

University of Mississippi

eGrove

Electronic Theses and Dissertations

Graduate School

1-1-2021

Investigating the Boundary Conditions of the Fresh Start Effect

Jennifer Locander

University of Mississippi

Follow this and additional works at: <https://egrove.olemiss.edu/etd>

Recommended Citation

Locander, Jennifer, "Investigating the Boundary Conditions of the Fresh Start Effect" (2021). *Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. 2026.

<https://egrove.olemiss.edu/etd/2026>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at eGrove. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of eGrove. For more information, please contact egrove@olemiss.edu.

INVESTIGATING THE BOUNDARY CONDITIONS OF THE FRESH START EFFECT

A Dissertation

presented in partial fulfillment of requirements

for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in the Department of Marketing

The University of Mississippi

by

JENNIFER A. LOCANDER

May 2021

Copyright © 2021 by Jennifer A. Locander
ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

ABSTRACT

The study of motivation and goal pursuit has long been of interest to various academic disciplines. Recent efforts have considered how time affects motivation and aspirational behavior. The Fresh Start Effect describes the phenomenon whereby people naturally feel more motivated to pursue goals following temporal landmarks (e.g., on Mondays). This dissertation examines a potential boundary condition of the Fresh Start Effect: the person who chooses the goal start date. The findings from six studies reveal that when goal start dates are self-chosen, motivation to pursue goals is influenced by temporal landmarks (i.e., motivation is greater on Monday). When goal start dates are chosen by external agents, motivation to achieve goals is not affected by temporal landmarks. These findings suggest that the Fresh Start Effect only holds when goal start dates are self-chosen.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving parents, Jan and Bill Locander, for without their unwavering support and encouragement, none of this would be possible. To my father, for your continuous words of wisdom and guidance. To my mother, for your unconditional love, patience, and friendship.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First, I would like to thank Dr. Melissa Cinelli for serving as my dissertation Chair. I first met Melissa at a department brown bag research presentation in the first year of my doctoral program, and I fondly remember being slightly terrified of her, as she spoke her mind and asked extremely difficult (although valid) questions about the research being presented. As I progressed through the program, I realized that her questions during these presentations were not intimidating, but instead were extremely helpful. Whenever she asked a question, I listened intently, as I knew that she would be raising legitimate concerns or offering excellent advice for improving the presenter's research. I found myself looking forward to her questions during these presentations because they were insightful and helped me view things from a different perspective. Over the past two years, she has been extremely patient, compassionate, and has dedicated substantial time to help me get where I am today. I cannot thank her enough for all of the work she has done and for keeping me on my toes throughout this process. Next, I would like to thank the other members of my dissertation committee for their guidance and for helping me through this journey. Thank you, Dr. Victoria Bush, Dr. Barry Babin, Dr. Matthew Shaner, and Dr. John Bentley. Finally, I would like to thank the doctoral students in my cohort for making this experience memorable and for their support over the past five years. Thank you, Ashley Morgan, Ashley Thomas, Siddik Bozkurt, and Jaime Williams.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
II. MOTIVATION.....	3
III. TIME.....	7
IV. FRESH START EFFECT.....	11
Fresh Start Mindset.....	12
Temporal Landmarks.....	13
Mental Accounting.....	15
Moderators of the Fresh Start Effect.....	18
V. SELF AND GOALS.....	23
Self-Determination Theory.....	24

Goal Commitment.....	27
Goal Source.....	28
VI. HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT.....	31
VII. OVERVIEW OF STUDIES.....	39
VIII. PRETESTS.....	40
Pretests 1-2.....	40
Pretest 3.....	43
IX. STUDY 1.....	49
Study 1 Results.....	51
Study 1 Discussion.....	54
X. STUDY 2.....	55
Study 2 Results.....	56
Study 2 Discussion.....	58
XI. STUDY 3.....	59
Study 3 Results.....	61
Study 3 Discussion.....	64

XII. STUDY 4.....	65
Study 4 Results.....	67
Study 4 Discussion.....	70
XIII. STUDY 5.....	71
Study 5 Results.....	73
Study 5 Discussion.....	74
XIV. STUDY 6.....	76
Study 6 Results.....	79
Study 6 Discussion.....	81
XV. GENERAL DISCUSSION.....	83
Theoretical Contributions.....	84
Managerial Implications.....	86
Limitations and Future Research.....	87
LIST OF REFERENCES.....	90
LIST OF APPENDICES.....	112
Appendix A: Online Fitness Challenge Examples.....	113

Appendix B: Study 1 Stimuli.....	115
Appendix C: Study 6 Stimuli.....	117
Appendix D: Scale Items.....	119
VITA.....	121

LIST OF TABLES

1. Pretest 1 Goals Means.....	41
2. Pretest 1 T-Test Results.....	41
3. Pretest 2 Goal Means.....	42
4. Pretest 2 T-Test Results.....	43
5. Pretest 3 Independent Variables.....	45
6. Pretest 3 Regression Results.....	47
7. Ways to Achieve Goal	50
8. Study 1 Frequencies of Chosen Dates.....	52
9. Study 2 Regression Results	57
10. Study 3 Frequencies of Chosen Dates	62
11. Study 4 Frequencies of Chosen Dates	68
12. Study 5 Frequencies of Chosen Dates	73

LIST OF FIGURES

1. Pretest 3 Google Trends Plot for Saving Money.....	45
2. Study 1 Conceptual Model.....	49
3. Study 1 Results Chart.....	53
4. Study 2 Google Search Interest Plot.....	58
5. Study 3 Results Chart.....	64
6. Study 4 Results Chart for Participate Conditions.....	69
7. Study 4 Results Chart for Imagine Conditions.....	70
8. Study 5 Conceptual Model.....	71
9. Weekly Step Data Documentation Example.....	79
10. Study 6 Pre-Study Results Chart.....	80
11. Study 6 Post-Study Results Chart.....	81

I. INTRODUCTION

Historically, the study of human motivation has sought to understand *why* we do what we do (McClelland, 1985; Hunt, 1993), but recent research focuses on understanding *when* we do what we do (Dai, Milkman, & Riis, 2014; Hennecke & Converse, 2017; Davydenko & Peetz, 2019). The Fresh Start Effect (FSE) describes the phenomenon where people naturally feel more motivated to pursue goals at certain points in time (Dai et al., 2014). For example, people feel more motivated to make positive changes in their lives at the beginning of the year (i.e., New Year's Resolutions) or at the beginning of the week (e.g., I am starting a new diet on Monday). These specific points in time, termed temporal landmarks, represent new beginnings that inspire people to pursue their goals and become better versions of themselves (Dai et al., 2014).

Following temporal landmarks, people are more motivated to start back at the gym, reduce expenditures, or begin a new diet (Dai, Milkman, & Riis, 2015). However, there are often situations where people cannot choose their own start date in goal pursuit. For example, people who pursue higher education cannot choose their start date and must adhere to the schedules dictated by Colleges and Universities. Additionally, people sign up for, and participate in, various online challenges that have specific start and end dates. Existing research on the Fresh Start Effect does not account for these situations – situations where people do not have the latitude to choose when they begin pursuing their goal. Consequently, this dissertation focuses on whether the person choosing the goal start date (i.e., self vs. other) influences the Fresh Start

Effect and how these two factors affect goal commitment.

To address these questions, I start by discussing and reviewing relevant literature on motivation, time, and the Fresh Start Effect. Next, I identify important boundary conditions of the Fresh Start Effect and empirically examine two components of Self-Determination Theory (i.e., autonomy and self-efficacy) as explanations for these effects. I then present results from three empirical pretests and six studies. Finally, I discuss limitations of these studies and offer avenues for future research in this area. This research contributes to our understanding of the Fresh Start Effect by highlighting an important boundary condition—who chooses the goal start date, provides important insights for consumer well-being and managerial decision-making, and offers promising avenues for future research.

II. MOTIVATION

One of the richest literatures in the numerous fields studying human behavior focuses on motivation. Whether it is changing from one brand to another, voting for a certain political candidate, or selecting a life partner, the construct of motivation is central to explaining human behavior (Hunt, 1993). Motivation is generally accepted as a driving force behind human behavior that enables us to satisfy our needs. Pioneers of behaviorism, including B. F. Skinner (1953), focused on goal directedness as an external incentive that facilitates learning. Skinner's experiments on operant conditioning used rats and reinforcement techniques to emphasize the relationship between organism and incentive (i.e., food). The cognitive school offered a different view of human learning and motivation (e.g., Bandura, 1989; Mischel, 1973). Mental processes took the spotlight with cognitive psychologists, such as Abelson, Aronson, and McGuire, and focused on topics like self and cognitive consistency, modes of conflict resolution, information integration and processing, cognitive dissonance, and the role of motivation in cognition (Abelson, Aronson, McGuire, Newcomb, Rosenberg, & Tannenbaum, 1968). Cognitive psychologists viewed motives as incentives that are attractive to a person (e.g., achievement, power, affiliation, and intimacy; Bargh et al., 2010), whereas neo-behaviorist psychologists Hull (1952) and Spence (1956) devoted much of their work to understanding conditioning, learning, and motivation. In their view, motivation was influenced by the desirability of a particular outcome and the probability of goal attainment.

Motivation manifests in using one's energies to achieve (e.g., approach) or avoid some future state or outcome with respect to objects, events, or relationships, and may be the result of an unmet need (Lewin, 1951). Human needs take various forms, some of which are basic to survival (Maslow, 1943). Beyond physiological needs (e.g., food, water), psychologists have identified more socially based needs that go beyond minimal physical requirements (Greenberg, Schmader, Arndt, & Landau, 2015). Substantial empirical research addresses a wide range of human needs, including need for achievement (Murray, 1938), conformity (Asch, 1955; Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004), and interpersonal attraction (Newcomb, 1956; Lott & Lott, 1965) to name a few. Goals, or desired end states, are what people strive for to satisfy certain needs, and goal pursuit pertains to the way these needs get satisfied (Lewin, 1951; Moskowitz & Grant, 2009).

Historically, these researchers raised important issues and stimulated a wide breadth of scientific inquiries in psychology, social psychology, education, and business. Today, motivation research targets the determinants of, and processes associated with, goal setting, goal framing, and the complexities of goal attainment (Dweck, 1996; Bargh et al., 2010). Social psychologists use the term "motivation" to describe the process that initiates, guides, and sustains goal-oriented behaviors (Bargh, Gollwitzer, & Oettingen, 2010). The inquiry into goals as internal and subjective processes, the conscious activation of goals, and factors that promote or inhibit goal striving are critical aspects of modern motivation research (Moskowitz & Grant, 2009).

Goals can take many forms - those that have clearly defined beginning and end states and are more concrete (e.g., earning an A in my statistics class), and those that are more abstract and represent ongoing motivational states without a definite end point (e.g., saving money, losing weight; Toure-Tillery & Fishbach, 2014; Hennecke & Converse, 2017). Regardless of the goal

specificity, goal pursuit entails the planning of action and initiation of some behavior (Kanfer, 2012). Gollwitzer (1990) specifies the course of action as “a temporal, horizontal path starting with a person’s desires and ending with an evaluation of the achieved action outcome” (p. 53). The various stages inherent in goal setting and goal striving are explained by the Rubicon model of action phases (Heckhausen, 1977; Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987) and provide a temporal perspective of the goal pursuit process by considering four distinct and sequential phases: 1) the predecisional phase, 2) the postdecisional/preactional phase, 3) the actional phase, and 4) the postactional phase.

During the predecisional phase, a person considers the desirability and feasibility of a given outcome. If desirability and feasibility are high, a further push is needed to transition from a mere wish to a goal intention. The transitional state is commonly referred to as *crossing the Rubicon*, as it symbolizes a shift from contemplation to a sense of commitment (Gollwitzer, 1990). Once the intention to pursue some goal is created, a person begins planning in the preactional phase and decides when, where, how, and how long to act in order to attain their desired goal (Taylor & Wilson, 2016; Milyavskaya & Werner, 2018). During this stage, committing oneself to plan and pursue the goal constitutes behavioral intentions (Gollwitzer, 1990).

The actional phase then consists of executing the developed plans and engaging in the activities required to achieve the desired goal. During this stage, the volitional strength of a person’s intentions (e.g., strength of a person’s goal commitment) determines whether actions are taken to pursue the desired outcome, and an end result is reached—either successful goal attainment or failure to reach the desired end state. In the postactional phase, a person evaluates the success or failure of the goal pursuit process and determines how the actual value of the end

goal compares to the expected value. Three situations may arise in this comparison: 1) the actual value of attaining the goal exceeds the expected value, 2) the actual value and expected value are equal, or 3) the actual value of attaining the goal falls short of expectations. Postactional evaluation provides useful information to guide future contemplation and planning. While each of these phases plays an important role in goal pursuit, the preactional phase is particularly important for the Fresh Start Effect, as it concerns the timing of when a person initiates action to achieve desired outcomes.

III. TIME

While some of the early work in psychology considered the influence of context on attitudes, behaviors, and life choices, more recent research emphasizes the importance of understanding context (Zhou & Hey, 2018). Modern cognitive science attempts to understand the mind and specific contextual influences through acknowledging that human beings are not solitary thinkers—they are subject to social stimuli which affect who they are, what they do, and how they think (Zerubavel, 1981; 1997). One contextual factor that affects these issues is the influence of time on a person's life. Time affects every dimension of our lives, and all beings act in accordance with rhythmic patterns (Adam, 1990; Bender & Wellbery, 1991; Luckmann, 1991; Roenneberg, 2012; Tana, Eirola, & Eriksson-Backa, 2019).

One of the fundamental parameters of time is regularity and the existence of temporal patterns (Zerubavel, 1981). Any situation or event can be described by its sequential structure, its duration, its temporal location, and its rate of occurrence (Zerubavel, 1981). Temporal patterns also take many forms, including physiotemporal patterns, biotemporal patterns, and sociotemporal patterns (Zerubavel, 1981). Physiotemporal patterns include such regularities as the time it takes a planet to revolve around the sun or the time in which the sun rises and sets on a particular day. Biotemporal patterns include regularities like the duration of pregnancy and the number of days and stages of a butterfly's life cycle. Sociotemporal patterns include regularities like career progression (e.g., from entry level to management), the order of courses at a fine

dining restaurant (e.g., from appetizers to dessert), and the sequential order of meals consumed throughout the day (e.g., from breakfast to dinner). This social construction of time creates and reinforces invisible boundaries which may constrain or inhibit future behaviors (Zerubavel, 1997). The focus of the present research concerns the social aspect of time—specifically the social cycles (e.g., day, week) that provide rhythmic structure to our daily lives, and are, for the most part, hidden from awareness (Zerubavel, 1981).

Many aspects of our daily lives are influenced by the universal phenomenon of rhythmicity or various temporal structures. Temporal structures are categorized as circadian, circaseptan, circa-monthly, and circannual. Circadian rhythms follow the rotation of the earth around its axis and are associated with a 24-hour time period, whereas seven-day time periods, or weekly clocks, constitute circaseptan rhythms (Ayers, Althouse, Johnson, Dredze, & Cohen, 2014; Reinberg, Dejudin, Smolensky, & Touitou, 2017). A circa-monthly rhythm describes the lunar orbit around the earth which occurs every thirty days, and circannual, or seasonal time-periods, exist due to the rotation of the earth around the sun (Tana et al., 2019).

Temporal patterns have been studied in various contexts, but substantial research on temporal patterns focuses on health-related behaviors and disorders (Ayers et al., 2014; Lambert & Loiselle, 2007). Research in the health and information sciences domain shows that consumer interest in health information follows temporal patterns and rhythmicity (Gabarron, Lau, & Wynn, 2015; Tana et al., 2019). Specifically, Tana and colleagues (2019) use infodemiology metrics to analyze text from a large discussion forum in Finland and find that health-related discussions follow circaseptan (i.e., weekly) and circannual (i.e., seasonal) rhythms. These temporal patterns play a prominent role in motivation and the Fresh Start Effect (Dai et al., 2014; Gabarron et al., 2015).

Historically, the concept of time has received less attention than other constructs in the motivation literature (Fried & Slowik, 2004; Locke & Latham, 2004; Sonnentag, 2012; Steel, Svartdal, Thundiyil, & Brothen, 2018). Recently, however, understanding the influence of time has garnered considerable attention (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003; Mogilner, Chance, & Norton, 2012; Rudd, Vohs, & Aaker, 2012; Etkin, Evangelidis, & Aaker, 2015). Psychologically, time “contextualizes our thoughts as they reach into the future, absorb the present, or reflect on the past, and it becomes the material of our thoughts as we anxiously manage our daily schedules” (Mogilner, Hershfield, & Aaker, 2018, p. 41). Zimbardo and Boyd (2008) introduce the concept of *Time Paradox*—the psychology of time affecting every choice we make. The authors consider time to be a force operating deep inside one’s mind—a person’s internal time zone—which is often below the level of awareness (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999).

Time constrains us through work schedules, personal appointments, when to celebrate and when not to. However, mental representations of time and the metrics used to describe various time periods (e.g., days, weeks, months) are capable of influencing motivation for monetary goals (Lewis & Oyserman, 2015; Peetz & Epstude, 2016), academic goals (Myrseth, 2009), and health-related goals (Ayers et al., 2014; Buhrau & Sujan, 2015; Welding, De Leon, Cha, Johnson, Cohen, & Graham, 2017). For example, Lewis and Oyserman (2015) find that when time metrics suggest a stronger connection to the present (e.g., days until retirement), intentions to save money are greater than when time metrics possess a weaker connection to the present (e.g., years until retirement). When time considerations enter awareness, recognizing and managing time creates opportunities for self-improvement efforts. Thus, if individuals can understand the influence of time on their lives, they may be able to manage their time more effectively and make it a motivating force to accomplish goals (Dai, 2018).

IV. FRESH START EFFECT

Historically, the locus of attention in marketing has shifted from one of influencing customer's behaviors by offering pre-packaged pleasures (e.g., rolled tobacco cigarettes, junk foods) to that of tailoring products and services to meet individual needs (Cross & Proctor, 2014). Marketers' attention has broadened over time to include consumers' desire to make changes in their lives and to create their own preferred future (e.g., quit smoking, eating healthier foods; Price, Coulter, Strizhakara, & Schultz, 2018). While such individual transformative efforts are either self-imposed or in response to some external stimulus, there is a point in time where a person begins to adopt the behaviors necessary to achieve a desired future state. Transformative consumer research embraces the cultural convention that an individual's free will and determination can lead to personally set goals that, when accomplished, enhance one's life and foster a new self-identity (Price et al., 2018, Giesler & Veresiu, 2014; Sugarman, 2015). In essence, it is possible for a person to initiate a "Fresh Start" by setting self-improvement goals.

Current academic literature takes two different approaches to understanding the Fresh Start metaphor. Price et al. (2018) approach this topic by examining a "fresh start mindset" in initiating activities which will foster a new beginning. The second approach views fresh starts from a temporal landmark perspective in which important dates (e.g., generic and meaningful calendar dates) serve as reference points, motivating aspirational behavior (Dai, Milkman, & Riis, 2019). These reference points allow individuals to separate mentally imperfect past selves

from future selves through self-improvement efforts. The following sections discuss two research streams related to the Fresh Start Effect and motivation to pursue aspirational behavior: the fresh start mindset and temporal landmarks.

Fresh Start Mindset

The roots of a fresh start mindset as a concept are found in the ideology of individualism and egalitarianism where Americans with their “can do” attitude are the foundation for both systemic and personal change (Price, et al., 2018, Kammen, 1993). The fresh start mind-set is future-focused, marked by perseverance, and the ability to bounce back from difficult experiences. Price and colleagues (2018) posit that a fresh start mindset involves “leaving the past behind and focusing on building a new, positive future” (p. 26). For individuals, the tradition of using their initiative, being self-reliant, gaining self-mastery, and taking risks fosters a mindset capable of starting anew (Price et al., 2018; Sugarman, 2015; Kammen, 1993; Lipset, 1996). The fresh start mindset is defined as a person’s belief that there exists “the possibility of willful, positive, and sometimes dramatic change in the face of dire circumstances. According to this belief, you can change your circumstances and choose who you will be tomorrow, regardless of who you are today” (Price et al., 2018, p. 23).

Our rapidly changing world leaves behind the “old” as tradition and embraces a mechanism for continual self-reinvention (Weber, 2000). As traditions fade and the pace of change in society quickens, a person must change with what Bauman (2007) refers to as “liquid modernity.” Creating a new self by reinvention can be seen in everyday life with the increased popularity of body tattooing, plastic surgery, and personal trainers (Weber, 2000). In essence, with the world becoming more liquid and individuals finding more time to reinvent themselves,

the notion of a fresh start mindset takes on an important meaning by energizing personal actions in a world of new opportunities. In consumer cultures, like the United States, consumption is a major avenue to self-reinvention where brands and products take on symbolic meaning in creating, restoring, and reinforcing a new self (Belk, 1988). What was traditionally labeled “conspicuous consumption” is now taken as an expression of self in creating a new persona (Weber, 2000).

When it comes to consumptive activities, the fresh start concept may mark the start of a new self-identity but does not account for reinforcing presently held beliefs about oneself. The consumer and psychological literatures are replete with examples of products, brands, and the role of consumption in changing one’s circumstances for a new life (McCracken, 2008; Weber, 2000; Price et al., 2018). Environmental changes are providing opportunities for transformational growth for those with a fresh start mindset. Whether it be getting an online accounting degree for a working single mother or extracting an employee from a dead-end job, a fresh start mindset offers motivation and direction for transformative change in one’s life. While time is an important element in the fresh start mindset, a second approach to fresh starts puts more emphasis on the starting line and considers temporal landmarks as motivating forces of aspirational behavior (Dai et al., 2014).

