. People who tended to agree with the statement experienced more positive emotions.

Statements	Party membership (N=213)		Optimism (N=228)	
	Correlation coefficient	Significance	Correlation coefficient	Significance
"You [Turkey] are simply not a candidate for membership." (Christian Kern SPÖ)	0.226	0.001	0.061	0.360
"Childrearing needs to be given a much higher financial value, whether it takes place at home or in the kindergarten." (Heinz-Christian Strache. FPÖ)	-0.129	0.061	0.012	0.851

"The climate crisis has also affected our country, our glaciers. Austria must therefore, as one of the richest countries, lead the way" (Ulrike Lunacek. die Grünen)	-0.055	0.422	0.015	0.820
"Those who love Europe must criticize and decisively engage in the further development of the European Union." (Matthias Strolz. NEOS)	0.080	0.244	0.140	0.035
"Turkey has no place in the EU." (Sebastian Kurz. ÖVP)	0.262	0.000	0.082	0.220

Table 2: Results of the Spearman test on question 2 (control group)

7.2. Source, political attitude and negative emotions

H0: "There is no difference in emotions if the source is coherent with the personal political attitude on the left-right axis"
H1: "When the source of someone's personal political attitude runs counter on the left-right axis. negative emotions are evoked"

A Spearman correlation was again used to check question 2. This checks whether there is a significant correlation between interval-scaled and ordinal-scaled variables. As can be seen in Table 3 and as already described in question 1, there is a significant positive correlation between party membership and the statements of the SPÖ, the FPÖ and the ÖVP. This means that people who feel that they belong to the left political side tend not to agree with the items. In addition, there was a negative correlation between party affiliation and the Greens' statement. This means that people who feel that they belong to the right-wing political side tend not to agree with this item.

Furthermore, there was no significant correlation with pessimism. This means that there is no significant correlation between negative emotions and the contradiction of one's own political attitude and statement. The null hypothesis is maintained.

Statements	Party membership (N=205)		Pessimismus (N=220)	
	Correlation coefficient	Significance	Correlation coefficient	Significance
"You [Turkey] are simply not a candidate for membership." (Christian Kern SPÖ)	0.219	0.002	-0.087	0.197
"Childrearing needs to be given a much higher financial value, whether it takes place at home or in the kindergarten." (Heinz-Christian Strache. FPÖ)	0.224	0.001	0.015	0.821
"The climate crisis has also affected our country, our glaciers. Austria must therefore, as one of the richest countries, lead the way" (Ulrike Lunacek. die Grünen)	-0.252	0.000	0.017	0.805
"Those who love Europe must criticize and decisively engage in the further development of the European Union." (Matthias Strolz. NEOS)	0.009	0.901	-0.028	0.675
"Turkey has no place in the EU." (Sebastian Kurz. ÖVP)	0.329	0.000	-0.027	0.695

Table 3: Results of the Spearman test on question 2 (experimental group)

In comparison. Table 4 lists the results of the control group that had not been shown the names of the politicians in the statements.

There was a significant positive correlation between party membership and the SPÖ statement as well as the ÖVP statement.

People who consider themselves to belong to the left side of the political spectrum did not agree with the statements.

Furthermore, there was no significant connection between the statements and pessimism in the control group either.

Statements	Party membership (N=205)		Pessimism (N=220)	
	Correlation coefficient	Significance	Correlation coefficient	Significance
"You [Turkey] are simply not a candidate for membership." (Christian Kern SPÖ)	0.219	0.002	-0.087	0.197
"Childrearing needs to be given a much higher financial value, whether it takes place at home or in the kindergarten." (Heinz-Christian Strache. FPÖ)	0.224	0.001	0.015	0.821
"The climate crisis has also affected our country, our glaciers, Austria must therefore, as one of the richest countries, lead the way" (Ulrike Lunacek. die Grünen)	-0.252	0.000	0.017	0.805
"Those who love Europe must criticize and decisively engage in the further development of the European Union." (Matthias Strolz. NEOS)	0.009	0.901	-0.028	0.675
"Turkey has no place in the EU." (Sebastian Kurz. ÖVP)	0.329	0.000	-0.027	0.695

Table 4: Results of the Spearman test on question 2 (control group)

7.3.   Source, political interest and emotions

H0 "The source and the strength of political interest are not correlating with the strength of emotion"

H1: "The source and the strength of political interest are correlating with the strength of emotion"

A Pearson correlation was used to analyze Question 3. This checks whether there is a significant correlation between interval-scaled variables. As Table 5 shows, there is a significant positive correlation between political interest and the statements of the Greens and NEOS. This means that people who are more informed about politics tend to agree with the statements.

There was no significant connection between the statements and the total value of the emotions, nor between political interest and the total value of the emotions. This means that the strength of the emotions does not depend on the statements or political interest, which is why the null hypothesis is maintained.

Statements	Political interest (N=220)		Emotions total value (N=220)	
	Correlation coefficient	Significance	Correlation coefficient	Significance
"You [Turkey] are simply not a candidate for membership." (Christian Kern SPÖ)	0.111	0.100	0.018	0.790
"Childrearing needs to be given a much higher financial value,	-0.096	0.154	0.075	0.270

Statements				
whether it takes place at home or in the kindergarten." (Heinz-Christian Strache. FPÖ)				
"The climate crisis has also affected our country, our glaciers. Austria must therefore, as one of the richest countries, lead the way" (Ulrike Lunacek. die Grünen)	0.180	0.007	-0.054	0.428
"Those who love Europe must criticize and decisively engage in the further development of the European Union." (Matthias Strolz. NEOS)	0.223	0.001	0.071	0.293
"Turkey has no place in the EU." (Sebastian Kurz. ÖVP)	0.025	0.716	-0.027	0.689

Table 5: Results of the Pearson test on Question 3 (experimental group)

In comparison. Table 6 lists the results of the control group that had not been shown the names of the politicians in the statements. There was a significant positive correlation between political interest and the Green statement. People who are more informed about politics tended to agree with this statement. However, there were no significant correlations with the total value of the emotions.