Temporal Landmarks

Temporal landmarks signal a new beginning and structure our perception of time (Peetz & Wilson, 2013). Just as geographical landmarks serve as recognizable reference points when navigating physical distance, temporal landmarks are dates that “stand in marked contrast to the seemingly unending stream of trivial and ordinary occurrences” (Shum, 1998, p. 423). They

serve as transition points in time, typically based on social timetables or are based on personally meaningful events (i.e., birthdays, holidays). One prominent landmark that most people recognize as an opportunity to start fresh or engage in pursuing some form of self-improvement is New Year's Day (Marlatt & Kaplan, 1972; Norcross, Mrykalo, & Blagys, 2002). Temporal markers can also be more personal in nature, marking new experiences (e.g., a first date) or may be recurring (e.g., one's birthday; Shum, 1998). Temporal landmarks may also present as developmental milestones like a twenty-fifth wedding anniversary, or may be considered monumental, like starting a professional career after graduation (LeBoeuf, Williams, & Brenner, 2014; Dai et al., 2015).

Temporal landmarks help people focus on the bigger picture by interrupting the micro processes of day-to-day activities and placing focus on high-level, goal-relevant information (Dai et al., 2014). Higher-level thinking about one's situation tends to refocus a person's evaluations on high-level information about goals rather than being muddled in the elements of achieving the goal (e.g., time spent and effort expended; Liu, 2008; Rogers & Bazerman, 2008; Trope & Liberman, 2003). Thinking about the big picture increases motivation, guides our choices, and may ultimately lead to goal attainment (Dai et al., 2014; Liberman & Trope, 1998; Liu, 2008; Trope & Liberman, 2003). Importantly, temporal landmarks act as invisible boundaries of demarcation, representing the past, the present, and the future (Kamiol & Ross, 1996; Bartels & Rips, 2010), disrupting perception of time while providing opportunities for self-improvement through new beginnings.

Self-improvement affects many aspects of our daily lives, and individuals are continuously striving to make positive changes in their lives. Conscious efforts towards self-improvement typically involve setting, and striving for, personal goals. Personal goals include a

wide range of activities, such as exercising, reading, doing homework, asking someone out on a date, and dieting (Dai et al., 2014; Khan, Dhar, & Wertenbroch, 2005). To achieve these goals, the first step involves getting started. However, these, and other aspirational goals, are often postponed or delayed due to personal or situational circumstances. Psychologists refer to procrastination as a mode of conflict resolution which leads to inaction (Abelson et al., 1968). This inaction allows individuals to defer starting goal initiation and pursuit. Initiating action toward a goal requires substantial effort and mustering the motivation to start back at the gym, reduce expenditures, or start a new diet (Dai et al., 2015). In their research, Dai et al. (2014; 2015) examine why people naturally experience motivation to move forward and pursue a goal at certain times and not at others. To answer this question, Dai et al. (2014; 2015) adopt a mental accounting perspective to illustrate the perception of time and how one differentiates past, present, and future selves.

Mental Accounting

Thaler (1985; 1999) coined the term “mental accounting” to describe a hybrid model of cognitive psychology and microeconomics. The mental accounting model suggests that how decisions are framed (e.g., combinations of gains and losses) affects perceived value and choice (Leclerc, Schmitt, & Dube, 1995), highlighting that individuals derive more value from two separate gains than one combined gain. For example, individuals were happier when they received two segregated monetary gains of \$50 and \$25 compared to when they received a lump sum of \$75. However, as prospect theory demonstrates individuals’ aversion to loss, the opposite is true for money owed (or paid out). For example, individuals are less unhappy about paying out a lump sum of \$75 compared to paying two payments of \$50 and \$25. Thus, mental accounting

suggests that people evaluate their assets differently.

Mental accounting incorporates the psychological processing of information with lines of demarcation as inputs to cognitive processes and behaviors (i.e., financial, physical, interpersonal). The mental accounting of time involves the tracking of time through the cognitive processes of recording, analyzing, and validating the passage of time (Leclerc et al., 1995; Thaler, 1999). From a marketing perspective, the mental accounting of time has been shown to affect aspirational behavior (Kaur, Kremer, & Mullainathan, 2010; Soster, Monga, & Bearden, 2010; Dai et al., 2014), coupon redemption and rebates (Inman & McAlister, 1994; Krishna & Zhang, 1999), the cost of spending time (Zauberman & Lynch, 2005), and procrastination for time-consuming activities (Soman, 1998; O'Donoghue & Rabin, 1999; Ariely & Wertenbroch, 2002; Shu & Gneezy, 2010; Gourville & Soman, 2011; Siddiqui, May, & Monga, 2017).

Understanding the Fresh Start Effect from a mental accounting perspective involves separating time into past, present, and future (Parfit, 1984). Individuals must perceive the past as different from the present, motivating them to pursue positive change (Libby & Eibach, 2002; Wilson & Ross, 2003). Wilson et al. (2012) find that perceptions of time are highly malleable, as individuals can interpret the same point in time as near or distant depending on the context. Individuals naturally perceive temporal distance in their daily lives, but the subjective experience of time varies (Peetz & Epstude, 2016). The temporal distance between past and future points in time, as well as the duration of experiences, may be perceived differently from their equivalent objective measures (Wilson & Ross, 2001; Pennington & Roese, 2003; Sackett, Meyvis, Nelson, Converse, & Sackett, 2010). For example, the perception of time can easily be altered when people are asked to reflect upon significant chapters of their lives (Skowronski, Ritchie, Walker, Betz, Sedikides, Bethencourt, & Martin, 2007; Thomsen & Berntsen, 2008) or to anticipate

transitions or major milestones (Wilson, Buehler, Lawford, Schmidt, & Yong, 2012; Peetz & Wilson, 2013b; Eibach, Libby, & Gilovich, 2003).

Additional research has examined how the mental representation of time is affected by the framing of various denominations of future time (Davydenko & Peetz, 2019). Specifically, future time has been framed as the next *day* (Myrseth, 2009; Tu & Soman, 2014; Hennecke & Converse, 2017), the next *month* (Dai et al., 2015; Peetz & Epstude, 2016), and the next *year* (Lewis & Oyserman, 2015). Dividing time into temporal categories by the metrics used to describe it (e.g., days, months, years), by visual cues (e.g., calendar format), or by temporal landmarks (e.g., important events) facilitates the creation of new mental accounting periods, inducing people to pursue aspirational goals (Dai et al., 2014).

Opening new “mental accounts” of time alters self-evaluations, as they separate us from previous failures and allow for starting anew (Peetz, Gunn, & Wilson, 2010; Dai et al., 2015). In leaving behind these past imperfections, a person’s cognitive and affective processes stimulate goal initiation, putting a person on the path to a “new self”. Drawing a line in the sand and effectively separating past imperfections from present or future selves may boost perceived self-efficacy in attaining personal goals (Dai et al., 2015). Cognitive consistency theory would, in this case, argue that people behave consistently with respect to their self-perceptions (Cialdini, 2007, Festinger, 1957; Dai et al., 2015). Unburdened by past failures and starting anew clears the mental accounting ledger of an imperfect past self, allowing for goals to be set in accordance with a new, positive and flattering self-image (Dai et al., 2015; Dai & Li, 2019). In a series of laboratory experiments, Dai and colleagues show that temporal landmarks act to disconnect past from present, increasing one’s intention to initiate goal pursuit (Dai et al., 2015).

Although most research on the influence of temporal landmarks highlights individuals’

abilities to make positive changes in their lives, it may also have an adverse effect on motivation. Temporal landmarks may produce a comparative process that is averse to motivation (Dai & Li, 2019). If the comparative process includes looking back at past successes, it may discourage individuals who have experienced high achievement in the past (Dai, 2018). For example, in organizations, if managers adopt new incentive programs and disregard previous achievements of employees, employee motivation may suffer. Wiping the slate clean may discourage high performers but enhance motivation for lower performing employees (Dai, 2015). Likewise, context matters in the process of self-evaluation. Changing one's environment could remove cues that enhance performance and disrupt the positive stimulus-response connection that reinforces habit (Wood, Tam, & Witt, 2005; Acland, 2015; Milkman, Minson, & Volpp, 2014).

Moderators of the Fresh Start Effect

Although a relatively new phenomenon, existing research on the Fresh Start Effect has attempted to identify some of the situational and individual differences that influence this effect. Mathew (2018) considers the Fresh Start Effect through the lens of implicit theories and finds that consumer mindset plays a prominent role in this effect and in determining goal commitment. Specifically, this research examines whether having a fixed vs. growth mindset affects the Fresh Start Effect based on perceived self-efficacy. Individuals with fixed mindsets consider their personality and other individual traits to be stable and incapable of substantial change, whereas individuals with growth mindsets believe that positive change is achievable through self-improvement efforts (Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999; Murphy & Dweck, 2016). The results from this analysis show that after exposure to a fresh start

message, individuals with fixed mindsets had significant changes in their mindset (i.e., became more growth-oriented), whereas individuals with growth mindsets did not experience such changes (Mathew, 2018).

Similarly, Tu and Soman (2014) examine how task initiation in goal pursuit is influenced by the categorization of time, and this categorization affects consumer mindset. Their research focuses on how consumers utilize various cues (i.e., salience, similarity, and visual cues) to categorize future events into “like the present” or “unlike the present.” When a future event is categorized as “like the present,” consumers have a stronger implemental mindset, resulting in greater task initiation efforts (Tu & Soman, 2014). Tu and Soman (2014) also used a calendar manipulation in their studies, showing that events “like the present” occurred within the same calendar year, and events “unlike the present” occurred in the subsequent calendar year.

Corcoran and Peetz (2014) identify regulatory focus as another moderator that affects temporal comparisons of past and future selves. Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997; Scholer & Higgins, 2011) posits that the mode of goal pursuit may be promotion-focused or prevention-focused (Molden, Lee, & Higgins, 2008). When goal pursuit is based on promotion, individuals seek opportunities for, and are driven by, positive outcomes. However, when goal pursuit is based on prevention, individuals are fueled by the desire to avoid negative outcomes (Higgins & Tykocinski, 1992). Regulatory focus enhances motivation when regulatory fit exists – when the incentives of the goal match the regulatory focus of the participant (Keller & Bless, 2006; Shah, Higgins, & Friedman, 1998). Corcoran and Peetz (2014) examined regulatory fit as the parallel cognitive fit effect between regulatory focus and temporal orientation. Specifically, their findings highlight that the motivation of promotion-focused individuals increased when making future-oriented temporal comparisons (e.g., motivation increased after considering a more positive

future self). Interestingly, they did not find a significant effect between prevention-focused individuals and temporal orientation.

A fourth moderator of the Fresh Start Effect is based on the presentation of time and calendar format (Myrseth, 2009; Peetz & Wilson, 2013; Peetz & Epstude, 2016; Hennecke & Converse, 2017; Davydenko & Peetz, 2019). Myrseth (2009) examines self-control in goal pursuit based on the perceived similarities vs. differences of choice opportunities based on calendar format. Specifically, choice frames were presented as an isolated frame (i.e., using a calendar with a grid and highlighting the present date as separate from other dates) or an interrelated frame (i.e., using a calendar without a grid), and participants were asked about intentions to engage in goal-related vs. leisure-related activities (i.e., succumb to temptation). Findings from this study show that individuals exposed to isolated frames were less likely to exert self-control and engage in leisure activities, whereas participants exposed to the interrelated frames were more likely to engage in goal-related activities (Myrseth, 2009). Importantly, this study emphasized that highlighting days as unique (i.e., isolated) vs. just another day of the month (i.e., interrelated) affected motivation and behavioral intention in goal pursuit.

Peetz and Wilson (2013) examine temporal self-appraisal and motivation based on temporal landmark saliency and suggest that temporal landmarks help us construct roadmaps of future plans and goals. Supported by mental contrasting theory (Oettingen & Gollwitzer, 2009; Oettingen, Mayer, Servincer, Stephens, Pak, & Hagenah, 2009), the researchers posit that individuals organize time into chunks which are separated by salient temporal landmarks (e.g., birthdays, holidays), and these landmarks affect how we perceive ourselves and our actions over time. Temporal landmarks influence important aspects of our self-identity by providing organization of our temporal selves and signaling change or disconnection between our temporal

selves. In essence, temporal landmarks interrupt the psychological connection between our present and future selves, and the contrast between current and future states motivates us to pursue desired future selves (Peetz & Wilson, 2013b). Similarly, Wilson and colleagues (2012) show that individuals evaluate near future selves more favorably than distant future selves, as evaluations of near future selves have stronger associations to our current identity.

Hennecke and Converse (2017) examine the influence of temporal landmarks on planning and task initiation. In contrast to previous explanations of the Fresh Start Effect (e.g., temporal self-appraisals), the authors suggest that temporal boundaries influence goal representations based on construal level. Utilizing Construal Level Theory (Trope & Liberman, 2003; 2010), their research shows that goals are represented differently based on whether they contemplate initiating goal pursuit before or after temporal boundaries (Hennecke & Converse, 2017). When goals seekers consider initiating goal pursuit tomorrow (vs. distant future), they think in terms of means and constraints (vs. desirable outcomes). Idiosyncratic construals have also been linked to distorted perceptions of information (Eibach, Libby, & Gilovich, 2003) and temporal framing (LeBoeuf et al., 2014). LeBoeuf and colleagues (2014) examined how the temporal framing of experiences as *firsts* affect judgment and decision-making. A *phantom first* is defined as “a nonfirst piece of information that has been framed to seem like a first” (p. 422). Their research shows that simply framing experiences as *firsts* disproportionately influences judgment regardless of its objective value.

Davydenko & Peetz (2019) extend research on the Fresh Start Effect by examining whether presentation of calendar format affects motivation following temporal landmarks. Their research assessed whether motivation to pursue self-nominated goals differed based on two plausible ways to perceive the beginning of the week (i.e., Monday vs. Sunday). Although most

people in Western societies associate Monday as the start of the week, Sundays are often displayed in the first column of traditional calendars. The analysis showed that motivation in goal pursuit was greater on Mondays compared to Sundays, supporting the Fresh Start Effect. However, they also examined whether imposing the goal start date affected participants' motivation (i.e., between Sunday and Monday goal start days), and found that framing days as “firsts” increased motivation (Davydenko & Peetz, 2019). Collectively, research on the Fresh Start Effect assesses motivation when people have control over initiating goal pursuit and fails to consider situations when goal start days are not self-chosen. Thus, this dissertation examines a potential boundary condition of the Fresh Start Effect—goal start date selection source. Does the Fresh Start Effect only hold when start dates are chosen by goal seekers? What role does *self* play in the Fresh Start Effect?

V. SELF AND GOALS

Self-theories emanate from the nature of being an individual. Modern psychology posits that self-concept is relevant to ongoing behaviors and actively regulates behavior in a forceful manner (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Markus & Nurius, 1986). A person's self-concept represents a mirror or reflection of one's self and motivates behavior through social comparison. Individuals' creation and recreation of their self-concept is energized by some internal or external standards (James, 1950; Weber, 2000). Through self-awareness and the desire to uphold personally- and environmentally-imposed standards, individuals are fueled by motivation to achieve personal and professional goals.

Rooted in social cognitive theory, self-regulation theory posits that individuals motivate themselves and behave in anticipatory proactive ways (Bandura, 1991). The anticipatory nature of desired future states incentivizes the individual to regulate one's actions through self-monitoring, self-judgment, and self-reaction. When a discrepancy exists between an individual's current state and desired state, the individual either moves to reduce the discrepancy by taking action or applying some mode of conflict resolution (Abelson et al., 1968; Duval & Wicklund, 1972). Self-regulatory processes affect how individuals select one goal over another and include the psychological dynamics of thinking and feeling when selecting a path to achieve a desired outcome (Greenberg et al., 2015). According to Self-Determination Theory, social-contextual factors also contribute to our ability to satisfy the basic psychological needs for competence,

autonomy, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Self-Determination Theory

Developed by Deci and Ryan (1985; 1991), Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is a broad theory used to explain motivated behavior at both micro and macro levels and explains how processes and structures of rewards and other change-related factors promote or inhibit self-motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017). SDT focuses on internalization and behavioral regulation and views competence, relatedness and autonomy as three psychological needs that affect motivation and goal pursuit (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The theory identifies different types of behavioral regulation based on the degree in which the functioning is self-determined or autonomous.

Autonomy refers to “the self-endorsement of one’s behavior and the accompanying sense of volition or willingness” (Ryan & Deci, 2008, p. 186). Feelings of autonomy are associated with an internal perceived locus of causality—they take responsibility for their actions and do not perceive their actions as controlled by external factors (de Charms, 1968; Ryan & Connell, 1989). This need for autonomy refers to “people’s need to feel that they are the origins of their actions, and it encompasses the notion of choice” (Kowal & Fortier, 1999, p. 358). In other words, SDT posits that people grow and thrive when they perceive their actions and motivation as self-determined and not controlled by any external forces.

The theory further distinguishes between two forms of motivation based on the degree to which they are self-determined: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to “engaging in an activity for its own sake, because of an interest, or for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from the experience” (Kowal & Fortier, 1999, p. 357). Ryan and colleagues (2009) define intrinsic motivation as “engagement in an activity because of the inherent

pleasures and satisfactions it provides” (p. 109). SDT specifies that human beings are proactive and guided by intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is further elaborated on in a sub-theory of SDT - Cognitive Evaluation Theory. Extrinsic motivation refers to “behaviors that are considered a means to an end” (Kowal & Fortier, 1999, p. 357), and the outcome of such behavior is geared toward receiving rewards or avoiding punishment (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The importance of understanding extrinsic motivation and regulation led to the creation of a sub-theory of SDT - Organismic Integration Theory.

Intrinsic motivation varies between individuals based on the activity and the time in which the activity is pursued. To fully understand intrinsic motivation, one must consider the situational and contextual factors of an activity and how the activity is engaged. Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), a sub-theory of Self-Determination Theory, explains the determinants of intrinsic motivation in social contexts and concentrates on the factors that bolster or diminish it (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan et al., 2009). CET specifies two necessary conditions for intrinsic motivation: competence and autonomy. At its broadest level, CET highlights that factors that negatively affect perceptions of autonomy or competence lower intrinsic motivation, whereas factors that bolster autonomy and competence increase intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

SDT differentiates types of motivation based on the autonomy-control continuum which characterizes the degree to which motivation is autonomous vs. controlled (Ryan & Deci, 2017). On one side of the continuum, autonomous motivation is characterized by volition, or “the extent that he or she assents to, concurs with, and is wholly willing to engage in the behaviors” (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 14). On the other side of the continuum, behavior is controlled when an individual feels compelled to act based on internal or external pressure (Ryan & Deci, 2017). When feelings of coercion influence motivation, a person’s actions are incongruent with the person’s sense of

self and are not internalized. Internalization refers to the “process of transforming external regulations into internal regulations and, when the process functions optimally, integrating those regulations into one’s sense of self” (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994, p. 120). Notably, from this definition, there exists an opportunity for internalizing that is less than optimal. These two processes of internalization are termed introjection and integration.

The first process, introjection, is defined as “internalization in which the person ‘takes in’ a value or regulatory process but does not identify with and accept it as his or her own” (Deci et al., 1994, p. 121). As a regulatory process, introjection is often accompanied by feelings of pressure and tension as one attempts to internally control regulation (Ryan, 1982). The second process of internalization is integration, defined as “internalization in which the person identifies with the value of an activity and accepts full responsibility for doing it” (Deci et al., 1994, p. 121). Integration is the more effective self-regulatory process, as it is self-determined and does not invoke the feelings of conflict that accompany introjection (Deci & Ryan, 1991). Integration also produces greater consistency between the person’s behavior and internal state and results in greater intrinsic motivation (Koestner, Bernieri, & Zuckerman, 1992; Ryan, Koestner, & Deci, 1991). In a sense, integration is akin to personally endorsing the underlying reason or motivation for one’s behavior and involves accepting the regulatory process as one’s own (Ryan & Connell, 1989). Distinguishing between these two forms of internalization involves examining the feelings associated with the process, as introjection results in tension whereas integration results in harmony between one’s behavior and inclinations (Deci et al., 1994). These self-regulatory processes are particularly important in the process of goal pursuit.

Goal Commitment

Theories of motivation emphasize that people commit to goals which they perceive as desirable and feasible (Atkinson, 1958; Bandura, 1997; Gollwitzer, 1993). Individuals may verbalize or even fantasize about reaching some goal but getting started requires a sufficient level of determination and commitment (Khenfer, Roux, Tafani, & Laurin, 2017). Several definitions of goal commitment are found in the literature. Locke et al. (1988) define goal commitment as “one’s attachment to or determination to reach a goal, regardless of the goal’s origin” (p. 24). Devezer and colleagues (2014) define it as “the degree to which a consumer is willing to invest effort in and determined to achieve a desired end state” (p. 119). Although several definitions exist, they all share a central theme—goal commitment measures a desire to attain some goal and is typically determined in the preactional stage of the goal pursuit process (Fishbach & Dhar, 2005; Oettingen, Pak, & Schnetter, 2001; Gollwitzer, 1990). When people move from precommittal to being committed, they display features of commitment, such as enthusiastically embracing the goal, being preoccupied with it, taking goal-directed action, resumption of goal-directed action after a setback, and anticipating disappointment during goal pursuit (Oettingen et al., 2009).