Statements	Political interest (N=228)		Emotions total value (N=228)	
	Correlation coefficient	Significance	Correlation coefficient	Significance
"You [Turkey] are simply not a candidate for membership." (Christian Kern SPÖ)	0.062	0.348	0.021	0.747

"Childrearing needs to be given a much higher financial value, whether it takes place at home or in the kindergarten." (Heinz-Christian Strache. FPÖ)	0.042	0.528	-0.034	0.608
"The climate crisis has also affected our country, our glaciers. Austria must therefore, as one of the richest countries, lead the way" (Ulrike Lunacek. die Grünen)	0.230	0.000	-0.012	0.853
"Those who love Europe must criticize and decisively engage in the further development of the European Union." (Matthias Strolz. NEOS)	0.019	0.781	0.000	0.998
"Turkey has no place in the EU." (Sebastian Kurz. ÖVP)	0.074	0.267	0.071	0.283

Table 6: Results of the Pearson test on Question 3 (control group)

7.4. Difference between experimental group and control group

H0 "There is no difference between experimental-group and control-group regarding the political statements"

H1: "There is a difference between experimental-group and control-group regarding the political statements"

A t-test for independent samples with Bonferroni correction (p=0.01) was used to analyze Question 4. Table 7 shows that there is a significant group difference for the statements of the SPÖ and NEOS.

In this case, individuals of the experimental group (EG) achieved significantly higher mean values, which means that these individuals agreed with the statements significantly more than the individuals of the control group (CG).

The null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis for these items. For the remaining items, the null hypothesis is retained.

Statements	Group	N	Median	SD	Significance
"You [Turkey] are simply not a candidate for membership." (Christian Kern SPÖ)	EG	220	5.43	1.619	0.008
	CG	228	4.98	1.968	
"Childrearing needs to be given a much higher financial value, whether it takes place at home or in the	EG	220	5.50	1.482	0.688
	CG	228	5.56	1.523	

kindergarten." (Heinz-Christian Strache. FPÖ)					
"The climate crisis has also affected our country. our glaciers. Austria must therefore, as one of the richest countries, lead the way" (Ulrike Lunacek. die Grünen)	EG	220	5.68	1.576	0.916
	CG	228	5.70	1.560	
"Those who love Europe must criticize and decisively engage in the further development of the European Union." (Matthias Strolz. NEOS)	EG	220	5.05	1.537	0.003
	CG	228	4.57	1.771	
"Turkey has no place in the EU." (Sebastian Kurz. ÖVP)	EG	220	5.08	1.871	0.700
	CG	228	5.15	1.819	

Table 7: Results of the t-test on question 4

8.   CONCLUSION

The aim of the present work was to connect and measure the sources, i.e. the politicians, and their political statements with the emotions of the recipients. It was assumed that knowledge of the source could reinforce positive and negative emotions, as numerous previous studies have shown (Waheed & Chung, 2016; Druckman 2001; Miller & Krosnick, 2000).

This paper follows on from the findings of Lupia & McCubbins (1998) and Popkin (1991), who both found that the source had a significant influence on the assessment of policy content.

In the experimental group, a significant correlation between party membership and the statements of the SPÖ, the FPÖ and the ÖVP was found. The control group also showed a significant correlation between party membership and statements of the SPÖ and the ÖVP.

Although care was taken in the selection of the statements to ensure that they were kept as neutral as possible, i.e. that they could not be clearly assigned to any party, it cannot be completely ruled out that the individual test persons in the control group remembered the statements of their preferred party or their preferred politician and that they were influenced by them.

In addition, the present study shows that the party positions can be traced back to two dimensions, as Benoit & Laver (2006), Laver & Hunt (1994) and McDonald/Mendes (2000) have already determined in their investigations. For example, people who tend to be left-wing did not agree with the statements of the right-wing parties.

With reference to the connection between political preference (location on the left-right axis) and the influence of the source on emotions, a significant connection with positive emotions was found in the experimental group between the statement of the FPÖ and in the control group between the statement of the NEOS.

In contrast, there was no significant correlation with negative emotions either in the experimental group or in the control group.

Furthermore, a significant positive relationship could be recognized with regard to the political interest and the statements of the more left-oriented parties. People who are increasingly interested in politics agreed with the statements of the NEOS and the Greens. This applies both to the experimental group and to the control group. However, in both groups there was no discernible correlation between the total value of the emotions and the political interest.

When asked whether there was a difference in the political statements of the parties between the two experimental groups, only a significant difference could be found in the statements of the SPÖ and NEOS.

It was interesting to observe that only Heinz Christian Strache's statement: "Child rearing must rather be estimated financially again, no matter whether it takes place at home or in kindergarten", triggered significantly more enthusiasm with a citation of the source than without a citation of the source, even though only 5% of the test persons feel assigned to the FPÖ.

Whether here the political statement or the fact that a polarizing politician like Heinz Christian Strache H.C. made this statement was decisive for the evaluation could not be determined with this investigation.

The limitations are a politically more left-wing target group with an average high educational status, which is related to the social environment of the author. For continuing or more in-depth research that is representative of Austria, the group of respondents would have to be much more heterogeneous on average.

Now that the political landscape in Austria has changed considerably in the last year and a half since the general elections 2017, further research in the field of political opinion-forming and emotions would be interesting.

On the one hand, the Greens have lost their long-standing party leadership after the resignation of Eva Glawischnig in May 2017, NEOS boss Matthias Strolz also resigned, and on the other hand, after the scandalous video by H.C. Strache and the subsequent dismissal of Federal Chancellor Sebastian Kurz, a transitional government was appointed and early new elections decided in autumn 2019.

For future research, however, it would make sense to choose a different research design. This is particularly important in order to be able to analyse the range of emotions in the experimental groups more precisely, since they are often regarded as suspect and problematic with regard to their intensity, dynamics, variability and linearity (Fiehler, 1990).