According to goal setting theory, people pursue goals they consider to be attractive, attainable, and personally important (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987; Custers & Aarts, 2010; Munichor & LeBoeuf, 2018). When goals are feasible and desirable, Oettingen et al. (2001) suggest that goal commitment is determined by energization and mental contrasting (Oettingen & Gollwitzer, 2001). Mental contrasting, a self-regulation strategy, involves imagining a desired future state and reflecting on current circumstances that permit or impede the ability to reach this future state. By simultaneously considering current and future states, the feasibility of the desired

outcome is realized. As a result, when feasibility is high (low), goal commitment is stronger (weaker; Oettinggen et al., 2001). Some of the other factors that influence the decision to pursue goals include a person's expectations and optimism (Zhang, Fishbach, & Dhar, 2007), a person's regulatory focus (Freitas, Liberman, Salovey, & Higgins, 2002; Higgins, 2005), a person's mood (Fishbach & Labroo, 2007), and the extent to which a person participates in the goal-setting process (Erez & Arad, 1986; Munichor & LeBoeuf, 2018). This last factor is particularly relevant to the current research, as I examine how selection source of the goal start date affects goal commitment.

Goal Source

Research in several domains focuses on the importance of the person setting a goal and how this influences goal-related behaviors. In the economics literature, the study of goals has been applied to various settings, including workplace behavior (Corgnet, Gomez-Minambres, & Hernan-Gonzalez, 2015), weight loss (Toussaert, 2016), college student educational achievement (Herranz-Zarzoso & Sabater-Grande, 2018; van Lent & Souverijn, 2020), labor supply (Camerer, Babcock, Loewenstein, & Thaler, 1997; Fehr & Gotte, 2007; Huffman & Gotte, 2007; Farber, 2008; Crawford & Meng, 2011), and the self-control problem of hyperbolic discounting (Koch & Nafziger, 2016; Hsiaw, 2013; Brookins, Goerg, & Kube, 2017). Research in this area can be broadly categorized into two themes: exogenously imposed goals and self-chosen goals. Exogenously imposed goals are goals set by a principal with or without monetary incentive, whereas self-chosen goals are set directly by an agent (Brookins et al., 2017). Traditionally, much of the economics research has focused on exogenously imposed goals, but recent research highlights the value of understanding self-chosen goals as a form of intrinsic motivation.

Additionally, when goals are self-chosen, the goal-setting process provides the individual with intrinsic and psychological utility (Brookins et al., 2017). Brookins and colleagues (2017) find that when individuals set their own personal work goals, performance is enhanced, regardless of whether performance has additional monetary incentives.

When people set goals, developing initial plans and a course of action are fueled by motivation (Locke, 1996; Pintrich, Conley, & Kempler, 2003; Taylor & Wilson, 2016). Participating in the goal setting process typically results in greater motivation to attain personal goals, but not all self-generated goals are truly personal (Gorges & Grund, 2017). Self-generated goals vary in the degree to which they are internalized. Sheldon and Elliot (1998) find that if self-generated goals are not integrated internally, they “can feel just as authoritarian as external rules and constraints” (p. 546). If some component of the goal setting process is not internalized, these forms of self-regulated goals represent a more externally controlled form of motivational regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Gorges & Grund, 2017) and can result in goal conflict (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995).

A person’s goal structure is highly complex, providing many opportunities for friction and contradiction (Gorges & Grund, 2017). Goal conflict may occur during any of the stages of the prototypical process of goal pursuit within a self-regulation cycle (Vohs & Baumeister, 2004; Zimmerman, 2008), but conflicts are most apparent during the pre-decisional stage (Gorges & Grund, 2017). Goal conflicts may arise due to simultaneous pursuit of multiple goals (Schmidt, Dolis, & Tolli, 2009) or may be caused by the underlying motivation or properties of the goal itself (Austin & Vancouver, 1996; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). Properties of a goal include temporal range, commitment, attainability, and self-concordance (Gorges, Esdar, & Wild, 2014), and the

conflict experienced based on one of these properties varies based on the degree to which the motivation to pursue this goal is self-determined (Senécal, Julien, & Guay, 2003). Inherent goal conflicts occur when a person takes on goals set by others or those that are shaped by external forces and challenge one's self-regulation, resulting in a sense of self-discordance (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995).

VI. HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The above theoretical background suggests that the roles of time and self-determination affect goal-related decisions in unique ways. The Fresh Start Effect posits that people use temporal landmarks to separate aspects of self and to distinguish between past self, present self, and future self. These temporal landmarks can take several forms based on social aspects of time (e.g., first day of the week) or based on dates which are personally meaningful for a person (e.g., birthday). The Fresh Start Effect manifests in feelings of increased motivation or aspirational behavior following one of these temporal landmarks. Although research into this phenomenon is relatively new, the offered theoretical explanations of this effect are based on the mental accounting of time and the desire to pursue some personal goal in one's life.

Goal setting theory and theories of self-regulation suggest that self plays an important role in determining goal commitment. However, not all goal start dates are self-determined. In fact, people live their lives according to predetermined dates where there is no choice at all. For example, academic calendars signal the start of college semesters and when they end. Students desiring to advance their education and obtain a degree must deal with a number of organizational start and stop dates over which they have no control. The advent of weekend EMBA programs recognizes that individuals are constrained by work schedules over which they have no choice, and in response, colleges offer more flexible weekend course alternatives or self-paced distance learning opportunities.

Additionally, the internet provides many opportunities to pursue and track goals with different levels of monitoring, control, and initiation. For example, the website HealthyWage.com provides fitness challenges for individuals and groups and incorporates cash prizes to make fitness fun and more effective. Their services include different types of challenges: public challenges and corporate/brand challenges. Public challenges allow an individual to choose between weight loss challenges and step challenges at both the individual and team levels. For example, the HealthyWager Personal Challenge allows the individual to pursue a weight loss goal, choose his/her own entry fee, and the start date of this challenge. This challenge provides the most flexibility for the individual, as they set the goal criteria and start dates. Some of the other individual challenges have fixed components. For example, the Stepping in the Sunshine Step Challenge requires an entry fee of \$30/month for 2 months and starts on May 13, 2019, whereas the Personal Jackpot challenge, the Superpower Slimdown Jackpot Challenge, requires an entry fee of \$20/month for 3 months and starts May 19, 2019 (See Appendix A). The different challenges available for participants provide options for goal seekers and allow them to choose their own criteria (i.e., choosing the start date) or participating in a challenge with fixed guidelines (i.e., the challenge starts on May 19th). As evidenced by the number of opportunities available to pursue goals on self-determined versus fixed start dates, the role of self and temporal landmarks become less clear. Will the Fresh Start Effect hold even when the goal initiation date is preset?

From a naive psychology perspective, one's perceived locus of causality has a strong influence on our actions and behavior (Heider, 1958). An individual's actions and outcomes can be perceived as intentional (e.g., personally caused) or nonintentional (impersonally caused). Impersonal causation is inferred from the absence of initiation and results in feelings of less

control over desired outcomes (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Consequently, the perceived locus of causality may play an important role in motivation and goal pursuit. The current research proposes that when individuals are permitted to choose the start date for pursuing their goal, they are actively engaged in the goal planning process and feel a sense of control over their decision. However, the extent to which the decision is constrained will likely impact the level of internalization. Permitting someone to initiate goal pursuit on a day that corresponds with their circadian rhythm will likely result in a more integrated internalization, as the person views the choice as concordant with their natural behavior.

When a person must select their own start date, they gravitate towards generic calendar temporal landmarks to make sense of and organize their time. Choosing to embark on a new goal on a Monday just feels right, whereas choosing to start this journey on a Saturday is likely to create internal conflict, as it disrupts the flow of time in their lives and circaseptan rhythms. Thus, I predict that when given the opportunity to initiate goal pursuit following a temporal landmark (i.e., Monday), goal commitment will be greater, but when given the opportunity to initiate goal pursuit on a day that is not considered a temporal landmark (i.e., Saturday), goal commitment will be lower.

Previous research emphasizes that temporal landmarks strongly affect motivation, but does this hold when the goal start date is not self-selected? What happens when people have less control over when they initiate goal pursuit? Studies in consumer behavior and psychology suggest that when goals are externally imposed (compared to self-imposed), situational factors may have less of an impact on motivation and goal-related outcomes (Harackiewicz & Sansone, 1991; Botti & McGill, 2006). For example, think about the motivation of students at the beginning of a semester. A semester may start on a Wednesday, but this does not impact

students' motivation or commitment to attend the first day of classes or pursue an education.

Research shows that goal-related performance and task interest depend on whether the goal was personally adopted or assigned by an external agent (Harackiewicz & Sansone, 1991; Utman, 1997; Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001; Van Yperen, 2003). Barron and Karackiewicz (2001) find that the effects of purpose goals varied as a function of their origin (i.e., assigned vs. adopted), whereas research by Van Yperen (2003) shows that it is possible to induce specific goal contexts where assigned goals have the same effect as personally adopted goals. Additionally, studies have found that externally imposed choices can result in greater satisfaction than self-selected choices when consumers are given undesirable options (Botti & McGill, 2006; Botti & Iyengar, 2004).

Interestingly, and not explicitly stated as one of their contributions, Davydenko & Peetz (2019) illustrate that the selection source of the goal start day does interact with the Fresh Start Effect. Specifically, they show that the Fresh Start Effect does not occur when participants were informed of their goal start day. Said differently, motivation to pursue a goal did not differ when Sunday and Monday were both framed as the first day of the goal period. Garnering support from the above findings, I expect goal commitment to be higher on Monday (compared to Saturday) for the self-selected goal start date. However, I predict that when start dates are preset or determined (without one's control), new temporal accounts will be formed based on the imposed parameters, meaning that Mondays and Saturdays should garner equal commitment.

***H1:** There is an interaction between the selection source of the goal start date and the day of the week on goal commitment.*

***H1a:** When goal start dates are self-selected, goal commitment will be greater when the goal pursuit starts on a Monday (compared to Saturday).*

***H1b:** When goal start dates are not self-selected (other), there will be no difference in goal commitment based on the day of the week.*

Although subjective, individual's experiences are motivational forces that ultimately affect self-regulatory processes (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2017; Koole, Schlinkert, Maldei, & Baumann, 2019). Two psychological needs that affect our experiences and may help us understand the influence of selection source on the Fresh Start Effect are perceptions of autonomy and competence (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Individuals strive for control over events in their lives because having control provides them with opportunities to realize desired future outcomes (Bandura, 1991). Conversely, when individuals lack control over life events, they may experience apprehension, indifference and discouragement (Bandura, 1994).

As previously discussed in the theoretical background, autonomy involves endorsing and taking responsibility for one's actions and the accompanying sense of volition (Ryan & Connell, 1989; Ryan & Deci, 2008). Feelings of autonomy are enhanced by the notion of choice and intrinsic motivation (Kowal & Fortier, 1999). SDT emphasizes that autonomy allows people to thrive when their actions are self-determined and not coerced by external agents (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Sheldon and Elliot (1999) identified self-concordance as a reflection of autonomy in personally generated goals. Self-concordant goals tend to have an internal perceived locus of causality, meaning that they emanate explicitly from self-choices (de Charms, 1968). When people pursue self-concordant goals, greater effort is put forth and sustained during goal pursuit,

enhancing the likelihood of goal attainment. Research on self-concordance emphasizes that the more self-concordant (e.g., autonomous) a person's goals are, the more likely they are to engage in strategic goal-related behaviors and experience positive affect derived from need satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2017). However, I propose that autonomy enhances goal commitment through greater self-efficacy, as perceived competence is identified as another one of the "psychological nutrients" (Ryan, 1995, p. 410) needed for sustained motivation (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999).

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's perceptions of their capabilities to achieve desired levels of task performance (Bandura, 1994). Self-efficacy beliefs determine the way people feel, think, motivate themselves, behave, and operate through cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes. Self-efficacy beliefs influence the types of goals people set for themselves, how hard they work to achieve their goals, how long they persist when facing challenges in goal pursuit, and how they deal with failure from their goal pursuit efforts (Bandura, 1991; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994)

Individuals with greater self-assurance in their abilities face challenges with a desire to master, rather than avoid, them. However, when failure occurs, they attribute this failure to personal reasons, such as not putting forth sufficient effort to accomplish the task. Highly self-assured individuals approach challenges and threatening situations with the confidence that they will be successful (Bandura, 1991). Conversely, individuals who doubt their capabilities tend to avoid difficult tasks which are perceived as personally threatening. When faced with challenging situations, individuals with weak self-assurance tend to be less committed to the goals they pursue and reduce their efforts or give up when the task becomes too difficult (Pajares, 1996; Lent & Hackett, 1987).

Goal planning and time management also affect efficacy beliefs, as people are motivated

to predict events and to determine how to control events that may affect them (Bandura, 1986; 1991). Britton and Tesser (1991) highlight an important factor that contributes to perceptions of self-efficacy—feelings that individuals are in charge of their own time. Similar research by Zimmerman, Greenberg, and Weinstein (1994) finds that effective time management predicts academic achievement and promotes self-development.

Substantial research using SDT supports the positive influence of autonomy on self-efficacy and performance outcomes (Bandura & Wood, 1989; Wang & Netemeyer, 2002; Kennedy, Goggin, & Nollen, 2004; Williams, Niemiec, Patrick, Ryan, & Deci, 2009). For example, SDT has been used to examine medication adherence (Kennedy et al., 2004; Williams, Patrick, Niemiec, Williams, Divine, Lafata, Heisler, Tunceli, & Pladevall, 2009), providing support for the impact of autonomous motivation on medication adherence. In their study, Kennedy and colleagues (2004) show that autonomous motivation was associated with enhanced perceptions of competence, and greater competence led to better adherence to the medication regime.

Additional research on salesperson performance uses Self-Determination Theory and Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977; 1997) to explain the positive effect of job autonomy on performance through perceived self-efficacy (Wang & Netemeyer; 2002) Specifically, Wang and Netemeyer (2002) find that when salespeople have greater levels of autonomy, they perceive themselves as more capable and creative, resulting in better performance. The link between autonomy and self-efficacy has also been supported by Bandura and Wood (1989), as their findings show that when people are placed in constrained situations and have little control over the situation, they have lower levels of self-efficacy.

Extant research emphasizes that when decisions involve choice, people experience

stronger feelings of autonomy (Bandura & Wood, 1989; Bandura, 1991; Kowal & Fortier, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2008). However, the amount of autonomy experienced may be affected by goal properties or other external factors (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998). If people experience conflict when choosing, feelings of autonomy may be inhibited (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Gorges & Grund, 2017). When choices are constrained, motivation may be less internalized, resulting in feelings of self-discordance (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). Essentially, perceived autonomy is heightened when goal seekers choose the parameters for initiating goal pursuit. These parameters should not be constrained and should be congruent with how people mentally categorize their time (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). Although choosing to start goal pursuit on a Monday feels right, choosing to start goal pursuit on Saturday is likely construed as a constraint, as it disrupts the flow of time in their lives. Consequently, I predict that when given the opportunity to initiate goal pursuit following a temporal landmark (i.e., Monday), perceived autonomy will be greater, as this behavior is more self-concordant. Conversely, perceived autonomy will be lower when the choice is constrained (i.e., Saturday start date). Thus, I propose that the inclusion of goal start date source (i.e., self vs. other) impacts the Fresh Start Effect through the following causal link: perceived autonomy → self-efficacy → goal commitment.

***H2:** Goal start date and the source of that start date interactively affect goal commitment indirectly through perceived autonomy and self-efficacy.*

VII. OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

Six studies explore the moderating effect of goal date selection source (self vs. other) on the existing Fresh Start Effect. An initial pretest, using data from a student research pool and Amazon's Mechanical Turk (mTurk), identifies relevant and important goals to use in subsequent experiments. A final pretest then confirms the Fresh Start Effect among consumers pursuing one of these goals (i.e., saving money) using Google Trend data, as this context was not previously studied by Dai et al. (2014).

Study 1 extends research on the Fresh Start Effect by examining the role of self in selecting the goal initiation date and the interaction effect of selection source by day of the week on goal commitment. Study 2 replicates these findings by examining online search behavior using terms that coincide with self-scheduled and other-scheduled goal-related activities. Study 3 examines the robustness of the effect of goal start date selection source by manipulating the social distance of the goal start date selector, and Study 4 explores whether consumers can predict the effects of selection source and goal start date on motivation. Study 5 identifies the facilitating mechanisms that explain the interaction effect of selection source by day of the week on goal commitment. Finally, study 6 employs a longitudinal field study to examine the impact of selection source and goal start date on goal commitment and attainment.

VIII. PRETESTS

Pretests 1-2

To identify goals that were perceived as relevant and important to our study participants, a pretest was conducted using 92 undergraduate students obtained from a University research pool ($M_{age} = 20$; 63% female). Participants saw a list of nine personal goals drawn from existing research (Woolley & Fishbach, 2017; exercising, eating healthy, having healthier habits, saving money, getting organized, learning something new, getting out of debt, spending time with family, and helping others) and then rated the importance of these goals on a 5-point likert scale (endpoints 1 = not at all important, 5 = extremely important). Across all goal types, the average rating of goal importance ranged from 2.78 to 5.00, with a grand mean of 3.99 (see Table 1).

A one sample t-test was conducted to assess the relative importance of each type of goal compared to the midpoint of the goal importance scale (i.e., 3 = neutral; see Table 2). The results show all goals are relatively important but exercising ($M_{exercising} = 4.26$; $t(91) = 14.23$, $p < .01$) and saving money ($M_{saving\ money} = 4.46$; $t(91) = 24.00$, $p < .01$) were two of the most important goals in this analysis. These findings coincide with the results of Dai and colleagues (2014), highlighting the importance of fitness-related goals and suggest an additional goal context for exploring the Fresh Start Effect (i.e., saving money).

Table 1: Pretest 1 Goal Means

Student Goal Pretest		
Goal	Mean	Standard Deviation
Exercising	4.26	.85
Eating healthy	3.87	.92
Having healthier habits	3.97	.78
Saving money	4.46	.58
Getting organized	3.87	1.03
Learning something new	3.83	.92
Getting out of debt	3.98	1.19
Spending time with family	3.97	1.11
Helping others	3.93	1.07
Grand mean	3.99	.57

Table 2: Pretest 1 T-Test Results

Goal	<i>t</i>	df
Exercising	14.23*	91
Eating healthy	9.10*	91
Having healthier habits	11.95*	91
Saving money	24.00*	91
Getting organized	8.10*	91
Learning something new	8.60*	91
Getting out of debt	7.91*	91
Spending time with family	8.33*	91
Helping others	8.40*	91
* $p < .01$		

To reaffirm that saving money and exercising are important goals, a second pretest was conducted using 99 participants recruited from Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Participants, ages 18-61 ($M = 34.41$; 51% female), were asked to rate the importance of the same personal goals on a 9-point likert scale (endpoints 1 = not at all important, 9 = extremely important). In this sample, the grand mean of goal importance ranged from 3.44 to 8.89, with an average of 7.00 (See Table 3).

Table 3: Pretest 2 Goal Means

MTurk Goal Pretest		
Goal	Mean	Standard Deviation
Exercising	7.16	1.50
Eating healthy	6.98	1.93
Having healthier habits	7.21	1.66
Saving money	7.80	1.50
Getting organized	6.82	1.60
Learning something new	6.53	1.27
Getting out of debt	6.95	2.41
Spending time with family	6.85	2.21
Helping others	6.71	1.92
Grand mean	7.00	1.20

A one sample t-test was conducted to assess the relative importance of each type of goal compared to the midpoint of the goal importance scale (i.e., 5 = neutral; See Table 4). The results confirm that exercising ($M_{\text{exercising}} = 7.16$; $t(98) = 14.31$, $p < .01$) and saving money ($M_{\text{saving money}}$

= 7.80; $t(91) = 18.58, p < .01$) are two important goals compared to neutral responses. Having established the importance of these two goals in our study populations, saving money and exercising will be used as the goal contexts for investigating the Fresh Start Effect in subsequent studies.

Table 4: Pretest 2 T-Test Results

MTurk Goal Pretest (test value = 5.00)		
Goal	<i>t</i>	df
Exercising	14.31*	98
Eating healthy	10.19*	98
Having healthier habits	13.25*	98
Saving money	18.58*	98
Getting organized	11.31*	98
Learning something new	11.93*	98
Getting out of debt	8.05*	98
Spending time with family	8.34*	98
Helping others	8.86*	98
* $p < .01$		

Pretest 3

Dai and colleagues (2014) utilized Google search data for several key terms to determine whether aspirational search behavior increases following several generic calendar and work calendar temporal landmarks. Dai et al. (2014) examine online search behavior for various key terms over an 8-year period. The first term, dieting, was tested as the aspirational search term, whereas the other search terms (i.e., laundry, weather, gardening, and news) were examined as

placebo terms. Their findings show that Google search frequency for the term “dieting” was greater at the start of a new week, the start of a new month, the start of a new year, and after U.S. federal holidays. However, interest in the placebo search terms did not vary based on these generic temporal landmarks.

To confirm the existence of the Fresh Start Effect in a new goal context (i.e., saving money), the methodology employed by Dai, Milkman, and Riis (2014) was utilized to determine public interest for the phrase “saving money” using daily Google search data. The data was obtained from “Google Trends” (<http://trends.google.com>), a website providing data on daily Google web search trends. Google Trends provides daily search data that is normalized relative to the total number of daily Google searches (for all searches on all topics) and provides an estimate for the relative popularity of the topic being examined.

The data for the present study is based on the daily number of Google searches in the United States for the term “saving money” for the time period of January 1, 2015 to May 2, 2019 (1,583 days). The value assigned for each day is scaled relative to total Google queries, with the greatest number of searches assigned a scaled value of 100, and other days scaled accordingly (between 0 and 100). During the time period analyzed, the relative daily search volume ranged from 26 to 100 ($M = 70.07$, $SD = 13.39$), and each day during this period had a scaled value greater than zero (See Figure 1).

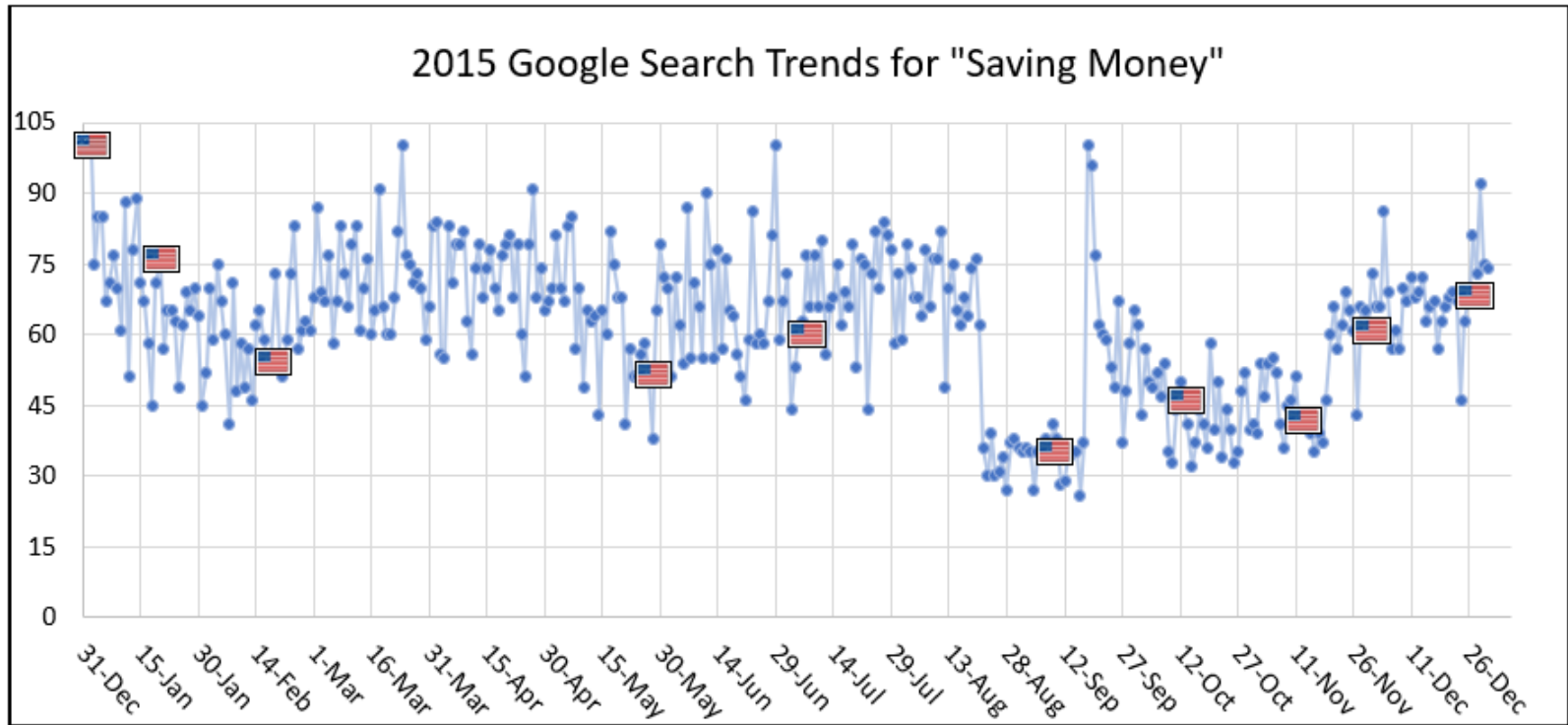
To determine whether people show more interest in saving money following temporal landmarks, a model predicting Google Trend volume was analyzed using ordinary least squares (OLS) regression. Using STATA 15, a fixed-effect regression model estimated search term interest values, and interest values were scaled over 15 ninety-day time periods. The independent variables in the analysis include temporal landmarks based on generic calendar events and work

calendar events. The generic calendar events include the following continuous variables: days since the start of the week, days since the start of the month, and months since the start of the year. The work calendar events include the first workday after a U.S. federal holiday and a fresh start score x first workday after a U.S. federal holiday predictor. Ten U.S. federal holidays were examined in this analysis: New Year’s Day, Martin Luther King Jr. Day, President’s Day, Memorial Day, Independence Day, Labor Day, Columbus Day, Veterans Day, Thanksgiving Day, and Christmas Day. The fresh start scores utilized in this analysis are standardized composite scores measuring the extent to which each federal holiday feels like a fresh start and range from -.79 for President’s Day to 2.53 for New Year’s Day (Dai et al., 2014). Table 5 provides additional information on the variables included in this analysis.

Table 5: Pretest 3 Independent Variables

Variable	Type	Range of Values
Days since start of the week	Continuous	1 (Monday) – 7 (Sunday)
Days since start of the month	Continuous	1 (1 st day of the month) – 31 (last day of the month)
Months since start of the year	Continuous	1 (January) – 12 (December)
First workday after a U.S. federal holiday	Dummy	0 (Not the first workday after a U.S. federal holiday) – 1 (First workday after a U.S. federal holiday)
Fresh start score	Continuous	-.79 (score for President’s Day) – 2.53 (score for New Year’s Day)
First workday after a U.S. federal holiday x Fresh start score	Continuous	-.79 (first workday after President’s Day) – 2.53 (first workday after New Year’s Day)

Figure 1: Pretest 3 Google Trends Plot for Saving Money



The regression analyses show that interest in saving money was greater on days that coincide with the generic calendar predictors: days since the start of the week, days since the start of the month, and months since the start of the year (See Table 6). First, Google searches for the term “saving money” are greatest on Mondays and decrease as the week progresses ($b = -1.25$, $SE = .13$, $p < .01$). Second, search interest in this term decreases as the days of the month progress, with interest being higher at the beginning of the month ($b = -.06$, $SE = .03$, $p = .03$). Third, search interest decreases as the months of the year progress, with interest being higher at the beginning of the year ($b = -.94$, $SE = .10$, $p < .01$). The results highlight the natural tendency of individuals to search for goal-relevant terms on Google based on generic calendar temporal landmarks.

Table 6: Pretest 3 Regression Results

Google Search Term	Saving Money		
Generic Calendar Predictors	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Days since the start of the week (Monday)	-1.25	.13	.00
Days since the start of the month	-.06	.03	.03
Months since the start of the year	-.94	.10	.00
Work Calendar Predictors			
First workday after federal holiday	2.60	1.46	.10
First workday after federal holiday x Fresh start score	7.68	1.46	.00
Fixed Effects	Yes		
Observations	1,583		
R-squared	.23		

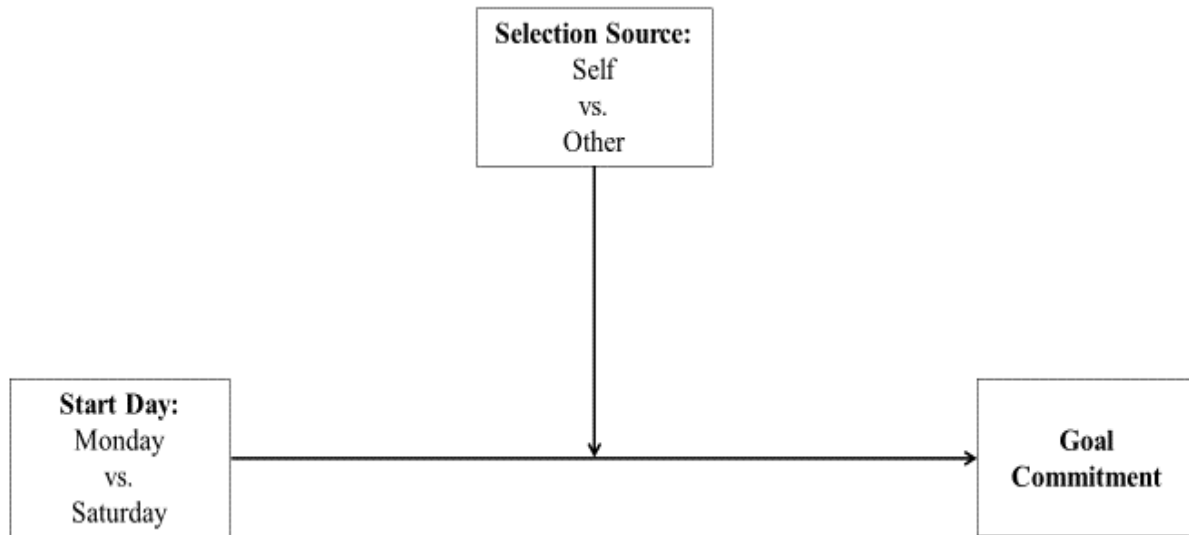
In addition to the generic calendar predictors, work calendar predictors were also examined in the regression analyses. Although not significant at $\alpha = .05$, the analysis shows that interest in saving money does increase on the first workday after a U.S. federal holiday at $\alpha = .10$ ($b = 2.60$, $SE = 1.46$, $p = .10$). More importantly though, search interest for this term increases significantly on the first workday after U.S. federal holidays that are perceived as more like a fresh start ($b = 7.68$, $SE = 1.46$, $p < .01$). For holidays that are perceived as more of a fresh start, goal-related search behavior increases significantly. Among the “freshest” workdays (based on “fresh start score”; +1SD), daily search interest for saving money increased by 7.68 points on a scale ranging from 0-100. These results mirror the findings of Dai et al. (2014), as they provide support for the increased interest in goal-related information following temporal landmarks. The present study extends their findings to another goal (i.e., saving money) which is also influenced by generic and work calendar temporal landmarks.

Collectively, these pretests identify and validate “saving money” and health-related goals as goals that are relevant and important to my populations of interest. Additionally, because existing work on the Fresh Start Effect has not documented the effect within a saving money goal, Pretest 3 documents that motivation to pursue this goal (as measured by Google search volume) conforms to the pattern of motivation identified by Dai and colleagues (2014; the “Fresh Start Effect”). In the studies that follow, saving money and health-related goals are used as stimuli to examine the effects of goal start date and the selector of that date on goal commitment.

IV. STUDY 1

As pretest 3 documents, interest in saving money increases on natural calendar breaks (e.g., Mondays, firsts of the month) and on post-holiday workdays that are perceived as “fresh” (e.g., the first workday after New Year’s Day). To test Hypotheses 1a and 1b, Study 1 examines whether *who* chooses the goal start date interacts with the perceived “freshness” of that date to affect goal commitment (See Figure 2). I predict that the Fresh Start Effect will affect goal commitment when the goal start date is self-selected (i.e., goal commitment will be greater when individuals choose to pursue the goal of saving money on a generic calendar temporal landmark [Monday]). However, when the goal start date is not self-selected (i.e., the goal start date is selected by someone else, or there is no option to choose), the Fresh Start Effect will not occur (i.e., the specific goal start date will not affect goal commitment).

Figure 2: Study 1 Conceptual Model



Study 1 utilized a 2 (selection source: self vs. other) x 2 (day of the week: Monday vs. Saturday) between-subjects design. One hundred seventy-six participants were recruited from a University student research pool and received course credit in exchange for their participation. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions and read that the researchers were interested in understanding how consumers strive to attain personal goals. They then read that they would be participating in a financial challenge with an overall goal of saving money and indicated how important this goal was to them personally (endpoints: 1 = not at all important, 5 = very important). Goal importance ranged from 2 – 5, with an average of 4.40 (SD = .70). Participants then listed three things they could personally do to achieve their goal of saving money. Examples of participant responses are included in Table 7.

Table 7: Ways to Save Money

Ways to Achieve the Goal of Saving Money
Make coffee at home
Open a savings account
Eat out less/Cook at home more often
Carpool/Ride bike
Reduce online shopping/Clothes buying
Use a budgeting app to monitor expenses
Make lists before shopping/Reduce impulse buying
Dump my girlfriend

In the self-choice conditions, participants saw a calendar and chose the start date of their financial challenge from the calendar dates highlighted in green. Participants in the self-choice/Monday condition were allowed to choose their start date from four Mondays in June 2019: June 3rd, June 10th, June 17th, or June 24th. Those in the self-choice/Saturday condition were allowed to choose their start date from four Saturdays in June 2019: June 8th, June 15th, June 22nd, or June 29th (see Appendix B for stimuli). In the other conditions, participants were given a goal start date. Specifically, participants in the other-choice/Monday condition read that the financial challenge started on Monday, June 3rd, whereas participants in the other-choice/Saturday condition read that the financial challenge started on Saturday, June 8th. These dates were chosen as the preset start dates because they corresponded with the first of the four options offered to participants in the self-choice conditions, creating a conservative test of my

hypothesis as the first Monday/Saturday of the month should feel fresher than the last Monday/Saturday.

After reading their assigned scenario, all participants answered questions regarding the construct of interest—goal commitment. Goal commitment was measured using five items measured on 7-point Likert scales (e.g., “How committed are you to your goal of saving money?”, 1 = not at all committed, 7 = very committed; $\alpha = .88$; Devezer, Sprott, Spangenberg, & Czellar, 2014). Scale items are presented in Appendix D.

Study 1 Results

Of the 90 participants permitted to choose their own start date (self-choice condition), 88% (79/90) chose to start pursuing their goal on the first date option (see Table 8). Of those selecting from the Monday options, 84% (42/50) selected to pursue their goal on Monday, June 3rd. Of those selecting from the Saturday options, 92.5% (37/40) selected to pursue their goal on Saturday, June 8th. These two dates correspond to the dates provided in the two other-choice conditions, highlighting that the only difference between the self-choice and other-choice conditions is who chose the goal initiation date.

Table 8: Study 1 Frequencies of Chosen Dates

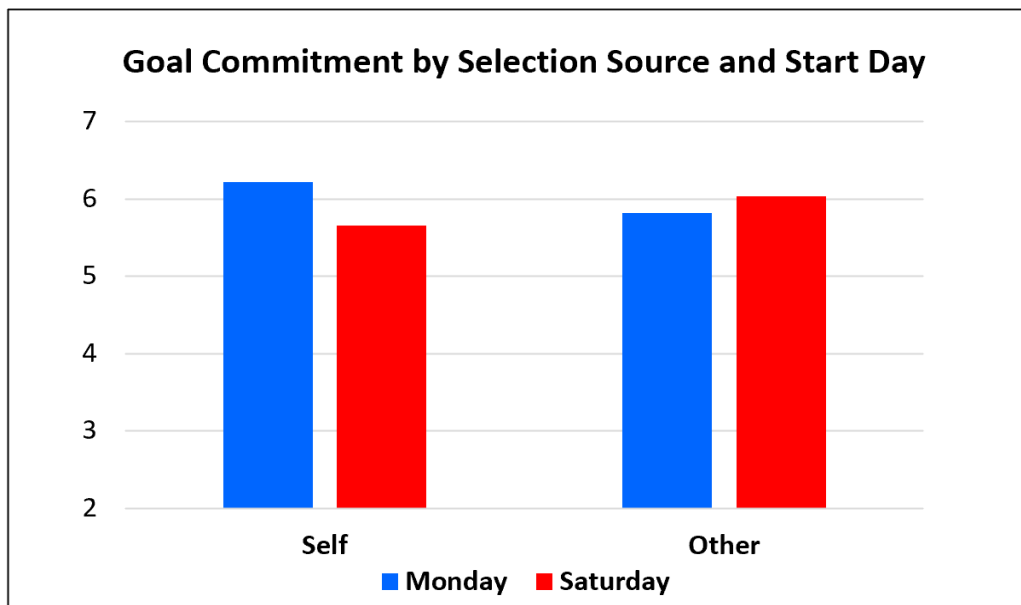
Selected Dates (Self-Select/Monday)	Frequency	Percentage
Monday, June 3 rd	42	84%
Monday, June 10 th	6	12%
Monday, June 17 th	1	2%
Monday June 24 th	1	2%
Cumulative	50	100%
Selected Dates (Self-Select/Saturday)	Frequency	Percentage
Saturday, June 8 th	37	92.5%
Saturday, June 15 th	2	5%
Saturday, June 22 nd	1	2.5%
Saturday, June 29 th	0	0%
Cumulative	40	100%

To test Hypothesis 1, responses were analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results show a significant interaction of day of the week x selection source on goal commitment ($F(1, 172) = 8.86, p < .01$). When participants selected their own start date, they reported greater goal commitment when goal pursuit was scheduled to begin on Mondays ($M_{self-Monday} = 6.22$) than on Saturdays ($M_{self-Saturday} = 5.66; F(1, 172) = 9.61, p < .01$). However, when respondents did not select their goal start dates, goal commitment did not differ based on the scheduled goal start date ($M_{other-Monday} = 5.82$ vs. $M_{other-Saturday} = 6.03$); $F(1, 172) = 1.27, p = .26$).¹ These findings suggest that the influence of temporal landmarks depends on *who* chooses

¹ Removing the 11 participants in the self-choice condition who did not pick the first date option in their assigned

the goal start date (see Figure 3). The results also reveal that on Mondays, goal commitment was greater when the goal start date was self-chosen ($M_{self-Monday} = 6.22$) compared to when the goal start date was other-chosen ($M_{other-Monday} = 5.82$; $F(1, 172) = 5.35, p = .02$). This finding further demonstrates the influential role of choice of goal start date commitment to that goal.

Figure 3: Study 1 Results Chart



Study 1 Discussion

Study 1 serves as an initial investigation into the role that start date selection source plays in moderating the well-documented Fresh Start Effect. The results suggest that the Fresh Start Effect is only present when goal start dates are self-chosen. When respondents were constrained

condition did not change the results. The analysis shows a significant interaction of day of the week x selection source ($F(1, 161) = 8.24, p < .01$). There is a significant difference in goal commitment between Monday and Saturday for those who self-selected their own start date ($F(1, 161) = 8.47, p < .01$), such that goal commitment was greater for those who selected Monday compared to those who selected Saturday ($M_{self-Monday} = 6.17$ vs. $M_{self-Saturday} = 5.61$). However, goal commitment did not differ between days for those who were not permitted to select their own start date ($F(1, 161) = 1.24, p = .27$). These results show that the inclusion of participants who did not select the first date option does not affect the overall findings.

to choosing from a list of Saturdays, goal commitment was significantly lower than when respondents chose from a list of Mondays. However, when the goal start date was pre-determined (i.e., the other-choice conditions), the specific goal start date did not affect commitment to the goal. The results of Study 1 provide initial support for Hypotheses 1a-b. However, this analysis used self-reported measures of goal commitment, and the artificial setting of this study may not reflect real world behavior. To overcome this limitation and provide additional support for Hypotheses 1a-b, Study 2 empirically examines the relationship between start date choice and start date using objective data collected from Google Trends. Specifically, Study 2 assesses interest in goal-related activities whose start dates are either self-or other-chosen by analyzing online search behavior.

X. STUDY 2

Study 2 examines differences in online search behavior between phrases suggesting goal behavior with self-chosen (i.e., home workout) and other-chosen (i.e., fitness class) start dates. “Home workout” was selected as the self-chosen start date behavior, as consumers have more control regarding when to start working out. “Fitness class” was selected for the other-chosen start date goal behavior, as consumers are constrained to participate in these classes based on the availability of scheduled classes. Public interest for the phrases “home workout” and “fitness class” were assessed using Google search data obtained from Google Trends (as in Pretest 3). Search interest data was obtained for a 990-day period, from September 14, 2016 to May 20, 2019. The value assigned for each day is scaled relative to all Google queries. The greatest number of searches for a particular term is assigned a scaled value of 100, and the other days within that time period are scaled accordingly (between 0 and 100). During the study time period, the relative daily search volume for “home workout” ranged from 22 to 100 ($M = 59.23$, $SD = 14.17$), and the search volume for “fitness class” ranged from 21 to 100 ($M = 67.58$, $SD = 15.36$). Daily search interest for both terms during this time period had a scaled value greater than zero.

To assess whether people show more interest in these goal-related behaviors based on the day of the week, two models predicting Google Trend volume were analyzed using ordinary least squares (OLS) regression. Using STATA 15, fixed-effect regression models estimated

search term interest values, and interest values were scaled over 11 ninety-day time periods. The independent variable in the analysis was day of the week, and six dummy variables were included in the analysis—one for each day of the week from Tuesday to Sunday (with Monday omitted). Month was also included in the analysis as a control variable.