One might consider methods from social biology or psychology, for example, which could also be used to measure physiological details and thus provide more information about the prevailing emotions in political opinion-forming.

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9.2. List of Figures:

10. APPENDIX

10.1. <u>Stimulus material: political statements</u>

<u>Statement 1:</u>

"You [Turkey] are simply not a candidate for membership." (Christian Kern SPÖ)

This statement was made by SPÖ's leading candidate Christian Kern on Turkey's EU membership. (Spiegel.de. 2017)

The SPÖ is the party of the Social Democrats. who have committed themselves to a "humane, democratic and just society" (SPÖ. 1998. p. 3). Its principles are freedom, equality, justice and solidarity (SPÖ. 1998). Social justice is her core theme. They are tlocated center left of the political spectrum.

<u>Statement 2:</u>

"Childrearing needs to be given a much higher financial value, whether it takes place at home or in the kindergarten." Heinz-Christian Strache. FPÖ (APA. 2014)

This statement on family support was made by Heinz-Christian Strache. the top candidate of the FPÖ. The FPÖ is the liberal party of Austria. Its principle is "Austria first" and political self-determination (FPÖ. 2011. p.2). They use a populist rhetoric with focus on the terms "home" and "identity" (FPÖ. 2011. p.5). They are to be located on the right of the political spectrum.

<u>Statement 3:</u>

"The climate crisis has also affected our country, our glaciers. Austria must therefore, as one of the richest countries, lead the way" Ulrike Lunacek. Greens (better live longer. 2017)

This statement was made by Ulrike Lunacek, top candidate of the Greens on environmental protection and climate change.

The Greens are a party that works hard for environmental protection and sustainability, as well as for an open society which promotes solidarity (Die Grünen. 2001). They are to be located on the left of the political spectrum

Statement 4:

"Those who love Europe must criticize and decisively engage in the further development of the European Union." Matthias Strolz. NEOS (Wiener Zeitung. 2017)

This statement was made by Matthias Strolz. top candidate of NEOS on the topic of European politics.

NEOS characterize themselves as "courageous. innovative and freedom-loving" (NEOS. 2016. p. 1). The party advocates (economically speaking) liberal ideas, advocating more individual responsibility and a tolerant and open society with the goal of political progress (NEOS. 2006). They are located in the center of the political spectrum.

Statement 5:

 "Turkey has no place in the EU." Sebastian Kurz. ÖVP (Kurier.at. 2017)

This statement was made by Sebastian Kurz, the leading candidate of the ÖVP on Turkey's EU membership.

The ÖVP (Austrian People's Party) defines itself as an (economically speaking liberal. Christian Democratic party (Cf. ÖVP. 1998). In addition to a Christian image of man, the performance principle, equal opportunity and security play a major role (Vgl ÖVP. 1998). They are to be located on the right of the political spectrum.

10.2. <u>Survey</u>

Welcome to this survey on emotions in the political context. Thank you for taking the time to answer the questions below!

Nationality

○   Austria

○   Germany

○   Switzerland

○   Other

Are you eligible to vote in Austria? *

○   Yes

○   No

Sex

○   Female

○   Male

How old are you?

What is your highest level of education?

○ No educational attainment

○ Certificate of Secondary Education

○ Completed apprenticeship

○ Vocational middle school

○ Master's certificate

○ General qualification for university

○ Academic degree

○ Other

How do you inform yourself about politics?

○ TV

○ Radio

○ Newspaper

○ Social Media

○ Youtube

○ Party events

○ Personal conversations

○ I do not currently inform myself

○ Other

What social media do you use to inform yourself politics?

[   ]

How often do you use the TV to find out about politics?

Choose the answer option that best suits your behavior (for example. select 5x per week daily).

○ Once a day

○ several times a day

○ several times a week

○ once in a week

○ several times a month

○ monthly

○ annually

How often do you use the Radio to find out about politics?

Choose the answer option that best suits your behavior (for example. select 5x per week daily).

○ Once a day

○ several times a day

○ several times a week

○ once in a week

○ several times a month

○ monthly

○ annually

How often do you use the Newspaper to find out about politics?

Choose the answer option that best suits your behavior (for example. select 5x per week daily).

○   Once a day

○   several times a day

○   several times a week

○   once in a week

○   several times a month

○   monthly

○   annually

How often do you use Social Media to find out about politics?

Choose the answer option that best suits your behavior (for example. select 5x per week daily).

○   Once a day

○   several times a day

○   several times a week

○   once in a week

○   several times a month

○   monthly

○   annually

How often do you use Youtube to find out about politics?

Choose the answer option that best suits your behavior (for example. select 5x per week daily).

○   Once a day

○   several times a day

○   several times a week

○   once in a week

○   several times a month

○   monthly

○   annually

How often do you use Party Events to find out about politics?

Choose the answer option that best suits your behavior (for example. select 5x per week daily).

○   Once a day

○   several times a day

○   several times a week

○   once in a week

○   several times a month

○   monthly

○   annually

How often do you use personal conversations to find out about politics?

Choose the answer option that best suits your behavior (for example. select 5x per week daily).

○ Once a day

○ several times a day

○ several times a week

○ once in a week

○ several times a month

○ monthly

○ annually

In the following. you will find a series of statements with which you can describe yourself. Please read each statement, and out of the four answers, choose the one which describes how you are feeling <u>now</u>, <u>at this moment</u>. With each statement, please tick the number below your chosen answer. There are no right or wrong answers. Please don't think too long and make sure to choose the answer which best describes your <u>current</u> emotional state.

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Hardly agree	Don't agree at all
Even in times of uncertainty, I usually expect the best.	○	○	○	○	○
It's easy for me to relax.	○	○	○	○	○
If something can go wrong in my life, then it will.	○	○	○	○	○
I always look to the future with optimism.	○	○	○	○	○

I feel good in my circle of friends.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to be busy at all times.	○	○	○	○	○
Things hardly ever unfold according to my expectations.	○	○	○	○	○
I am not too easily upset.	○	○	○	○	○
I rarely expect something good to happen to me.	○	○	○	○	○
All in all, I expect more good than bad things to happen to me.	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate to what extent your opinion aligns with the following statements.