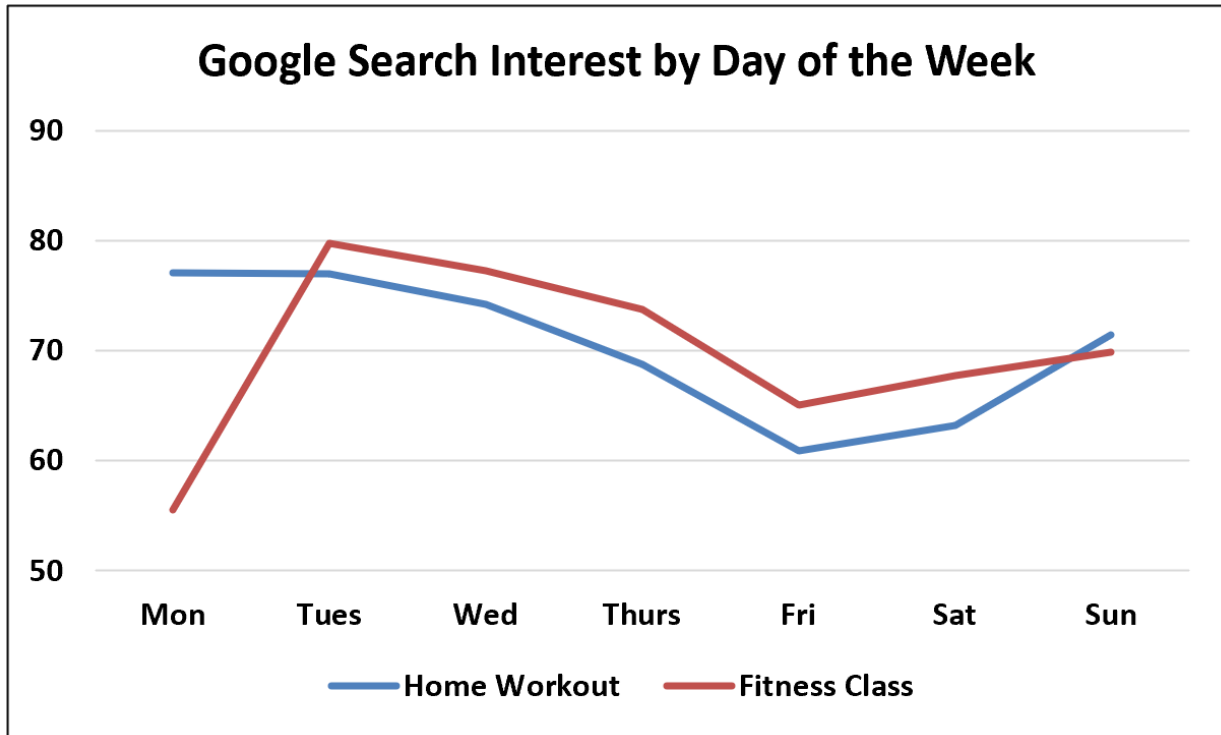
Study 2 Results

The findings show that Google searches for the term “home workout” are greatest on Mondays and decrease as the week progresses ($b = -2.11$, $SE = .17$, $p < .01$). Compared to Mondays, search interest for “home workout” was lowest on Friday ($b = -16.19$, $SE = 1.21$, $p < .01$; see Table 9). This finding provides support for the Fresh Start Effect—interest in goal-related behavior is greatest at the beginning of the week when people are able to choose when to pursue their goals. The results for “fitness class” do not support the Fresh Start Effect. Specifically, the findings show that Google searches for the term “fitness class” (a goal-related behavior for which people would not have control over the start date) do not substantially increase or decrease as the week progresses ($b = .23$, $SE = .32$, $p = .49$). Interestingly, compared to Mondays, search interest for “fitness class” was greatest on Tuesday ($b = 24.31$, $SE = 3.45$, $p < .01$) (See Figure 4).

Table 9: Study 2 Regression Results

Google Search Term	Home Workout			Fitness Class		
Independent Variables	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>SE</i>
Tuesday	-.11	.93	1.30	24.31	.00	3.45
Wednesday	-2.85	.05	1.32	21.80	.03	2.64
Thursday	-8.29	.00	1.06	18.25	.00	2.34
Friday	-16.19	.00	1.21	9.55	.00	1.98
Saturday	-13.83	.00	1.49	12.28	.00	1.75
Sunday	-5.66	.00	1.05	14.42	.00	1.75
Fixed Effects	Yes			Yes		
Observations	990			990		
R-squared	.37			.30		

Figure 4: Study 2 Google Search Interest Plot



Study 2 Discussion

Using objective data collected from Google Trends, Study 2 provides additional evidence that the ability to choose the starting date for goal pursuit moderates the importance of the actual starting date (i.e., the Fresh Start Effect). Mirroring the findings from Study 1, the search interest of goal-related behavior for the self-scheduled start date was greatest at the beginning of the week (i.e., Monday) and decreased as the week progressed. However, interest for goal-related behavior whose timing was not self-chosen did not follow this same pattern. Specifically, interest in other-chosen start date goal-related behavior was lowest on Monday and peaked on Tuesday. Thus, the Fresh Start Effect was present for self-determined goal behavior but not evident for other-determined goal behavior.

XI. STUDY 3

Studies 1 and 2 examine how self-vs. other-determined goal start dates affect goal commitment, and the findings show that having control over the goal start date affects the Fresh Start Effect. In Study 3, I expand upon these findings to investigate whether the source of the other-determined goal start date matters and if goal commitment is affected. Will an individual's commitment vary depending on the relationship of the other person selecting the goal start date? For example, pursuing a fitness challenge on a date determined by a best friend or romantic partner may feel more self-determined than pursuing a fitness challenge on a date determined by a stranger (or an administrator). Historically, research in social psychology has attempted to understand how various forms of social influence affect motivation and goal pursuit (Shah, 2003).

The psychological presence of others and our mental representations of various types of others (e.g., friends, colleagues, family) have the potential to influence our sense of self and our self-regulated behaviors (Sherif, 1948; Kelley, 1952). How we mentally represent others affects how we perceive both ourselves and others, our interactions with others, our desires and choices, and our pursuits (Kruglanski, 1996; Shah, 2003). Social influence has been shown to affect reflected self-appraisals (Cooley, 1964), the process of internalization (Schafer, 1968), goal appraisals (Shah, 2003b), self-evaluative social comparison effects (Stapel & Koomen, 2005), self-improvement (Taylor & Lobel, 1989), competition (Tesser, 1988; Mussweiler, 2003), and

goal attainment (Gardner, Gabriel, & Lee, 1999; Stapel & Koomen, 2001).

Goal appraisals are affected by several factors, such as the objective characteristics of the goal, dispositional and situational factors, and external factors (Atkinson, 1964; Feather, 1990; Shah & Higgins, 1997; Vroom, 1964). Kruglanski, 1996). These external factors can be social in nature, such as the perceived desires and expectations of significant others (Shah, 2003).

Influential others can affect motivation both explicitly and implicitly, and individuals may not be aware of their influence (Locke & Latham, 1990; Higgins, 1999; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Shah, 2003). Some of the factors that affect goal pursuit draw attention to similarities between self and others, resulting in assimilated self-perceptions, or highlight self-distinctiveness, contrasting perceptions of self (Carnevale & Probst, 1998; Stapel & Koomen, 2005). However, this view is challenged by proponents of Self-Determination Theory, as SDT researchers posit that *any* controlling social influence may affect our sense of self, our capacity for self-congruent actions, and interfere with self-regulation processes (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

To test whether differences exist, Study 3 explores whether goal commitment to other-scheduled goals differs based on the relationship of the other person to the participant (i.e., near vs. distant other). Study 3 utilized a 3 (selection source: self vs. near other vs. distant other) x 2 (day of the week: Monday vs. Saturday) between-subjects design. Three hundred twenty-two participants were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Participants ($M_{\text{age}} = 38.34$; 51% male) were randomly assigned to one of the six conditions and read that the researchers were interested in understanding personality constructs related to consumer goal pursuit and fitness-related challenges.

Participants in all conditions read that they would be participating in a "step challenge" hosted by their employer, and that the challenge would begin in April 2021. Like Study 1,

participants in the self-choice conditions saw a calendar of possible challenge start dates and chose the start date of their step challenge from the calendar dates highlighted in green.

Participants in the self-choice/Monday condition were allowed to choose their start date from four Mondays in April 2021: April 5th, April 12th, April 19th, or April 26th. Those in the self-choice/Saturday condition were allowed to choose their start date from four Saturdays in April 2021: April 3rd, April 10th, April 17th, or April 24th.

In the near-other conditions, participants read that their *best friend at work* chose their goal start date. Specifically, participants in the near-other/Monday condition read that their best friend at work chose for them to begin the step challenge on Monday, April 5th. Participants in the near-other/Saturday condition read that their best friend at work chose for them to begin the step challenge on Saturday, April 3rd.

In the distant-other conditions, participants read that *a challenge administrator* chose their goal start date. Specifically, participants in the distant-other/Monday condition read that a challenge administrator chose for them to begin the step challenge on Monday, April 5th. Participants in the distant-other/Saturday condition read that a challenge administrator chose for them to begin the step challenge on Saturday, April 3rd. As in Study 1, April 3rd and 5th were selected for the other-choice conditions because they correspond with the first of the four options offered to participants in the self-choice conditions. After reading the fitness challenge scenario, all participants indicated their commitment to the fitness goal on the items used in Study 1 (Devezer et. al., 2014; $\alpha = .88$).

Study 3 Results

Of the 110 participants permitted to choose their own start date (i.e., participants in the

self-choice conditions), 78% (86/110) chose to start pursuing their goal on the first date option (see Table 10). Of those selecting from the Monday options, 83% (44/53) selected to pursue their goal on Monday, April 5th. Of those selecting from the Saturday options, 74% (42/57) selected to pursue their goal on Saturday, April 3rd.

Table 10: Study 3 Frequencies of Chosen Dates

Selected Dates (Self-Select/Monday)	Frequency	Percentage
Monday, April 5 th	44	83%
Monday, April 12 th	8	15.1%
Monday, April 19 th	0	0%
Monday, April 26 th	1	1.9%
Cumulative	53	100%
Selected Dates (Self-Select/Saturday)	Frequency	Percentage
Saturday, April 3 rd	42	73.7%
Saturday, April 10 th	13	22.8%
Saturday, April 17 th	8	3.5%
Saturday, April 24 th	0	0%
Cumulative	57	100%

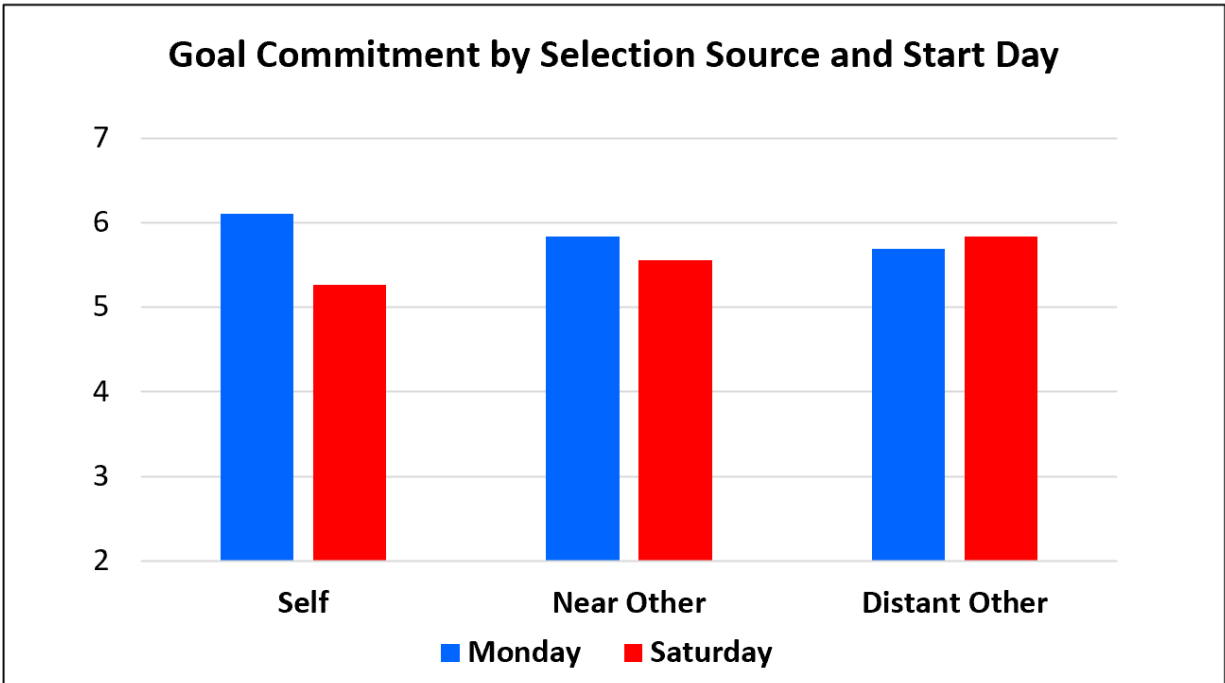
Responses were analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA). The analysis reveals a significant main effect of day of the week on goal commitment ($F(1, 316) = 8.68, p < .01$), such that goal commitment is greater on Mondays than on Saturdays ($M_{Monday} = 5.88$ vs. $M_{Saturday} = 5.56$). qualified by the predicted interaction between day of the week and selection source ($F(2,$

316) = 6.79, $p < .01$; see Figure 5). When participants selected their own start date, they reported greater goal commitment when they chose to pursue their goals beginning on Mondays ($M_{self-Monday} = 6.10$) than on Saturdays ($M_{self-Saturday} = 5.27$; $F(1, 316) = 19.57, p < .01$), illustrating the Fresh Start Effect. When the goal start date was selected by a near other (i.e., best friend at work) or a distant-other (i.e., challenge administrator), goal commitment did not differ based on the goal start date (near other: $M_{near-Monday} = 5.84$ vs. $M_{near-Saturday} = 5.56$; $F(1, 316) = 2.24, p = .16$; distant other: $M_{distant-Monday} = 5.69$ vs. $M_{distant-Saturday} = 5.84$; $F(1, 316) = 0.63, p = .43$).

The results also reveal that when the fitness challenge was scheduled to begin on Monday, goal commitment was greater when the goal start date was self-chosen compared to when the goal start date was selected by a distant other ($M_{self-Monday} = 6.10$ vs. $M_{distant-Monday} = 5.69$; $p = .03$) but not when chosen by a close-other. ($M_{self-Monday} = 6.10$ vs. $M_{near-Monday} = 5.84$; $p = .18$). On Saturday-scheduled start dates, goal commitment was greater when the goal start date was selected by a distant other (i.e., challenge administrator) compared to when the goal start date was self-selected ($M_{distant-Saturday} = 5.84$ vs. $M_{self-Saturday} = 5.27$; $p < .01$). However, on Saturday-scheduled start dates, goal commitment did not differ between self-chosen and near-other-chosen start dates ($M_{near-Saturday} = 5.56$ vs. $M_{self-Saturday} = 5.27$; $p = .14$). Finally, goal commitment was compared for near vs. distant other-selected goal start dates. For Monday-scheduled challenges, goal commitment did not differ between near- and distant -other-selected start dates ($M_{near-Monday} = 5.84$ vs. $M_{distant-Monday} = 5.69$; $p = .43$). Similarly, for Saturday-scheduled challenges, goal commitment did not differ between near- and distant-other-selected goal start dates

($M_{near-Saturday} = 5.56$ vs. $M_{distant-Saturday} = 5.84$; $p = .13$).

Figure 5: Study 3 Results Chart



Study 3 Discussion

Study 3 explored the robustness of the effects identified in Studies 1 and 2 by examining whether the Fresh Start Effect was interrupted when the “other” responsible for selecting the start date for goal pursuit was described as socially close to the respondent. The findings from Study 3 provide further support for the importance of self-choice in facilitating the Fresh Start Effect. When goal start dates are chosen by near- or distant-others, the Fresh Start Effect is interrupted. Importantly though, when goal start dates are self-chosen, goal commitment is influenced by temporal landmarks.

XII. STUDY 4

Previous research in social and consumer psychology highlights the importance of understanding whether individuals are aware of their own biases and whether they can accurately forecast future events (Hsee & Zhang, 2004; Campbell & Warren, 2015; Tully & Meyvis, 2017). Thus, Study 4 seeks to determine whether individuals are aware of the motivational influences associated with the Fresh Start Effect and selection source. That is, is it obvious that greater motivation is experienced for self-determined goal start days that correspond with temporal landmarks? Will people predict this effect when considering the motivation of others? If the influence of temporal landmarks and selection source is intuitive, predictions of others' motivation should mirror participants' experienced motivation (i.e., goal commitment should be greater on Mondays for self-selected goal start days for respondents in the participate vs. imagine conditions). However, if the results differ between these two conditions, people may not be aware of these biases in motivation.

Study 4 examines consumers' ability to forecast the interactive effects of start-date selector and goal start date utilizing a 2 (selection source: self vs. other) x 2 (day of the week: Monday vs. Saturday) x 2 (format: participate vs. imagine) between-subjects design. Three hundred eighty participants were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Respondents, ages 19-77 ($M = 39$; 50% female), were randomly assigned to one of eight conditions.

All respondents read a scenario about a fitness-related challenge. Like the previous studies, respondents in the participate conditions read that they would be participating in a step challenge hosted by their employer in April 2021. Respondents in the self-choice conditions were informed that they could choose their own start date from the calendar dates highlighted in green. In the self-choice/Monday condition, respondents viewed the calendar with four Mondays highlighted in green (i.e., April 5th, 12th, 19th, and 26th) and chose their start date. Respondents in the self-choice/Saturday condition viewed the calendar with four Saturdays highlighted in green (i.e., April 3rd, 10th, 17th, and 24th) and chose their start date. In the other-choice conditions, respondents read that their employer chose the start date of the step challenge. Specifically, respondents in the other-choice/Monday condition read that their employer chose Monday, April 5th as the step challenge start date, whereas respondents in the other-choice/Saturday condition read that their employer chose for the step challenge to begin on Saturday, April 3rd.

Respondents in the imagine conditions read similar instructions, but instead of participating themselves, they were asked to imagine another person who would be participating in this step challenge. Respondents in the self-choice conditions read that this person chose their own start date from the calendar dates highlighted in green. In the self-choice/Monday condition, respondents predicted which date the step challenge participant selected (i.e., April 5th, 12th, 19th, and 26th). Respondents in the self-choice/Saturday condition viewed the calendar with four Saturdays highlighted in green and predicted which date the step challenge selected (i.e., April 3rd, 10th, 17th, and 24th). In the other-choice conditions, respondents read that the step challenge participant's employer chose the start date of the step challenge. Specifically, respondents in the other-choice/Monday condition read that the participant's employer chose

Monday, April 5th, whereas respondents in the other/Saturday condition read that the participant's employer chose Saturday, April 3rd.

After reading their assigned scenario, all respondents estimated the number of daily steps taken during this challenge and answered items gauging goal commitment. In the participate conditions, participants were asked to indicate their own commitment to this goal, whereas in the imagine conditions, they indicated how committed they felt that the described person would be (Devezer et. al., 2014).

Study 4 Results

Daily step estimates for all conditions ranged from 200 to 15,000 ($M = 5,725$; $SD = 4,115$), and the average number of daily steps predicted did not differ across conditions ($F(7, 372) = 0.58, p = .77$). Of the 190 participants permitted to choose their own start date, 77% (146/190) chose to start pursuing their goal on the first date option (see Table 11). Of those selecting from the Monday options in the *participate* condition, 91% (42/46) selected to pursue their goal on Monday, April 5th. Of those selecting from the Monday options in the *imagine* condition, 70% (35/50) selected to pursue their goal on Monday, April 5th. Of those selecting from the Saturday options in the *participate* condition, 80% (42/50) selected to pursue their goal on Saturday, April 3rd. Of those selecting from the Saturday options in the *imagine* condition, 61% (27/44) selected to pursue their goal on Saturday, April 3rd. The results of chi-squared tests indicate that the distribution of selected dates differs between the *participate* and *imagine* conditions for both Monday ($\chi^2(3) = 9.98; p < .05$) and Saturday conditions ($\chi^2(3) = 10.74; p < .05$).

Table 11: Study 4 Frequencies of Chosen Dates

	<i>Participate</i>		<i>Imagine</i>	
Selected Dates (Self-Select/Monday)	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Monday, April 5 th	42	91.3%	35	70%
Monday, April 12 th	1	2.2%	10	20%
Monday, April 19 th	1	2.2%	4	8%
Monday, April 26 th	2	4.3%	1	2%
Cumulative	46	100%	50	100%
Selected Dates (Self-Select/Saturday)	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Saturday, April 3 rd	42	84%	27	61.4%
Saturday, April 10 th	5	10%	11	25%
Saturday, April 17 th	1	2%	6	13.6%
Saturday, April 24 th	2	4%	0	0%
Cumulative	50	100%	44	100%

To test the hypothesized moderated moderation model, Process Model 3 was used with 10,000 bootstrap samples (Hayes, 2018). Specifically, this analysis tested whether the interaction of selection source by day of the week differed based on scenario format (i.e., participate vs. imagine). The results indicate a significant three-way interaction of selection source by day of the week by format ($b = -.82, t(372) = -2.00, se = .41, p < .05, 95\% \text{ CI} [-1.63, -.02]$), suggesting that the moderation by selection source on the relationship between day of the week on goal commitment depends on format. Replicating the results of Study 1, for those in the participate

conditions, the effect of day of the week on goal commitment is moderated by selection source [$\theta_{day \times selection\ source \rightarrow commitment}$] (format = participate) = .80, $F(1, 372) = 7.46$, $p < .01$], such that participants in the self-choice condition feel more committed to the goal when they choose between Mondays than when they choose between Saturdays ($M_{Monday-Self-Participate} = 6.12$ vs. $M_{Saturday-Self-Participate} = 5.42$). Among participants in the other-choice condition, the specific start date did not affect goal commitment ($M_{Monday-Other-Participate} = 5.77$ vs. $M_{Saturday-Other-Participate} = 5.87$; see Figure 6). However, for those in the imagine conditions, the effect of day of the week on goal commitment is not moderated by selection source [$\theta_{day \times selection\ source \rightarrow commitment}$] (format = imagine) = -.03, $F(1, 372) = .01$, $p = .93$; see Figure 7].

Figure 6: Study 4 Results Chart for Participate Conditions

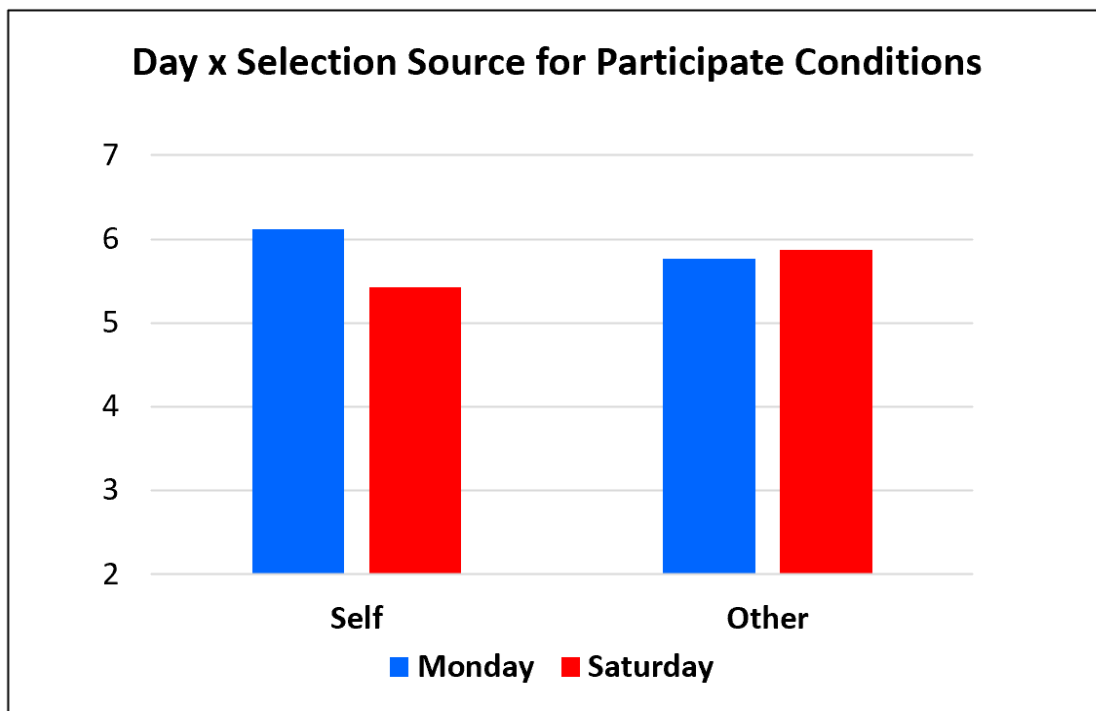
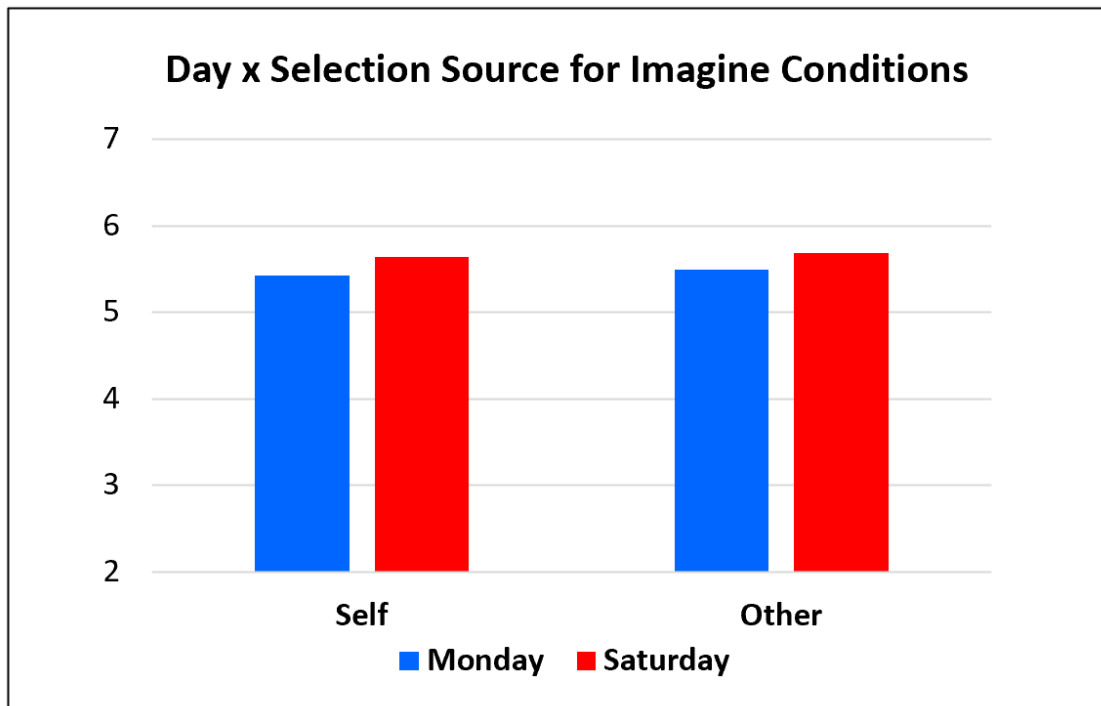


Figure 7: Study 4 Results Chart for Imagine Conditions



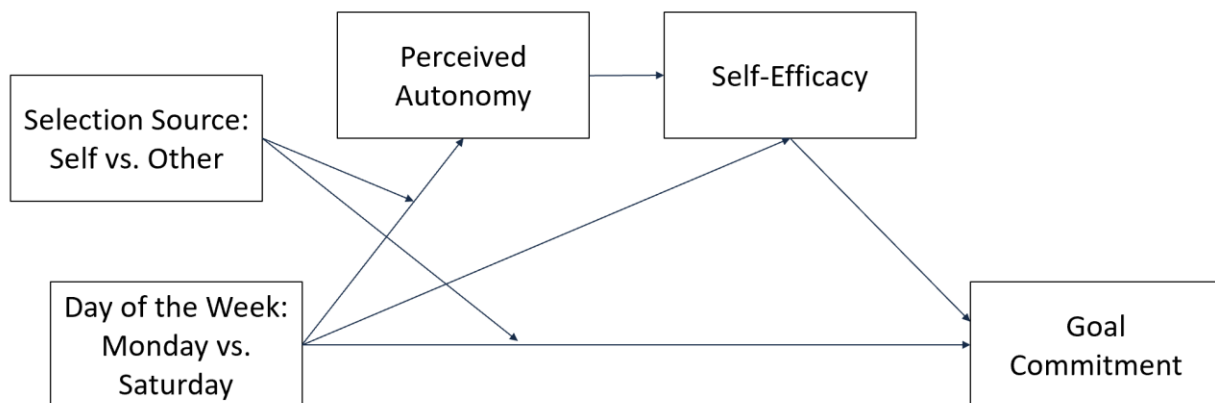
Study 4 Discussion

Study 4 explores consumers' ability to predict the effects of goal start date choice and temporal landmarks on goal commitment. The results suggest that people are not aware that self-selecting the goal start date and starting to pursue a goal on a Monday result in greater goal commitment.

XIII. STUDY 5

Collectively, Studies 1-4 demonstrate a reliable interaction between goal start date and the ability to choose that start date on commitment to the goal. Study 5 turns toward an exploration of the facilitating mechanisms that explain this interaction effect (see Figure 8). To test Hypothesis 2, Study 5 utilized a 2 (selection source: self vs. other) x 2 (day of the week: Monday vs. Saturday) between-subjects design. One hundred seventy-three undergraduate students were recruited for participation through a University student research pool and received course credit in exchange for their participation. Participants, ages 19-28 ($M = 20.69$; 63% female), were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions and were informed that they would be participating in a financial challenge based on the goal of saving money.

Figure 8: Study 5 Conceptual Model



In the self-choice conditions, participants saw a calendar and chose the start date of their financial challenge from the calendar dates highlighted in green. Participants in the self-select/Monday condition chose their start date from four Mondays in October 2019: October 7th, October 14th, October 21st, or October 28th. Those in the self-choice/Saturday condition chose their start date from four Saturdays in October 2019: October 5th, October 12th, October 19th, or October 26th. In the other-choice conditions, participants were informed of their goal start date. Specifically, participants in the other-choice/Monday condition read that the financial challenge started on Monday, October 7th, whereas participants in the other-choice/Saturday condition read that the financial challenge started on Saturday, October 5th. The assigned dates for the other-choice conditions were chosen because they correspond with the first of the four dates offered as options to participants in the self-select conditions.

After reading their assigned scenario, all participants answered questions regarding the constructs of interest—goal commitment, perceived autonomy, and self-efficacy. As in Study 1, goal commitment was measured using five items from a scale developed by Devezer et. al. (2014; $\alpha = .88$). Perceived autonomy was captured using a five-item task-specific measure of autonomy adapted from the job demands/characteristics scale (Hackman & Lawler, 1971, Hackman & Oldham, 1975) and the autonomy dimension of the Player Experience of Need Satisfaction (PENS) scale (Ryan, Rigby, & Przybylski, 2006; $\alpha = .90$). These items assessed the extent to which participants felt they had freedom and choice in the goal setting process (e.g., “I experienced a lot of freedom in setting this goal”). Self-efficacy was measured using eight items adapted from the General Self-Efficacy Scale (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; $\alpha = .90$; e.g. “I believe I can succeed at this goal if I set my mind to it”). Full scales are provided in Appendix D.

Study 5 Results

Of the 88 participants permitted to choose their own start date, 66% (58/88) chose to start pursuing their goal on the first date option (see Table 12). Of those selecting from the Monday options, 76% (34/45) selected to pursue their goal on Monday, October 7th. Of those selecting from the Saturday options, 56% (24/43) selected to pursue their goal on Saturday, October 5th.

Table 12: Study 5 Frequencies of Chosen Dates

Selected Dates (Self-Select/Monday)	Frequency	Percentage
Monday, October 7 th	34	75.6%
Monday, October 14 th	8	17.8%
Monday, October 21 st	3	6.7%
Monday, October 28 th	0	0%
Cumulative	45	100%
Selected Dates (Self-Select/Saturday)	Frequency	Percentage
Saturday, October 5 th	24	55.8%
Saturday, October 12 th	13	30.2%
Saturday, October 19 th	3	7%
Saturday, October 26 th	3	7%
Cumulative	43	100%

To test the hypothesized moderated serial mediation model, Process Model 86 was used with 10,000 bootstrap samples (Hayes, 2018). Specifically, this analysis tested whether the serial

indirect effect of day of the week on goal commitment through perceived autonomy and self-efficacy was moderated by goal selection source. The results reveal a significant difference between the conditional indirect effects of the day of the week → perceived autonomy → self-efficacy → goal commitment serial mediation paths based on the goal selection source (Index of Moderated Mediation [IMM] = .17, 95% CI [.06, .33]). When goal start days are self-chosen, there is a significant negative indirect effect of day of the week on goal commitment through perceived autonomy and self-efficacy (IE = -.09, 95% CI [-.19, -.03]). For self-chosen goal start days, perceived autonomy was lower when choosing to start on a Saturday compared to starting on Monday ($b = -.66$, $t(169) = -2.85$, $se = .23$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-1.11, -.20]), and less autonomy influenced self-efficacy beliefs ($b = .25$, $t(170) = 5.72$, $se = .04$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.17, .34]). Self-efficacy beliefs, in turn, affected goal commitment ($b = .55$, $t(167) = 6.04$, $se = .09$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.38, .74]). However, for other-chosen goal start days, there is a significant positive indirect effect of day of the week on goal commitment through perceived autonomy and self-efficacy (IE = .08, 95% CI [.01, .18]). For other-chosen goal starts, perceived autonomy was greater when starting on a Saturday compared to starting on Monday ($b = .56$, $t(169) = 2.41$, $se = .23$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.10, 1.02]). Greater perceived autonomy influenced self-efficacy beliefs ($p < .01$), and greater self-efficacy beliefs affected goal commitment ($p < .01$). The analysis also shows that self-efficacy alone is not a significant mediator of the interaction effect of selection source and day of the week, as evidenced by the inclusion of zero within the confidence interval of the indirect effect (IE = -.01, SE = .05, 95% CI [-.11, .10]).

Study 5 Discussion

The objective of Study 5 was to identify the process through which goal state date and the

ability to choose that start date affect goal commitment. Supporting Hypothesis 2, the results suggest a serial mediation effect where the interaction of selection source and day of the week affects perceptions of autonomy, which then influences perceptions of self-efficacy and, ultimately, goal commitment. Existing research posits that self-efficacy is the facilitating mechanism of the Fresh Start Effect (Dai, 2018), but the present study shows that self-efficacy alone is not sufficient in explaining the Fresh Start Effect for different selection sources.

XIV. STUDY 6

The last empirical study of this dissertation seeks to determine if the Fresh Start Effect has an impact beyond the initial feelings of goal commitment by assessing goal attainment. Previous research has yet to determine if the Fresh Start Effect has a lasting effect on goal pursuit efforts (Dai et al., 2014). An examination of existing research on motivation and behavior does not provide sufficient support for predicting either outcome (i.e., Fresh Start Effect affects/does not affect goal attainment). On one hand, the Fresh Start Effect predicts motivation to pursue aspirational behavior, suggesting that it only influences the initiation of goal-directed behavior. Consider the fact that approximately 34% of US adults set New Year's resolutions in 2019 (Statista, 2019). Of these adults, nearly 54% abandoned their resolutions within one month, and only 9% reported adhering to these resolutions (Statista, 2019). Thus, temporal landmarks may only increase goal commitment and short-term behavior and not result in sustained motivation. On the other hand, previous research finds that motivation and intentions are often predictive of behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Gollwitzer, 1999).

Certain factors, such as goal commitment, goal specificity, and how challenging the goal is, are valuable predictors of goal attainment (Hollenbeck, Williams, & Klein, 1989; Locke, 1996; Seijts, Latham, Tasa, & Latham, 2004). Additionally, behavioral intentions are often viewed as indicators of future behavior (Ajzen, 1988). The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) posits that performance of a behavior is determined by intentions and perceived behavioral

control (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). TPB has been used to explain various types of behavior, including voting behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1981; Watters, 1989; Netemeyer, Burton, & Johnson, 1991), health-related behaviors (Godin & Kok, 1996; Hagger, Chatzisarantis, & Biddle, 2002), recycling behavior (Aguilar-Luzon, Garcia-Martinez, Calvo-Salguero, & Salinas, 2012), green purchase behavior (Albayrak, Aksoy, & Caber, 2013), and donation behavior (Anker, Feeley, & Kim, 2010). However, the conditions under which this theory applies may inhibit its use. For example, to be predictive of behavior, intentions and perceived control must remain stable between assessment and observation, and any intervening event during this time may inhibit accurate prediction of behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Similarly, TPB does not discern between initiation and maintenance of behavior (Sheeran, Conner, & Norman, 2001; Jekauc, Voelkle, Wagner, Mess, Reiner, & Renner, 2015). Consequently, during goal pursuit, the impact of intentions on behavior over time may be confounded by various situational, environmental, personal, or social factors. Given these opposing perspectives and the lack of empirical work in this area, Study 6 employs a longitudinal field study, designed to examine the effects of goal start date and ability to choose that start date on goal commitment and goal attainment. Existing studies on the Fresh Start Effect have not examined the influence of temporal landmarks beyond initial reports of goal commitment. Thus, Study 6 contributes to the literature by examining the impact of temporal landmarks on goal attainment using real-world behavior.

In March 2020, two hundred thirty-three undergraduate marketing students from a University research pool completed an initial survey to determine their eligibility for participation. To be considered for participation, respondents had to indicate their willingness to track their daily steps for three weeks using a fitness tracking device (i.e., Apple Watch or

FitBit). One hundred twenty-five respondents were excluded from participation because they either did not own or utilize a fitness tracking device, or they opted out of participating in the step challenge. The remaining one hundred eight respondents were randomly assigned to one of four conditions (self-choice/Monday, self-choice/Saturday, other-choice/Monday, other-choice/Saturday). Forty respondents did not complete the post-study survey, and twenty-five students did not upload documentation supporting their daily step values, resulting in a final sample of forty-three students ($M_{age} = 21$; 75% female).

In the self-choice conditions, participants saw a calendar and chose the start date of their step challenge from the calendar dates highlighted in green. Participants in the self-choice/Monday condition chose their start date from four Mondays in April 2020: April 6th, April 13th, April 20th, or April 27th. Those in the self-choice/Saturday condition chose their start date from four Saturdays in April 2020: April 4th, April 11th, April 18th, or April 25th. In the other-choice conditions, participants were informed of their goal start date. Specifically, participants in the other-choice/Monday condition were informed that the step challenge started on Monday, April 6th, whereas participants in the other-choice/Saturday condition were informed that the challenge started on Saturday, April 4th (see Appendix C for stimuli).

After reading about the step challenge, students answered five items to measure initial goal commitment (Devezer et al., 2014) and were asked to estimate the number of steps they would take daily during this challenge. Respondents then agreed to keep track of their daily step activity for three weeks using a fitness tracking device (i.e., Apple Watch or FitBit). Upon completion of the three-week step challenge, respondents completed a second survey. To measure goal attainment, students reported their daily step values and uploaded screenshots from their tracking devices to confirm their step activity (See Figure 9). Step challenge participants

who successfully completed the step challenge study were entered into a random drawing for one of three \$100 Amazon gift cards.

Figure 9: Weekly Step Data Documentation Example

3,681	Apr 12, 2020 >
10,263	Apr 11, 2020 >
7,607	Apr 10, 2020 >
7,928	Apr 9, 2020 >
6,762	Apr 8, 2020 >
10,123	Apr 7, 2020 >
11,851	Apr 6, 2020 >

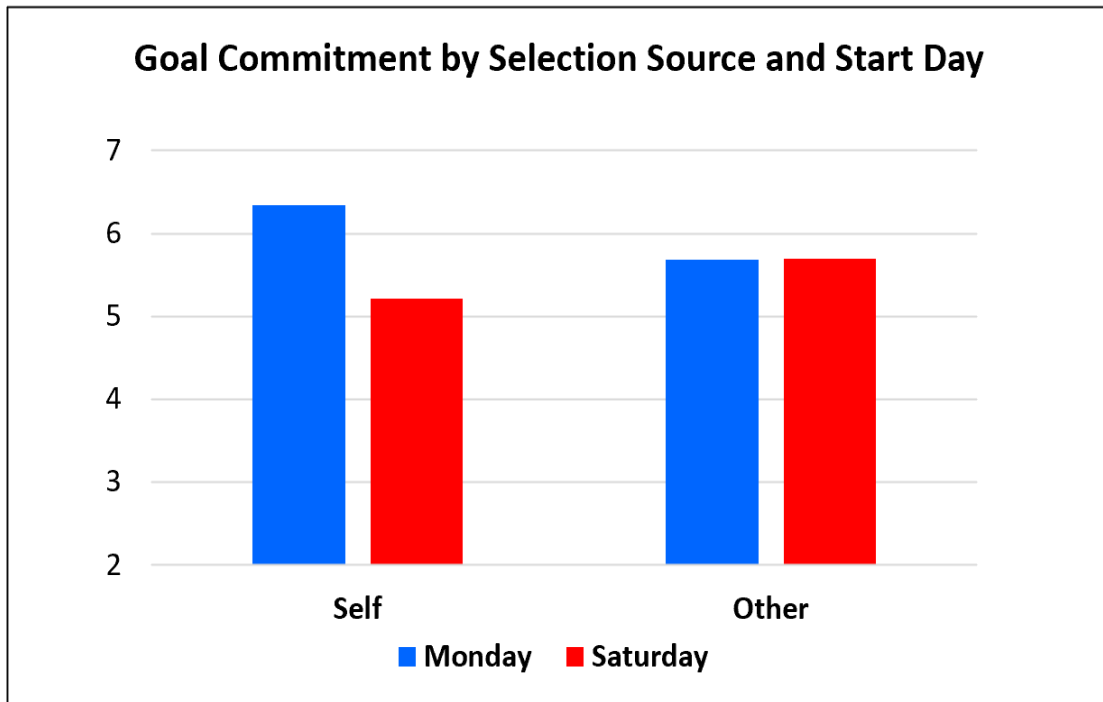
Summary Browse

Study 6 Results

Responses from the initial survey were analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results show a significant interaction of day of the week by selection source on goal commitment ($F(1, 39) = 4.37, p < .05$; see Figure 10). The results reveal that when participants selected their own start date, they reported greater goal commitment when goal pursuit was scheduled to begin on Mondays ($M_{self-Monday} = 6.46$) than on Saturdays ($M_{self-Saturday} = 5.23; F(1, 39) = 13.11, p < .01$). However, when respondents did not select their goal start dates,

goal commitment did not differ based on the scheduled goal start date ($M_{\text{other-Monday}} = 5.86$ vs. $M_{\text{other-Saturday}} = 5.54$); $F(1, 39) = 1.42, p = .24$). This finding replicates the results of Studies 1, 3, and 4 in a real-world setting.