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Hardly agree	Don't agree at all
Even in times of uncertainty. I usually expect the best.	○	○	○	○	○
It's easy for me to relax.	○	○	○	○	○
If something can go wrong in my life. then it will.	○	○	○	○	○
I always look to the future with optimism.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel good in my circle of friends.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to be busy at all times.	○	○	○	○	○
Things hardly ever unfold according to my expectations.	○	○	○	○	○
I am not too easily upset.	○	○	○	○	○
I rarely expect something good to happen to me.	○	○	○	○	○
All in all. I expect more good than bad things to happen to me.	○	○	○	○	○

How much do you agree with the following statements?

	Not at all				A lot
'It [Turkey] simply isn't a candidate for membership.' (Christian Kern. SPÖ)	○	○	○	○	○
'Child raising needs to receive a much greater monetary value. no matter whether it's at home or in the kindergarten.' (Heinz-Christian Strache. FPÖ)	○	○	○	○	○
'The climate crisis has hit our country. our glaciers too. That is why Austria needs to show the way. being one of the richest countries.' (Ulrike Lunacek. the Greens)	○	○	○	○	○
'Those who love Europe must criticise the development of the European Union and stand up for it with determination.' (Matthias Strolz. NEOS)	○	○	○	○	○
'Turkey has no place in the EU.' (Sebastian Kurz. ÖVP)	○	○	○	○	○

Which party do you most identify with?

○   FPÖ

○   ÖVP

○   The Greens

○   SPÖ

○   NEOS

10.3. Tables

@1.Nationality

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative Percentage
	Austria	446	99.6	99.6	99.6
Valid	Germany	2	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

@2. Are you eligible to vote in Austria?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valide percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	yes	448	100.0	100.0	100.0

@3.Sex

		Frequency	Percentage	Valide percentage	Cumulative percentage
	female	227	50.7	50.7	50.7
Valid	male	221	49.3	49.3	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

@5.What is your highest level of education?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valide percentage	Cumulative percentage
	Academic degree	172	38.4	38.4	38.4
	General qualification for university	145	32.4	32.4	70.8
	Completed apprenticeship	60	13.4	13.4	84.2
	Vocational middle school	35	7.8	7.8	92.0
Valid	Master's certificate	16	3.6	3.6	95.5
	Certificate of Secondary Education	10	2.2	2.2	97.8
	Other	8	1.8	1.8	99.6
	No educational attainment	2	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

How do you inform yourself about politics?

TV

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	selected	347	77.5	77.5	77.5
Valid	not selected	101	22.5	22.5	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

Radio

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	selected	292	65.2	65.2	65.2
Valid	not selected	156	34.8	34.8	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

Newspaper

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	selected	346	77.2	77.2	77.2
Valid	not selected	102	22.8	22.8	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

Social media

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	selected	254	56.7	56.7	56.7
Valid	not selected	194	43.3	43.3	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

Youtube

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	not selected	430	96.0	96.0	96.0
Valid	selected	18	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

Party events

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	not selected	408	91.1	91.1	91.1
Valid	selected	40	8.9	8.9	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

Personal conversations

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	not selected	275	61.4	61.4	61.4
Valid	selected	173	38.6	38.6	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

I do not currently inform myself

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	not selected	434	96.9	96.9	96.9
Valid	selected	14	3.1	3.1	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

How do you inform yourself about politics_Other

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	Internet	11	2.5	39.3	39.3
	Online	2	.4	7.1	46.4
	Job	1	.2	3.6	50.0
	I am a journalist	1	.2	3.6	53.6
	Diverse online News services	1	.2	3.6	57.1
	Self-research	1	.2	3.6	60.7
Valid	Internet (orf.at. derstandard.at. ....)	1	.2	3.6	64.3
	Internet ORF. Der Standard	1	.2	3.6	67.9
	Internet-News	1	.2	3.6	71.4
	Internet. zb orf.at	1	.2	3.6	75.0
	Internet offers Austrian daily newspapers	1	.2	3.6	78.6

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	Internetsides like orf.at or standard.at	1	.2	3.6	82.1
	Internet	1	.2	3.6	85.7
	Online articels	1	.2	3.6	89.3
	Online media	1	.2	3.6	92.9
	Studies political sciences	1	.2	3.6	96.4
	Newspaper sapp	1	.2	3.6	100.0
	Total	28	6.3	100.0	
Missing		420	93.8		
Total		448	100.0		

@7. What social media do you use to inform yourself politics?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
	Facebook	93	20.8	36.6	36.6
	facebook	13	2.9	5.1	41.7
	Facebook. Twitter	10	2.2	3.9	45.7
	Twitter	8	1.8	3.1	48.8
	Internet	7	1.6	2.8	51.6
	Twitter. Facebook	7	1.6	2.8	54.3
	FB	6	1.3	2.4	56.7
	Facebook. Instagram	5	1.1	2.0	58.7
	.	3	.7	1.2	59.8
	facebook. instagram	3	.7	1.2	61.0
	Facebook. Instagram. Twitter	3	.7	1.2	62.2
	Fb	3	.7	1.2	63.4
Valid	Facebook. twitter	2	.4	.8	64.2
	Facebook. Youtube	2	.4	.8	65.0
	twitter	2	.4	.8	65.7
	all	1	.2	.4	66.1
	All	1	.2	.4	66.5
	apps. facebook	1	.2	.4	66.9
	E-Mail and tv	1	.2	.4	67.3
	e-paper div.. newspapers	1	.2	.4	67.7
	FAcebook	1	.2	.4	68.1
	Facebook / Instagram	1	.2	.4	68.5
	Facebook & twitter	1	.2	.4	68.9
	Facebook Beiträge and Comments	1	.2	.4	69.3