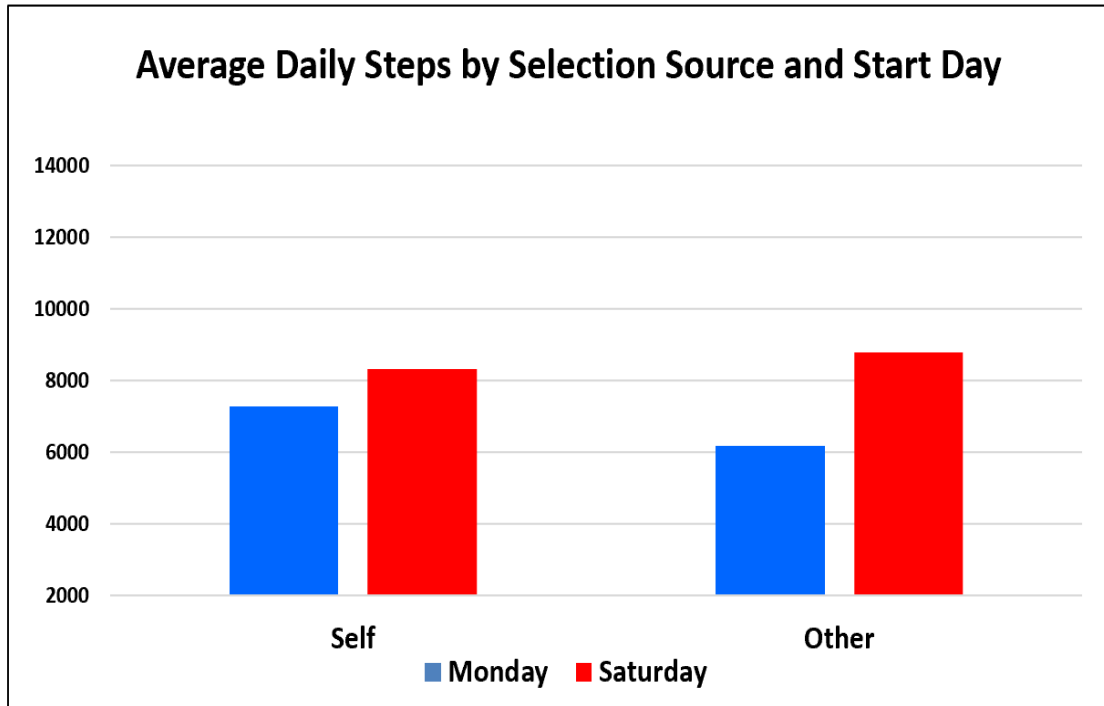
Figure 10: Study 6 Pre-Study Results Chart



Results from the post-study analysis show average daily step values ranged from 2,352 to 13,595 ($M = 7,573, SD = 2,906$). The findings show that the interaction of day of the week and selection source on average daily steps is not significant ($F(1, 39) = .78, p = .38$; see Figure 11). Additionally, the findings highlight a significant main effect of day of the week on daily steps, such that daily step values were lower when goal pursuit started on Monday ($M_{\text{Monday}} = 6,733$) than on Saturdays ($M_{\text{Saturday}} = 8,549$; $F(1, 39) = 4.24, p < .05$). However, the main effect of

selection source of daily step values was not significant $F(1, 39) = .12, p = .73$; see Figure 11).

Figure 11: Study 6 Post-Study Results Chart



Study 6 Discussion

The goal of the field study was to examine whether goal start date and the ability to choose that start date affected not only goal commitment, but also goal attainment.

Unfortunately, my ability to draw conclusions from the data collected from this study is limited by several factors not anticipated while designing the experiment. First, the COVID-19 pandemic reached the United States during the course of the experiment. In fact, the Governor of Mississippi ordered a statewide stay-at-home mandate which began on April 3, 2020.

Participants in the Saturday conditions began their challenge on April 4, 2020, and the

participants in the Monday conditions started on April 6, 2020. Stay-at-home orders, prevalent in April 2020, likely inhibited participants' ability to reach (and/or interest in) their step goals. Additionally, due to the disruption of the Spring 2020 academic semester, participation in this study was lower than anticipated, resulting in a small number of respondents per condition. Consequently, the overall sample size (i.e., forty-three students) prohibits reliable statistical analyses and undermines any conclusions derived from the present study. Once some normalcy is restored, I intend to rerun the present study with a larger group of respondents.

XV. GENERAL DISCUSSION

Across six studies, this research identifies an important boundary condition of the Fresh Start Effect: goal start date choice. The results from Study 1 provide initial support for the influential role of choosing the goal start date and show that the Fresh Start Effect only occurs when the start dates are self-chosen. Goal commitment was significantly higher when participants chose to begin pursuing their goal on a Monday compared to Saturday. However, goal commitment did not differ between days when goal start dates were chosen by another person. Study 2 provides additional support for this effect using objective data collected from Google Trends. This analysis shows that search interest of goal-related behavior was greatest on Monday for self-chosen start dates and decreased as the week progressed. However, for other-chosen start date behavior, search interest was greatest on Tuesday and did not support the influence of temporal landmarks.

Study 3 assessed whether the relationship of the other person choosing the goal start date affected the observed pattern of effects illustrated in Studies 1 and 2. Supporting the findings from Studies 1 and 2, goal commitment was influenced by temporal landmarks for self-chosen goal start dates, such that commitment was greater on Mondays compared to Saturdays. However, the relationship of the other person choosing the goal start date did not affect goal commitment. That is, goal commitment was not influenced by temporal landmarks for either the near or distant other-chosen goal start dates. Next, Study 4 examined whether participants are

aware of the motivational biases that result from the influence of temporal landmarks and goal start date choice. The results show that people are not aware of and cannot predict these biases. For example, the effects of goal start date choice and temporal landmarks on goal commitment were different depending on whether people were active participants in goal pursuit compared to those who were imagining another person pursuing the same goal.

Study 5 explores the facilitating mechanisms that explain the interaction effect of goal start date choice and temporal landmarks on goal commitment. Perceived autonomy and self-efficacy beliefs, two critical components of Self-Determination Theory, are identified as sequential mediators of this effect. For self-chosen goal start dates, perceived autonomy was reduced when participants chose to start pursuing their goal on Saturday. Lower perceived autonomy resulted in less commitment to the goal through inhibited self-efficacy. The opposite was true for other-chosen goal start dates. Specifically, participants reported greater autonomy when goal pursuit started on Saturdays. Greater autonomy then positively affected self-efficacy beliefs, and stronger self-efficacy beliefs enhanced goal commitment. Study 6, a longitudinal field study, was designed to assess whether the interaction effect of goal start date choice and day of the week influenced goal pursuit efforts beyond initial reports of goal commitment. Although an effect was found on goal commitment in the pre-study survey, it did not affect actual goal-related behavior during the course of the study. However, participation in this study was hindered by the COVID-19 pandemic.

Theoretical Contributions

Existing research on the Fresh Start Effect has identified several boundary conditions of this effect, including consumer mindset (Tu & Soman, 2014; Mathew, 2018); the categorization

of time (Tu & Soman, 2014); regulatory focus (Corcoran & Peetz, 2014); calendar format (Myrseth, 2009; Peetz & Wilson, 2013; Peetz & Epstude, 2016; Davydenko & Peetz, 2019); temporal landmark saliency (Peetz & Wilson, 2013; Wilson et al., 2012); construal level (Hennecke & Converse, 2017); and temporal framing (LeBoeuf et al., 2014). Although existing research on goal pursuit acknowledges that self-regulatory processes play an important role in deciding when and how to pursue self-improvement goals (Freitas et al., 2002; Gollwitzer & Brandstatter, 1997), how these processes interact with temporal landmarks has not been studied. In this dissertation, I extend our understanding of the Fresh Start Effect by identifying an additional boundary condition – whether the goal start date is self-determined or chosen by an external agent. My empirical studies consistently show that the Fresh Start Effect only occurs for self-determined goal start dates (i.e., goal commitment is greater at the beginning of the week for self-determined goal start dates). When goal start dates are chosen by external agents, motivation to pursue aspirational goals is not affected by temporal landmarks. Further, I identify the mechanisms that explain the interaction effect of goal start date choice and temporal landmarks on goal commitment as perceived autonomy and self-efficacy beliefs.

The insights gleaned from this dissertation shed light on some of the hidden influences that affect our goal pursuit efforts and aspirational behavior. Although many researchers have sought to understand various interpersonal, social, and situational factors that affect motivation (Shiv & Fedorikhin, 1999; Botti, Broniarczyk, Häubl, Hill, Huang, Kahn, Kopalle, Lehmann, Urbany, & Wansink, 2008, Sela, Berger, & Liu, 2009, Milkman, 2012, Toure-Tillery & Fishbach, 2012, Townsend & Liu, 2012), sparse research has investigated the influence of temporal factors on promoting or inhibiting goal-related behavior (Dai et al., 2014).

Understanding when people are most motivated to pursue their goals may reduce nearsighted

planning and decision making and enhance psychological, emotional, and physical well-being over time. Individuals pursuing personal goals should embrace their fresh start feelings when choosing when to begin creating positive changes in their lives, but should know that all days are “equally fresh” when someone else chooses the goal start date.

Managerial Implications

The findings from this research also have implications for both advertising decision-making and employee performance management. In 2019, one in five Americans extensively use fitness tracking devices, and the market is projected to grow due to high demand (Fortune Business Insights, 2020). Consumers spent \$46 billion on wearable fitness tracking devices in 2019, and spending is projected to reach \$94 billion by 2022 (Statista, 2020). The increased popularity of fitness tracking devices is fueled by growing consumer awareness of the benefits of staying healthy, exercising regularly, changing consumer lifestyles, and the ability to monitor their activities and achieve fitness-related goals. Thus, consumers want to be informed and have more control over their self-improvement efforts. Firms’ advertising efforts for these products could benefit from recognizing the impact of temporal landmarks and self-chosen goal start dates. Indeed, previous research on the effectiveness of advertising messages shows that the timing of advertising matters (Tellis, 2004; Braun-LaTour & LaTour, 2005; Narayanan, Manchanda, & Chintagunta, 2005; Chandy, Tellis, Macinnis, & Thaiwanich, 2001). Strategic advertising campaigns could be launched at specific points in time (e.g., beginning of the week, beginning of the month) and could emphasize that consumers have the choice to make positive changes in their lives and highlight that they have control over their future. By doing so, they can enhance consumers’ perceived autonomy, self-efficacy beliefs, and commitment to achieving

their self-improvement goals.

Performance management of employees, in the form of goal setting, is relevant to the findings of this dissertation. When managers encourage employee goal setting, they should be mindful of the influences of who chooses the goal start date and how temporal landmarks affect motivation. For assigned goals, managers need not be constrained by their usual practices of setting employee goals that correspond with the beginning of a particular time period (e.g., quarterly, annually). As my findings show, when others choose goal start dates, motivation is not impacted by temporal landmarks. Thus, managers have more flexibility when designing performance-enhancing programs. However, my findings suggest that when employees participate in choosing their own start date, they are more sensitive to temporal landmarks and should not feel constrained by imposed goal parameters.

Limitations and Future Research

One of the primary limitations of my empirical studies is the use of self-reported measures of goal commitment in hypothetical goal pursuit scenarios. Although goal commitment scales possess high reliability and validity and are commonly employed to measure performance-related outcomes (Seijts & Latham, 2000; Locke & Latham, 2002), self-reported measures may not accurately predict real-world behavior. To offset this limitation, I supplemented the experimental studies with objective data from a Google Trends analysis and conducted a longitudinal field study. Unfortunately, unforeseen factors affected my ability to draw meaningful conclusions from the longitudinal field study (i.e., COVID-19 pandemic). Therefore, future research should examine how goal start date choice and temporal landmarks affect goal attainment and could consider the role of feedback during the goal pursuit process (Butler &

Winne, 1995; Shepperd, Ouellette, & Fernandez, 1996; Tiefenbeck, Goette, Degen, Tasic, Fleisch, Lalive, & Staake, 2018).

Additional research could examine various dispositional traits that may influence the extent to which people are affected by temporal landmarks. Are there certain types of people who are more susceptible to the influence of temporal landmarks and goal start date selection source? For example, people who have stronger propensities to plan, prefer consistency, and have an internal locus of control may be more sensitive to temporal landmarks and whether goal start dates are self-chosen (Cialdini, Trost, & Newsom, 1995; Nail, Correll, Drake, Glenn, Scott, & Stuckey, 2001; Lynch, Netemeyer, Spiller, & Zammit, 2010). Planners tend to be more conscious of their time, are schedule-oriented, have a desire for control, and their actions reflect habitual tendencies and automaticity of routines (Bargh & Barndollar, 1996; Schmidt, Beck, & Gillespie, 2013; Steel et al., 2018). Additionally, future research could examine whether state versus action orientation, a key individual difference variable that affects self-regulatory processes, affects the relationship between goal start date selection source and temporal landmarks on motivation (Kuhl, 1981; Bagozzi, Baumgartner, & Yi, 1992).

Finally, the studies of this dissertation are limited to self-chosen and other-chosen goal start dates, but research on goal setting theory has compared three types of goal sources: assigned, self-set, and participatively set goals (Locke & Latham, 2002). Future research could expand on the findings of this dissertation by examining motivation and the Fresh Start Effect using assigned, self-set, and participatively set goals. My analyses using assigned and self-set goals show that autonomy and self-efficacy are important psychological needs that influence motivation. However, Self-Determination Theory posits that there are *three* psychological needs that must be met to ensure sustained psychological interest, development, and wellness (Deci &

Ryan, 2017). Specifically, autonomy, competence, and *relatedness* are described as the three “nutrients that are essential for growth, integrity, and well-being” (Deci & Ryan, 2017, p. 10). Relatedness refers to a basic need that is experienced by “feeling connected to close others and by being a significant member of social groups” (Deci & Ryan, 2017, p. 11). Relationships motivation theory highlights that both receiving support from others and giving support to others enhances intrinsic motivation and well-being (Ryan & Hawley, 2017; Deci & Ryan, 2017). When pursuing goals in group contexts, supportive others may enhance goal pursuit efforts by increasing individual and group resources, functioning, and cohesion (Waller, 1998; Appiah, 2005; Decety & Jackson, 2004). Future research could examine whether the person choosing the goal start date affects the Fresh Start Effect when goals are jointly pursued in group contexts.

LIST OF REFERENCES

REFERENCES

- Abelson, R. P., Aronson, E., McGuire, W. J., Newcomb, T. M., Rosenberg, M. J., & Tannenbaum, P. H. (Eds.). (1968). *Theories of Cognitive Consistency: A Sourcebook*. Chicago: Rand-McNally.
- Adam, B. (1990). *Time and Social Theory*, Polity Press, Cambridge.
- Aguilar-Luzón, M. d. C., García-Martínez, J. M. Á., Calvo-Salguero, A., & Salinas, J. M. (2012). Comparative Study between the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Value-Belief-Norm Model Regarding the Environment on Spanish Housewives' Recycling Behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 42(11), 2797-2833.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From Intentions to Actions: A Theory of Planned Behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckman (Eds.), *Action-Control: From Cognition to Behavior* (pp. 11-39). Heidelberg: Springer.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The Theory of Planned Behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179-211.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (2005). The Influence of Attitudes on Behavior. In D. Albarracín, B. T. Johnson, & M. P. Zanna (Eds.), *The Handbook of Attitudes* (pp. 173-221). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Albayrak, T., Aksoy, S., & Caber, M. (2013). The Effect of Environmental Concern and Scepticism on Green Purchase Behaviour. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 31(1), 27-39.
- Anker, A. E., Feeley, T. H., & Kim, H. (2010). Examining the Attitude-Behavior Relationship in Prosocial Donation Domains. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 40(6), 1293-1324.
- Appiah, K. A. (2005). *The Ethics of Identity*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Ariely, D., & Wertenbroch, K. (2002). Procrastination, Deadlines, and Performance: Self-Control by Precommitment. *Psychological Science*, 13(3), 219-224.
- Asch, S. E. (1955). Opinions and Social Pressure. *Scientific American*, 193(5), 31-35.

- Atkinson, J. W. (1958). Towards Experimental Analysis of Human Motivation in Terms of Motives, Expectancies, and Incentives. In J. W. Atkinson (Ed.), *Motives in Fantasy, Action and Society* (pp. 288-305). Princeton: Van Nostrand.
- Atkinson, J. W. (1964). *An Introduction to Motivation*. Princeton: Van Nostrand.
- Austin, J., & Vancouver, J. (1996). Goal Constructs in Psychology: Structure, Process, and Content. *Psychological Bulletin*, *120*, 338-375.
- Ayers, J. W., Althouse, B. M., Johnson, M., Dredze, M., & Cohen, J. E. (2014). What's the Healthiest Day? Circaseptan (Weekly) Rhythms in Healthy Considerations. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, *47*(1), 73-76.
- Bagozzi, R. P., Baumgartner, H., & Yi, Y. (1992). State versus Action Orientation and the Theory of Reasoned Action: An Application to Coupon Usage. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *18*, 505-518.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs: NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Human Agency in Social Cognitive Theory. *American Psychologist*, *44*, 1175-1184.
- Bandura, A. (1991). Self-Efficacy Mechanism in Physiological Activation and Health-Promoting Behavior. In J. Madden, IV (Ed.), *Neurobiology of Learning, Emotion and Affect* (pp. 229-269). New York: Raven.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-Efficacy. In V. S. Ramachandran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Human Behavior* (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. New York: Freeman.
- Bandura, A. & Wood, R. E. (1989). Effect of Perceived Controllability and Performance Standards on Self-Regulation of Complex Decision-Making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *56*, 805-814.
- Bargh, J. A., & Barndollar, K. (1996). Automaticity in Action: The Unconscious as Repository of Chronic Goals and Motives. In *The Psychology of Action: Linking Cognition and Motivation to Behavior*, eds P. M. Gollwitzer and J. A. Bargh (New York, NY: The Guilford Press), 457-481.
- Bargh, J. A., Gollwitzer, P. M., & Oettingen, G. (2010). Motivation. In S. Fiske, D. Gilbert, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Psychology* (5th ed., pp. 268-316). Hoboken: Wiley & Sons.

- Barron, K. E., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (2001). Achievement Goals and Optimal Motivation: Testing Multiple Goal Models. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80, 706–722.
- Bartels, D. M., & Rips, L. J. (2010). Psychological Connectedness and Intertemporal Choice. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 139, 49–69.
- Bauman, Z. (2007). *Liquid Times*. Cambridge: Polity.
- Belk, R. W. (1988). Possessions and the Extended Self. *Journal of Consumer Research* 15(2), 139–68.
- Bender, J. B. & Wellbery, D. E. (1991). *Chronotypes: The Construction of Time*. Stanford University Press, Stanford.
- Botti, S., Broniarczyk, S., Häubl, G., Hill, R., Huang, Y., Kahn, B., Kopalle, P., Lehmann, D., Urbany, J., & Wansink, B. (2008). Choice under Restrictions. *Marketing Letters* 19(3/4), 183-199.
- Botti, S., & Iyengar, S. S. (2004). The Psychological Pleasure and Pain of Choosing: When People Prefer Choosing at the Cost of Subsequent Satisfaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 87(3), 312-326.
- Botti, S., & McGill, A. L. (2006). When Choosing is Not Deciding: The Effect of Perceived Responsibility on Satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 33, 211-219.
- Braun-LaTour, K. A., & LaTour, M. (2005). Transforming Consumer Experience: When Timing Matters. *Journal of Advertising*, 34(3), 19-30.
- Britton, B. K., & Tesser, A. (1991). Effects of Time-Management Practices on College Grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83, 405–410.
- Brookins, P., Goerg, S. J., & Kube, S. (2017). Self-Chosen Goals, Incentives, and Effort. mimeo, *Max Planck Institute for Research on Collective Goods*.
- Buhrau, D., & Sujan, M. (2015). Temporal Mindsets and Self-Regulation: The Motivation and Implementation of Self-Regulatory Behaviors. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 25(2), 231-244.
- Butler, D., & Winne, P. (1995). Feedback and Self-Regulated Learning: A Theoretical Synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, 65, 245–281.
- Camerer, C., Babcock, L., Loewenstein, G., & Thaler, R. (1997). Labor Supply of New York City Cabdrivers: One Day at a Time. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 112(2): 407-441.

- Campbell, M. C., & Warren, C. (2015). The Progress Bias in Goal Pursuit: When One Step Forward Seems Larger than One Step Back. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 41(5), 1316–1331.
- Carnevale, P., & Probst, T. (1998). Social Values and Social Conflict in Creative Problem Solving and Categorization. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 1300-1309.
- Chandy, R. K., Tellis, G. J., Macinnis, D. J., & Thaivanich, P. (2001). What to Say When: Advertising Appeals in Evolving Markets. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38(4), 399-414.
- Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a New General Self-Efficacy Scale. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4(1), 62-83.
- Cialdini, R. B. (2007). *Influence: The Psychology of Persuasion*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.
- Cialdini, R. B., & Goldstein, N. J. (2004). Social Influence: Compliance and Conformity. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 55, 591-621.
- Cialdini, R. B., Trost, M. R., & Newsom, J. T. (1995). Preference for Consistency: The Development of a Valid Measure and the Discovery of Surprising Behavioral Implications. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(2), 318.
- Cooley, C. H. (1964). *Human Nature and the Social Order*. New York: Schocken Books.
- Corcoran, K. & Peetz, J. (2014). Looking Towards the Past or the Future Self: How Regulatory Focus Affects Temporal Comparisons and Subsequent Motivation. *Self and Identity*, 13(1), 81-99.
- Corgnet, B., Gomez-Minambres, J., & Roberto Hernan-Gonzalez, R. (2015). Goal Setting and Monetary Incentives: When Large Stakes are Not Enough. *Management Science*, 61(12): 2926-2944.
- Crawford, V. P., & Meng, J. (2011). New York City Cab Drivers' Labor Supply Revisited: Reference-Dependent Preferences with Rational-Expectations Targets for Hours and Income. *American Economic Review*, 101(5), 1912-1932.
- Cross, G. S., & Proctor, R. N. (2014). *Packaged Pleasures: How Technology and Marketing Revolutionized Desire*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Custers, R., & Aarts, H. (2010). The Unconscious Will: How the Pursuit of Goals Operates Outside of Conscious Awareness. *Science*, 329(5987), 47–50.
- Dai, H. (2015). *Putting Your Past Behind You: Why and How Fresh Starts Motivate Goal Pursuit--and When They Backfire*. Publicly Accessible Penn Dissertations.