Facebook etc.	1	.2	.4	69.7
Facebook Instagram	1	.2	.4	70.1
facebook and instagram	1	.2	.4	70.5
Facebook and Twitter	1	.2	.4	70.9
Facebook. Twitter	1	.2	.4	71.3
Facebook. div. online-newspapers	1	.2	.4	71.7
Facebook. instagram	1	.2	.4	72.0
Facebook. Instagram. twitter	1	.2	.4	72.4
Facebook. Internet	1	.2	.4	72.8
Facebook. Internetnewspapers	1	.2	.4	73.2
Facebook. linkedin	1	.2	.4	73.6
Facebook. LinkedIn. Xing	1	.2	.4	74.0
Facebook. Online Newspapers. Google	1	.2	.4	74.4
Facebook. Standard. automatic Whatsapp-News. APA	1	.2	.4	74.8
Facebook. Web precences of Newspapers	1	.2	.4	75.2
Facebook. websites	1	.2	.4	75.6
Facebook. WhatsApp	1	.2	.4	76.0
Facebook. WhatsApp. Instagram	1	.2	.4	76.4
facebook. xing. homepages	1	.2	.4	76.8
facebook. newspaper-apps (zb kurier online)	1	.2	.4	77.2
Facebook. Newspaper forums	1	.2	.4	77.6
Facebook.	1	.2	.4	78.0
Facebook. Twitter	1	.2	.4	78.3
Facebook/ Twitter	1	.2	.4	78.7
Facebook/Twitter	1	.2	.4	79.1
fb	1	.2	.4	79.5
FB etc.	1	.2	.4	79.9
Fb goggle	1	.2	.4	80.3
Fb pages of Standard. Presse etc.	1	.2	.4	80.7

FB and Insta of: standard. orf. ard. zdf. arte. zeit ...	1	.2	.4	81.1
FB. Twitter	1	.2	.4	81.5
FB. whatsApp	1	.2	.4	81.9
foren. fb	1	.2	.4	82.3
google	1	.2	.4	82.7
Mobile	1	.2	.4	83.1
Mobile..Orf... Facebook Postings...	1	.2	.4	83.5
Heute. Österreich. Standard. Kurier. Krone	1	.2	.4	83.9
Websites	1	.2	.4	84.3
Websites of div parties. Social media apperance on FB	1	.2	.4	84.6
instagram	1	.2	.4	85.0
Instagram	1	.2	.4	85.4
instagram (story der politiker+ von tagesNewspapers standard and presse)	1	.2	.4	85.8
none	1	.2	.4	86.2
Kurier. Krone	1	.2	.4	86.6
LinkedIn. Xing.	1	.2	.4	87.0
online newspaper. Social media	1	.2	.4	87.4
Online Newspapers. Facebook. Instagram	1	.2	.4	87.8
Online services	1	.2	.4	88.2
onlineNewspapers. facebook	1	.2	.4	88.6
ORF	1	.2	.4	89.0
ORF App. Facebook	1	.2	.4	89.4
ORF. Der Standard	1	.2	.4	89.8
ORF. At. fb	1	.2	.4	90.2
ORF.at standard	1	.2	.4	90.6
Radio. Newspaper	1	.2	.4	90.9
Social Media	1	.2	.4	91.3
Standard. ö1 journal. im Zentrum. heute Show. die Presse	1	.2	.4	91.7
TV	1	.2	.4	92.1

	TV Newspaper usw.	1	.2	.4	92.5
	TV. Newspapers	1	.2	.4	92.9
	Twitter Facebook	1	.2	.4	93.3
	twitter. div. homepages.	1	.2	.4	93.7
	twitter. facebook.	1	.2	.4	94.1
	twitter. facebook. tumblr	1	.2	.4	94.5
	Twitter. Google+. Instagram	1	.2	.4	94.9
	Twitter. Instagram	1	.2	.4	95.3
	Twitter.Facebook	1	.2	.4	95.7
	utube	1	.2	.4	96.1
	differnet	1	.2	.4	96.5
	Different	1	.2	.4	96.9
	XING. Facebook	1	.2	.4	97.2
	xing. linked in	1	.2	.4	97.6
	XING. LinkedIn.	1	.2	.4	98.0
	XING. LinkedIn. Twitter	1	.2	.4	98.4
	You Tube. orf news	1	.2	.4	98.8
	Zeit im Bild online on facebook	1	.2	.4	99.2
	Newspaper. Facebook	1	.2	.4	99.6
	Newspaper.PC	1	.2	.4	100.0
	Total	254	56.7	100.0	
Missing		194	43.3		
	Total	448	100.0		

@8.How often do you use TV to find out about politics?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Valid	several times a week	135	30.1	38.9	38.9
	one a day	95	21.2	27.4	66.3
	several times a day	39	8.7	11.2	77.5
	several times a month	32	7.1	9.2	86.7
	once a week	28	6.3	8.1	94.8
	once a month	15	3.3	4.3	99.1
	annually	3	.7	.9	100.0
	Total	347	77.5	100.0	
Missing	-99	101	22.5		
	Total	448	100.0		

@9. How often do you use radio to find out about politics?

		Frequency	percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Valid	several times a day	113	25.2	38.7	38.7
	several times a week	83	18.5	28.4	67.1
	one a day	59	13.2	20.2	87.3
	once a week	18	4.0	6.2	93.5
	several times a month	15	3.3	5.1	98.6
	once a month	3	.7	1.0	99.7
	annually	1	.2	.3	100.0
	Total	292	65.2	100.0	
Missing	-99	156	34.8		
	Total	448	100.0		

@10. How often do you use the Newspapers to find out about politics?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Valid	one a day	125	27.9	36.1	36.1
	several times a week	95	21.2	27.5	63.6
	several times a day	40	8.9	11.6	75.1
	once a week	35	7.8	10.1	85.3
	several times a month	32	7.1	9.2	94.5
	once a month	15	3.3	4.3	98.8
	annually	4	.9	1.2	100.0
	Total	346	77.2	100.0	
Missing	-99	102	22.8		
	Total	448	100.0		

@11. How often do you use Social Media to find out about politics?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Valid	several times a day	102	22.8	40.0	40.0
	several times a week	67	15.0	26.3	66.3
	one a day	49	10.9	19.2	85.5
	several times a month	15	3.3	5.9	91.4
	once a week	14	3.1	5.5	96.9
	once a month	6	1.3	2.4	99.2
	annually	2	.4	.8	100.0
	Total	255	56.9	100.0	
Missing	-99	193	43.1		
	Total	448	100.0		

@12. How often do you use Youtube to find out about politics?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Valid	several times a week	5	1.1	27.8	27.8
	once a month	3	.7	16.7	44.4
	several times a month	3	.7	16.7	61.1
	several times a day	3	.7	16.7	77.8
	once a week	2	.4	11.1	88.9
	one a day	2	.4	11.1	100.0
	Total	18	4.0	100.0	
Missing	-99	430	96.0		
	Total	448	100.0		

@13. How often do you use party events to find out about politics?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Valid	once a month	13	2.9	32.5	32.5
	several times a month	13	2.9	32.5	65.0
	annually	10	2.2	25.0	90.0
	once a week	2	.4	5.0	95.0
	several times a week	1	.2	2.5	97.5
	one a day	1	.2	2.5	100.0
	Total	40	8.9	100.0	
Missing	-99	408	91.1		
	Total	448	100.0		

@14. How often do you use personal conversations to find out about politics?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Valid	several times a week	58	12.9	33.5	33.5
	several times a month	39	8.7	22.5	56.1
	once a month	22	4.9	12.7	68.8
	once a week	22	4.9	12.7	81.5
	several times a day	20	4.5	11.6	93.1
	one a day	10	2.2	5.8	98.8
	annually	2	.4	1.2	100.0
	Total	173	38.6	100.0	
Missing	-99	275	61.4		
	Total	448	100.0		

@18.Which party do you most identify with?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Valid	SPÖ	143	31.9	34.2	34.2
	ÖVP	101	22.5	24.2	58.4
	NEOS	76	17.0	18.2	76.6
	The Greens	75	16.7	17.9	94.5
	FPÖ	23	5.1	5.5	100.0
	Total	418	93.3	100.0	
Missing		30	6.7		
	Total	448	100.0		

Group

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Valid	CG	228	50.9	50.9	50.9
	EG	220	49.1	49.1	100.0
	Total	448	100.0	100.0	

(CG=control group. EG=expertimental group)

Median and standard deviation:

Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Standard deviation
@4.WiealtsindSie	422	18	77	41.46	12.710
Valid Values (list method)	422				

Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Standard deviation
@9.WieoftnutzenSiedasRadioumsichüberPolitikzuinformi	292	1	7	5.77	1.258
@11.WieoftnutzenSiesozialeMedienumsichüberPolitikzui	255	1	7	5.72	1.383
@10.WieoftnutzenSiedieZeitungumsichüberPolitikzuinfo	346	1	7	5.13	1.363
@8.WieoftnutzenSieTVumsichüberPolitikzuinformieren	347	1	7	5.07	1.304
@12.WieoftnutzenSieYoutubeumsichüberPolitikzuinformie	18	2	7	4.50	1.724
@14.WieoftnutzenSiepersönlicheGesprächeumsichüberPolit	173	1	7	4.28	1.542
@13.WieoftnutzenSieParteiveranstaltungenumsichüberPolit	40	1	6	2.35	1.145
Valid Values (list method)	2				

Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Standard deviation
Ichbinbesorgt	448	1	7	2.96	1.660
Ichbinentspannt_umgepolt	448	1	7	2.69	1.519
Ichfühlemichangespannt	448	1	7	2.68	1.667
Ichbinzufrieden_umgepolt	448	1	7	2.64	1.495
Ichbinruhig_umgepolt	448	1	7	2.61	1.500
Ichbinaufgeregt	448	1	7	2.14	1.418
Valid Values (list method)	448				

Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Standard deviation
InmeinemFreandeskreisfühle ichmichwohl	448	1	7	6.35	.972
Allesinallemerwarteichdassm irmehrgutealsschlechteDin	448	1	7	5.59	1.580
MeineZukunftseheichimmero ptimistisch	448	1	7	5.28	1.427
AuchinungewissenZeitenerw arteichnormalerweisedasBes te	448	1	7	4.99	1.499
IchbinnotallzuleichtausderFa ssungzubringen	448	1	7	4.75	1.778
Esfälltmirleichtmichzuentspa nnen	448	1	7	4.70	1.640
Esistwichtigfürmichständigbe schäftigtzusein	448	1	7	4.39	1.852
Wennbeimiretwasschieflaufe nkanndanntutesdasauch	448	1	7	3.00	1.679
Ichzähleseltendaraufdassmir etwasGuteswiderfährt	448	1	7	2.71	1.756
FastnieentwickelnsichdieDin genachmeinenVorstellungen	448	1	7	2.45	1.442
Valid Values (list method)	448				

Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Standard deviation
DieKlimakrisehatauchunserLandunsereGletschergetroffen	448	1	7	5.69	1.566
KindererziehungmusseinenvielhöherenfinanziellenValuesrhal	448	1	7	5.53	1.501
SiedieTürkeisindeinfachkeinKandidatfürdieMitgliedsch	448	1	7	5.20	1.817
DieTürkeihatkeinenPlatzinderEU.SebastianKurzÖVP	448	1	7	5.12	1.843
DiejenigendieEuropaliebenmüssendieWeiterentwicklungder	448	1	7	4.81	1.675
Valid Values (list method)	448				

Recalculated variables:

Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Standard deviation
STAI_Total	448	1.00	7.00	2.6209	1.18380
Valid Values (list method)	448				

Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Standard deviation
Optimism_Total	448	1.00	7.00	5.2879	1.19892
Pessimism_Total	448	1.00	7.00	2.7225	1.24487
Valid Values (list method)	448				

Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Standard deviation
Political interest	448	.00	44.00	16.9464	8.12166
Valid Values (list method)	448				

Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Standard deviation
LOT_Total	448	1.00	7.00	5.2827	1.06642
Valid Values (list method)	448				

Tables correlation:

Hypothesis 1 and 2 (Experimental group)

			Optimism_ Total	Pessimism_ Total	@18.Whichp artydoyoumst indentifywith?
Spearman-Rho	Optimism_Total	Correlation coefficient	1.000	-.442**	.017
		Sig. (two-sided)	.	.000	.814
		N	220	220	205
	Pessimism_Total	Correlation coefficient	-.442**	1.000	-.090
		Sig. (two-sided)	.000	.	.200
		N	220	220	205
	@18.WelcherParteifühl enSiesichamehestenzu geordnet	Correlation coefficient	.017	-.090	1.000
		Sig. (two-sided)	.814	.200	.
		N	205	205	205
	SiedieTürkeisindeinfac hkeinKandidatfürdieMit gliedsch	Correlation coefficient	.068	-.087	.219**
		Sig. (two-sided)	.317	.197	.002
		N	220	220	205
	Kindererziehungmussei nenvielhöherenfinanziel lenValuesrhal	Correlation coefficient	.169*	.015	.224**
		Sig. (two-sided)	.012	.821	.001
		N	220	220	205
	DieKlimakrisehatauchu nserLandunsereGletsc hergetroffen	Correlation coefficient	-.076	.017	-.252**
		Sig. (two-sided)	.265	.805	.000
		N	220	220	205
	DiejenigendieEuropalie benmüssendieWeiteren twicklungder	Correlation coefficient	.118	-.028	.009
		Sig. (two-sided)	.080	.675	.901

			220	220	205
DieTürkeihatkeinenPlat zinderEU.SebastianKur zÖVP	Correlation coefficient		.014	-.027	.329**
	Sig. (two-sided)		.831	.695	.000
	N		220	220	205

Controlgroup: (without the names of the politicians):

			Optimism_ Total	Pessimism_T otal	@18. Whichpartydo youmstindent ifywith?
Spearman-Rho	Optimism_Total	Correlation coefficient	1.000	-.468**	.126
		Sig. (two-sided)	.	.000	.066
		N	228	228	213
	Pessimism_Total	Correlation coefficient	-.468**	1.000	-.040
		Sig. (two-sided)	.000	.	.562
		N	228	228	213
	@18. Whichpartydoyoumstin dentifywith?	Correlation coefficient	.126	-.040	1.000
		Sig. (two-sided)	.066	.562	.
		N	213	213	213
	SiedieTürkeisindeinfac hkeinKandidatfürdieMit gliedsch	Correlation coefficient	.061	-.004	.226**
		Sig. (two-sided)	.360	.950	.001
		N	228	228	213
	Kindererziehungmussei nenvielhöherenfinanziel lenValuesrhal	Correlation coefficient	.012	.077	-.129
		Sig. (two-sided)	.851	.245	.061
		N	228	228	213
	DieKlimakrisehatauchu nserLandunsereGletsc hergetroffen	Correlation coefficient	.015	.074	-.055
		Sig. (two-sided)	.820	.267	.422
		N	228	228	213
	DiejenigendieEuropalie benmüssendieWeiteren twicklungder	Correlation coefficient	.140*	.107	.080
		Sig. (two-sided)	.035	.108	.244

		228	228	213
DieTürkeihatkeinenPlat zinderEU.SebastianKur zÖVP	Correlation coefficient	.082	-.059	.262**
	Sig. (two-sided)	.220	.379	.000
	N	228	228	213

Hypotheses 3 (Experimental group):

		PolitischesInteresse	LOT_Total
PolitischesInteresse	Correlation according to Pearson	1	-.029
	Significance (two-sided)		.674
	N	220	220
LOT_Total	Correlation according to Pearson	-.029	1
	Significance (two-sided)	.674	
	N	220	220
SiedieTürkeisindeinfachkeinKandidatfürdieMitgliedsch	Correlation according to Pearson	.111	.018
	Significance (two-sided)	.100	.790
	N	220	220
KindererziehungmusseinenvielhöherenfinanziellenValuesrhal	Correlation according to Pearson	-.096	.075
	Significance (two-sided)	.154	.270
	N	220	220
DieKlimakrisehatauchunserLandunsereGletschergetroffen	Correlation according to Pearson	.180**	-.054
	Significance (two-sided)	.007	.428
	N	220	220
DiejenigendieEuropaliebenmüssendieWeiterentwicklungder	Correlation according to Pearson	.223**	.071
	Significance (two-sided)	.001	.293
	N	220	220
DieTürkeihatkeinenPlatzinderEU. SebastianKurzÖVP	Correlation according to Pearson	.025	-.027
	Significance (two-sided)	.716	.689
	N	220	220

Controlgroup:

		Political interest	LOT_Total
Political Interest	Correlation according to Pearson	1	.033
	Significance (two-sided)		.625
	N	228	228
LOT_Total	Correlation according to Pearson	.033	1
	Significance (two-sided)	.625	
	N	228	228
SiedieTürkeisindeinfachkeinKandidatfürdieMitgliedsch	Correlation according to Pearson	.062	.021
	Significance (two-sided)	.348	.747
	N	228	228
KindererziehungmusseinenvielhöherenfinanziellenValuesrhal	Correlation according to Pearson	.042	-.034
	Significance (two-sided)	.528	.608
	N	228	228
DieKlimakrisehatauchunserLandunsereGletschergetroffen	Correlation according to Pearson	.230**	-.012
	Significance (two-sided)	.000	.853
	N	228	228
DiejenigendieEuropaliebenmüssendieWeiterentwicklungder	Correlation according to Pearson	.019	.000
	Significance (two-sided)	.781	.998
	N	228	228
DieTürkeihatkeinenPlatzinderEU. SebastianKurzÖVP	Correlation according to Pearson	.074	.071
	Significance (two-sided)	.267	.283
	N	228	228

TABELLE t-test

Hypotheses 4:

Tests auf Normalverteilung

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistics	df	Significance	Statistics	df	Significance
SiedieTürkeisindeinfachkein KandidatfürdieMitgliedsch	.190	448	.000	.859	448	.000
Kindererziehungmusseinenvi elhöherenfinanziellenValuesr hal	.201	448	.000	.850	448	.000
DieKlimakrisehatauchunserL andunsereGletschergetroffe n	.241	448	.000	.795	448	.000
DiejenigendieEuropaliebenm üssendieWeiterentwicklungd er	.133	448	.000	.921	448	.000
DieTürkeihatkeinenPlatzinde rEU.SebastianKurzÖVP	.193	448	.000	.867	448	.000
Group	.346	448	.000	.636	448	.000

a. Significancecorrection according to Lilliefors

Group Statistics

	Group	N	Median	Standard deviation	Standard errors of the median
SiedieTürkeisindeinfachkeinKan didatfürdieMitgliedsch	EG	220	5.43	1.619	.109
	CG	228	4.98	1.968	.130
Kindererziehungmusseinenvielhö herenfinanziellenValuesrhal	EG	220	5.50	1.482	.100
	CG	228	5.56	1.523	.101
DieKlimakrisehatauchunserLand unsereGletschergetroffen	EG	220	5.68	1.576	.106
	CG	228	5.70	1.560	.103
DiejenigendieEuropaliebenmüss endieWeiterentwicklungder	EG	220	5.05	1.537	.104
	CG	228	4.57	1.771	.117
DieTürkeihatkeinenPlatzinderEU. SebastianKurzÖVP	EG	220	5.08	1.871	.126
	CG	228	5.15	1.819	.120

Test with independent samples

		Levene-Test (the variance equality)		T-Test for the mean value equivalence						
		F	Significance	T	df	Sig. (two-sided)	Mean difference	Standard error of difference	95% Confidence interval of the difference	
									lower	upper
SiedieTürkeis indeinfachkei nKandidatfürd ieMitgliedsch	Variances are equal	13,718	,000	2,660	446	,008	,454	,171	,119	,789
	Variances are not equal			2,669	435,205	,008	,454	,170	,120	,788
Kindererziehu ngmusseinen vielhöherenfin anziellenWert erhal	Variances are equal	,000	,984	-,401	446	,688	-,057	,142	-,336	,222
	Variances are not equal			-,402	445,966	,688	-,057	,142	-,336	,222
DieKlimakrise hatauchunser LandunsereG letschergetrof fen	Variances are equal	,657	,418	-,105	446	,916	-,016	,148	-,307	,276
	Variances are not equal			-,105	445,055	,916	-,016	,148	-,307	,276
Diejenigendie Europalieben müssendieW eiterentwicklu ngder	Variances are equal	6,255	,013	3,001	446	,003	,471	,157	,163	,779
	Variances are not equal			3,009	441,140	,003	,471	,157	,163	,778
DieTürkeihatk einenPlatzind erEU.Sebasti anKurzÖVP	Variances are equal	,043	,836	-,386	446	,700	-,067	,174	-,410	,275
	Variances are not equal			-,386	444,181	,700	-,067	,174	-,410	,275

10.4. <u>Abstract</u>

Celebrity politics is more than just fashion, as a 2005 global Gallup survey showed, with only 13 percent saying they trust politicians. As emotions have received little attention in the research on source credibility and political branding to date, this paper will examine how relevant candidates are to political content and how they affect emotions in political opinion-forming.

The assumption was made that knowledge of the source can reinforce positive and negative emotions (Waheed & Chung, 2016; Druckman 2001; Miller & Krosnick, 2000). To this end, five statements by top politicians were randomly assigned to subjects and a control group by means of experimental questionnaires.

The present study found a significant influence of the source on the evaluation of political content. In addition, it was shown that the party positions can be reduced to two dimensions. However, in none of the experimental groups was there a discernible correlation between the total value of emotions and political interest.

For more in-depth research, a different research design might be considered in order to be able to analyse the range of emotions more precisely, since these are often regarded as suspect and problematic with regard to their intensity, dynamics and variability and linearity (Fiehler, 1990).

Keywords: source credibility, political branding, emotions, political opinion-forming

10.5. <u>Abstract (German)</u>

Promi-Politik ist mehr als nur Mode, wie eine 2005 weltweit durchgeführte Gallup Umfrage ergeben hat, bei der nur 13 Prozent angaben, dass sie Politikern vertrauen. Da Emotionen im bisherigen Stand der Forschung zu Quellenglaubwürdigkeit und political branding nur wenig Beachtung zugesprochen wurde, soll in dieser Arbeit untersucht werden, wie relevant eingesetzte Kandidaten gegenüber politischen Inhalten sind und wie sich diese auf Emotionen in der politischen Meinungsbildung auswirken.

Es wurde von der Annahme ausgegangen, dass die Kenntnis der Quelle positive und negative Emotionen verstärken kann (Waheed & Chung, 2016; Druckman 2001; Miller & Krosnick, 2000). Dazu wurden fünf Stellungnahmen von Spitzenpolitikern nach dem Zufallsprinzip mittels experimentellen Fragebogens Probanden und einer Kontrollgruppe zugewiesen.

Dabei konnte vorliegende Arbeit einen signifikanten Einfluss der Quelle auf die Bewertung von politischen Inhalten feststellen. Außerdem zeigte sich, dass sich die Parteipositionen auf zwei Dimensionen zurückführen lassen. Allerdings wurde bei keiner der Versuchsgruppen ein erkennbarer Zusammenhang zwischen dem Gesamtwert der Emotionen und dem politischen Interesse festgestellt.

Für tiefergreifende Forschungen wäre anzudenken ein anderes Untersuchungsdesign zu wählen, um den Bereich der Emotionen genauer analysieren zu können, da diese hinsichtlich ihrer Intensität, Dynamik und Variabilität und der Linearität oft als suspekt und problematisch angesehen werden (Fiehler, 1990).

Schlagwörter: Quellenglaubwürdigkeit, Political Branding, Emotionen, politische Meinungsbildung