- Dai, H. (2018). A Double-Edged Sword: How and Why Resetting Performance Metrics Affects Motivation and Performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 148, 12-29.
- Dai, H., & Li, C. (2019). How Experiencing and Anticipating Temporal Landmarks Influence Motivation. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 26, 44-48.
- Dai, H., Milkman, K. L., & Riis, J. (2014). The Fresh Start Effect: Temporal Landmarks Motivate Inspirational Behavior. *Management Science*, 60(10), 2563-2582.
- Dai, H., Milkman, K. L., & Riis, J. (2015). Put Your Imperfections Behind You: Temporal Landmarks Spur Goal Initiation When They Signal New Beginnings. *Psychological Science*, 26(12), 1927-1936.
- Davydenko, M., & Peetz, J. (2019). Does it Matter if a Week Starts on Monday or Sunday? How Calendar Format Can Boost Goal Motivation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 82, 231-237.
- de Charms, R. (1968). *Personal Causation: The Internal Affective Determinants of Behavior*. New York: Academic Press.
- Decety, J., & Jackson, P. L. (2004). The Functional Architecture of Human Empathy. *Behavioral and Cognitive Neuroscience Reviews*, 3(2), 71-100.
- Deci, E. L., Eghrari, H., Patrick, B. C., & Leone, D. R. (1994). Facilitating Internalization: The Self-Determination Theory Perspective. *Journal of Personality*, 62(1), 119-142.
- Deci, E. L., Koestner, R., & Ryan, R. M. (1999). A Meta-Analytic Review of Experiments Examining the Effects of Extrinsic Rewards on Intrinsic Motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(6), 627-668.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1991). A Motivational Approach to Self: Integration in Personality. In R. Dienstbier (Ed.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation: Perspectives on Motivation* (Vol. 38, pp. 237-288). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The “What” and “Why” of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, 227-268.
- Devezer, B., Sprott, D. E., Spangenberg, E. R., & Czellar, S. (2014). Consumer Well-Being: Effects of Subgoal Failures and Goal Importance. *Journal of Marketing*, 78, 118-134.
- Duval, S., & Wicklund, R. A. (1972). *A Theory of Objective Self-Awareness*. Oxford: Academic Press.

- Dweck, C. S. (1996). Implicit Theories as Organizers of Goals and Behavior. In P. M. Gollwitzer & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *The Psychology of Action: Linking Cognition and Motivation to Behavior* (pp. 69-90). New York: Guilford Press.
- Dweck, C. S., Chiu, C. Y., & Hong, Y. Y. (1995). Implicit Theories and Their Role in Judgments and Reactions: A Word from Two Perspectives. *Psychological Inquiry*, 6(4), 267-285.
- Eibach, R. P., Libby, L. K., & Gilovich, T. (2003). When Change in the Self is Mistaken for Change in the World. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84, 917–931.
- Erez, M., & Arad, R. (1986). Participative Goal-Setting: Social, Motivational, and Cognitive Factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(4), 591–597.
- Etkin, J., Evangelidis, I., & Aaker, J. (2015). Pressed for Time? Goal Conflict Shapes How Time is Perceived, Spent, and Valued. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 52, 394-406.
- Farber, H. S. (2008). Reference-Dependent Preferences and Labor Supply: The Case of New York City Taxi Drivers. *American Economic Review*, 98(3): 1069-1082.
- Feather, N. T. (1990). Bridging the Gap between Values and Actions: Recent Applications of the Expectancy-Value Model. In E. T. Higgins & R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation and Cognition: Foundations of Social Behavior* (Vol. 2, pp. 151–192). New York: Guilford Press.
- Fehr, E. & Gotte, L. (2007). Do Workers Work More if Wages are High? Evidence from a Randomized Field Experiment. *American Economic Review*, 97(1), 298-317.
- Festinger, L. (1957). *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- Fishbach, A., & Dhar, R. (2005). Goals as Excuses or Guides: The Liberating Effect of Perceived Goal Progress on Choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(3), 370–377.
- Fishbach, A., & Labroo, A. (2007). Be Better or Be Merry: How Mood Affects Self-Control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 93, 158-173.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1981). Attitudes and Voting Behavior: An Application of the Theory of Reasoned Action. In G. M. Stephenson & J. M. Davis (Eds.), *Progress in Applied Social Psychology* (Vol. I, pp. 253-313). London: Wiley.
- Fortune Business Insights (2020). Retrieved on March 3, 2021, from <https://www.fortunebusinessinsights.com/fitness-tracker-market-103358>.
- Freitas, A. L., Liberman, N., Salovey, P., & Higgins, T. E. (2002). When to Begin? Regulatory Focus and Initiating Goal Pursuit. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 28(1), 121–30.

- Fried, Y., & Slowik, L. H. (2004). Enriching Goal-Setting Theory with Time: An Integrated Approach. *Academy of Management Review*, 29, 404–422.
- Gabarron, E., Lau, A. Y., & Wynn, R. (2015). Is there a Weekly Pattern for Health Searches on Wikipedia and is the Pattern Unique to Health Topics? *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 17(12).
- Gardner, W. L., Gabriel, S., & Lee, A. Y. (1999). "I" Value Freedom, but "We" Value Relationships: Self-Construal Priming Mirrors Cultural Differences in Judgment. *Psychological Science*, 10(4), 321–326.
- Giesler, M., & Veresiu, E. (2014). Creating the Responsible Consumer: Moralistic Governance Regimes and Consumer Subjectivity. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 41(3), 840-857.
- Godin, G., & Kok, G. (1996). The Theory of Planned Behavior: A Review of its Applications in Health-Related Behaviors. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, 11, 87-98.
- Gollwitzer, P. M. (1990). Action Phases and Mindsets. In E. T. Higgins, & R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation and Cognition: Foundations of Social Behavior*, Vol. 2. (pp. 53–92). New York: Guilford Press.
- Gollwitzer, P. M. (1993). Goal Achievement: The Role of Intentions. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 4, 141-185.
- Gollwitzer, P. M. (1999). Implementation Intentions: Strong Effects of Simple Plans. *The American Psychologist*, 54(7), 493-503.
- Gollwitzer, P. M., & Brandstatter, V. (1997). Implementation Intentions and Effective Goal Pursuit. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73(1), 186-199.
- Gorges, J., Esdar, W., & Wild, E. (2014). Linking Goal Self-Concordance and Affective Reactions to Goal Conflict. *Motivation and Emotion*, 38, 475–484.
- Gorges, J., & Grund, A. (2017). Aiming at a Moving Target: Theoretical and Methodological Considerations in the Study of Intraindividual Goal Conflict between Personal Goals. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8(2011), 1-14.
- Gourville, J. T., & Soman, D. (2011). The Consumer Psychology of Mail-in Rebates. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 20(2), 147–157.
- Greenberg, J., Schmader, T., Arndt, J., & Landau, M. J. (2015). *Social Psychology: The Science of Everyday Life*. New York: Worth Publishers.
- Hackman, J. R., & Lawler, E. E. (1971). Employee Reactions to Job Characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 55(3), 259–286.

- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1975). Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*(2), 159-170.
- Hagger, M. S., Chatzisarantis, N. L. D., & Biddle, S. J. H. (2002). The Influence of Autonomous and Controlling Motives on Physical Activity Intentions within the Theory of Planned Behaviour. *British Journal of Health Psychology, 7*, 283-297.
- Harackiewicz, J. M., & Sansone, C. (1991). Goals and Intrinsic Motivation: You Can Get There from Here. In M. L. Maehr & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in Motivation and Achievement* (Vol. 7, pp. 21–49). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Hayes, A. (2018). *Introduction to Mediation, Moderation, and Conditional Process Analysis*. (2nd Ed.). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Heckhausen, H., & Gollwitzer, P. M. (1987). Thought Contents and Cognitive Functioning in Motivational versus Volitional States of Mind. *Motivation and Emotion, 11*, 101-120.
- Heckhausen, H. (1977). Achievement Motivation and Its Constructs: A Cognitive Model. *Motivation and Emotion, 1*, 283-329.
- Heider, F. (1958). *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations*. New York: John Wiley.
- Hennecke, M., & Converse, B. (2017). Next Week, Next Month, Next Year: How Perceived Temporal Boundaries Affect Initiation Expectations. *Social Psychological and Personality Science, 88*, 918-926.
- Herranz-Zarzoso, N. & Sabater-Grande, G. (2018). Monetary Incentives and Self-Chosen Goals in Academic Performance: An Experimental Study. *International Review of Economics Education, 27*, 34-44.
- Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond Pleasure and Pain. *American Psychologist, 52*, 1280-1300.
- Higgins, E. T. (1999). Self-Discrepancy: A Theory Relating Self and Affect. In R. F. Baumeister (Ed.), *The Self in Social Psychology* (pp. 150–181). Philadelphia: Psychology Press.
- Higgins, E. T. (2005). Value from Regulatory Fit. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 14*(4), 209-213.
- Higgins, E. T., & Tykocinski, O. (1992). Self-Discrepancies and Biographical Memory: Personality and Cognition at the Level of Psychological Situation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 18*, 527– 535.
- Hollenbeck, J. R., & Klein, H. J. (1987). Goal Commitment and the Goal-Setting Process: Problems, Prospects, and Proposals for Future Research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*(2), 212–20.

- Hollenbeck, J. R., Williams, C. R., & Klein, H. J. (1989). An Empirical Examination of the Antecedents of Commitment to Difficult Goals. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(1), 18-23.
- Hong, Y. Y., Chiu, C. Y., Dweck, C. S., Lin, D. M. S., & Wan, W. (1999). Implicit Theories, Attributions, and Coping: A Meaning System Approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77(3), 588-599.
- Hsee, C. K., & Zhang, J. (2004). Distinction Bias: Misprediction and Mischance Due to Joint Evaluation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86(5), 680-695.
- Hsiaw, A. (2013). Goal-Setting and Self-Control. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 148(2): 601-626.
- Huffman, D., & Gotte, L. G. (2007). Affect as a Source of Motivation in the Workplace. In *Emotion and Decision-Making*, Eds. Roy Baumeister and George Loewenstein. New York: Russell Sage.
- Hull, C. L. (1952). *A Behavioral System: An Introduction to Behavior Theory Concerning Individual Organisms*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Hunt, M. (1993). *The Story of Psychology*. New York: Doubleday.
- Inman, J. J., & McAlister, L. (1994). Do Coupon Expiration Dates Affect Consumer Behavior? *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31(3), 423-428.
- James, W. (1950). *The Principles of Psychology (Vol. I)*. New York: Dover. (Original work published in 1890).
- Jekauc, D., Voelke, M., Wagner, M., Mess, F., Reiner-Henrich, M., & Renner, B. (2015). Prediction of Attendance at Fitness Center: A Comparison between the Theory of Planned Behavior, the Social Cognitive Theory, and the Physical Activity Maintenance Theory. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6(121), 1-10.
- Kamiol, R. & Ross, M. (1996). The Motivational Impact of Temporal Focus: Thinking about the Future and the Past. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 47, 593-620.
- Kammen, M. (1993). The Problem of American Exceptionalism: A Reconsideration. *American Quarterly*, 45(1), 1-43.
- Kanfer, R. (2012). Work Motivation: Theory, Practice, and Future Directions. In S.W. J. Kozlowski (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 1 (p. 455-495). Oxford University Press.
- Kaur, S., Kremer, M., & Mullainathan, S. (2015). Self-control at Work. *Journal of Political Economy*, 123(6), 1227-1277.

- Keller, J., & Bless, H. (2006). Regulatory Fit and Cognitive Performance: The Interactive Effect of Chronic and Situationally Induced Self-Regulatory Mechanisms on Test Performance. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 36*, 393–405.
- Kelley, H. H. (1952). Two Functions of Reference Groups. In G. E. Swanson, T. M. Newcomb, & E. L. Hartley (Eds.), *Readings in Social Psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 410–420). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Kennedy, S., Goggin, K., & Nollen, N. (2004). Adherence to HIV Medications: Utility of the Theory of Self-Determination. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 28*(5), 611–628.
- Khan, U., Dhar, R., & Wertenbroch, K. (2005). A Behavioral Decision Theory Perspective on Hedonic and Utilitarian Choice. In *Inside Consumption: Frontiers of Research on Consumer Motives, Goals, and Desires* (Ed.) S. Ratneshwar & David Glen Mick. London: Routledge. pp. 144-165.
- Khenfer, J., Roux, E, Tafani, E, & Laurin, K. (2017). When God’s (Not) Needed: Spotlight on How Belief in Divine Control Influences Goal Commitment. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 70*, 117-123.
- Koch, A. K. & Nafziger, J. (2016). Goals and Bracketing under Mental Accounting. *Journal of Economic Theory, 162*, 305-351.
- Koestner, R., Bernieri, F., & Zuckerman, M. (1992). Self-Regulation and Consistency between Attitudes, Traits, and Behaviors. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 18*(1), 52–59.
- Koole, S. L., Schlinkert, C., Maldei, T., & Baumann, N. (2019). Becoming Who You Are: An Integrative Review of Self-Determination Theory and Personality Systems Interactions Theory. *Journal of Personality, 87*(1), 15-36.
- Kowal, J., & Fortier, M. S. (1999). Motivational Determinants of Flow: Contributions from Self-Determination Theory. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 139*(3), 355-368.
- Krishna, A., & Zhang, Z. J. (1999). Short- or Long-Duration Coupons: The Effect of the Expiration Date on the Profitability of Coupon Promotions. *Management Science, 45*(8), 1041-1056.
- Kruglanski, A. W. (1996). Goals as Knowledge Structures. In P. M. Gollwitzer & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *The Psychology of Action: Linking Cognition and Motivation to Behavior* (pp. 599–619). New York: Guilford Press.
- Kuhl, J. (1981). Motivational and Functional Helplessness: The Moderating Effect of State versus Action Orientation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 40*(1), 155-170.

- Lambert, S. D. & Loiselle, C. G. (2007). Health Information-Seeking Behavior. *Qualitative Health Research*, 17(8), 1006-1019.
- LeBoeuf, R. A., Williams, E. F., & Brenner, L. A., (2014). Forceful Phantom Firsts: Framing Experiences as Firsts Amplifies Their Influence on Judgment. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 57(4), 420-432.
- Leclerc, F., Schmitt, B. H., & Dube, L. (1995). Waiting Time and Decision Making: Is Time like Money? *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22(1), 110-119.
- Lent, R. W., & Hackett, G. (1987). Career Self-Efficacy: Empirical Status and Future Directions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 30(3), 347–382.
- Lewis, N. A., & Oyserman, D. (2015). When does the Future Begin? Time Metrics Matter, Connecting Present and Future Selves. *Psychological Science*, 26(6), 816-825.
- Lewin, K. (1951). *Field Theory in Social Science: Selected Theoretical Papers*. (Edited by Dorwin Cartwright.). Harpers.
- Libby, L. K., & Eibach, R. P. (2002). Looking Back in Time: Self-Concept Change Affects Visual Perspective in Autobiographical Memory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(2), 167-179.
- Liberman N., & Trope, Y. (1998). The Role of Feasibility and Desirability Considerations in Near and Distant Future Decisions: A Test of Temporal Construal Theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 5-18.
- Lipset, S. M. (1996). *American Exceptionalism: A Double-Edged Sword*. New York: WW Norton & Company.
- Liu, W. (2008). Focusing on Desirability: The Effect of Decision Interruption and Suspension on Preferences. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35, 640-652.
- Locke, E. A. (1996). Motivation through Conscious Goal Setting. *Applied and Preventive Psychology* 5(2), 117–124.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A Theory of Goal Setting and Task Performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (2002). Building a Practically Useful Theory of Goal Setting and Task Motivation: A 35-Year Odyssey. *American Psychologist*, 57(9), 705-717.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (2004). What Should We Do about Motivation Theory? Six Recommendations for the Twenty-First Century. *Academy of Management Review*, 29, 388–403.

- Locke, E. A., Latham, G. P., & Erez, M. (1988). The Determinants of Goal Commitment. *Academy of Management Review*, *13*(1), 23-29.
- Lott, A. J., & Lott, B. E. (1965). Group Cohesiveness as Interpersonal Attraction: A Review of Relationships with Antecedent and Consequent Variables. *Psychological Bulletin*, *64*(4), 259-309.
- Luckmann, T. (1991). The Constitution of Human Life in Time, In Bender, J.B. and Wellbery, D.E. (Eds), *Chronotypes: The Construction of Time*, Stanford University Press, Stanford, pp. 151-167.
- Lynch, J. G., Netemeyer, R. G., Spiller, S. A., & Zammit, A. (2010). A Generalizable Scale of Propensity to Plan: The Long and Short of Planning on Time and Money. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *37*, 108-128.
- Markus, H., & Wurf, E. (1987). The Dynamic Self-Concept: A Social Psychological Perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *38*, 299-337.
- Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible Selves. *American Psychologist*, *41*, 954-969.
- Marlatt, G. A., & Kaplan, B. E. (1972). Self-Initiated Attempts to Change Behavior – A Study of New Year's Resolutions. *Psychological Reports*, *30*(1), 123-131.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). A Theory of Human Motivation. *Psychological Review*, *50*(4), 370-396.
- Mathew, J. (2018). Towards an Understand Self Improvement: The Intersection of the Fresh Start Effect and Implicit Theories. Masters Thesis, University of Lethbridge, Lethbridge.
- McClelland, D. C. (1985). How Motives, Skills, and Values Determine What People Do. *American Psychologist*, *41*, 812-825.
- McCracken, G. D. (2008). *Transformations: Identity Construction in Contemporary Culture*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Milkman, K. L. (2012). Unsure What the Future Will Bring? You May Overindulge: Uncertainty Increases the Appeal of Wants over Shoulds. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *119*(2), 163-176.
- Milkman, K. L., Minson, J. A., & Volpp, K. G. M. (2014). Holding the Hunger Games Hostage at the Gym: An Evaluation of Temptation Bundling. *Management Science*, *60*(2), 283-299.
- Milyavskaya, M., & Werner, K. M. (2018). Goal Pursuit: Current State of Affairs and Directions for Future Research. *Canadian Psychology*, *59*(2), 163-175.

- Mischel, W. (1973). Toward a Cognitive Social Learning Reconceptualization of Personality. *Psychological Review*, 80, 252-283.
- Mogilner, C., Chance, Z., & Norton, M. I. (2012). Giving Time Gives You Time. *Psychological Science*, 23(10), 1233–1238.
- Mogilner, C., Hershfield, H. E., Aaker J. (2018). Rethinking Time: Implications for Well-Being. *Consumer Psychology Review*, 1, 41–53.
- Molden, D. C., Lee, A. Y., & Higgins, E. T. (2008). Motivations for Promotion and Prevention. In J. Y. Shah & W. L. Gardner (Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation Science* (pp. 169 – 187). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Moskowitz, G. B., & Grant, H. (2009). *The Psychology of Goals*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Munichor, N., & LeBoeuf, R. A. (2018). The Influence of Time-Interval Descriptions on Goal-Pursuit Decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 55, 291-303.
- Murphy, M. C., & Dweck, C. S. (2016). Mindsets Shape Consumer Behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 26(1), 127-136.
- Murray, H. A. (1938). *Explorations in Personality*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Mussweiler, T. (2003). Comparison Processes in Social Judgment: Mechanisms and Consequences. *Psychological Review*, 110(3), 472–489.
- Myrseth, K. O. R. (2009). Activating Self-Control: Isolated versus Interrelated Temptations. (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global.
- Nail, P. R., Correll, J. S., Drake, C. E., Glenn, S. B., Scott, G. M., & Stuckey, C. (2001). A Validation Study of the Preference for Consistency Scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 31, 1193-1202.
- Narayanan, S., Manchanda, P., Chintagunta, P. K. (2005). Temporal Differences in the Role of Marketing Communication in New Product Categories. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 42(3), 278-290.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Burton, S., & Johnston, M. (1991). A Comparison of Two Models for the Prediction of Volitional and Goal-Directed Behaviors: A Confirmatory Analysis Approach. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 54(2), 87-100.
- Newcomb, T. M. (1956). The Prediction of Interpersonal Attraction. *American Psychologist*, 11(11), 575-586.

- Norcross J. C., Mrykalo, M. S., & Blagys, M. D. (2002). Auld Lang Syne: Success Predictors, Change Processes, and Self-Reported Outcomes of New Year's Resolvers and Nonresolvers. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 58*(4), 397–405.
- O'Donoghue, T., & Rabin, M. (1999). Doing It Now or Later. *American Economic Review, 89*(1), 103–124.
- Oettingen, G., & Gollwitzer, P. M. (2009). Embodied Goal Pursuit. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 39*, 1210–1213.
- Oettingen, G., Mayer, D., Servincer, A. T., Stephens, E. J., Pak, H., & Hagenah, M. (2009). Mental Contrasting and Goal Commitment: The Mediating Role of Energization. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 35*(5), 608-622.
- Oettingen, G., Pak, H., & Schnetter, K. (2001). Self-Regulation of Goal Setting: Turning Free Fantasies about the Future into Binding Goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*(5), 736–53.
- Pajares, F. (1996). Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Academic Settings. *Review of Educational Research, 66*, 543–578.
- Parfit, D. (1984). *Reasons and Persons*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Peetz, J., & Epstude, K. (2016). Calendars Matter: Temporal Categories Affect Cognition about Future Time Periods. *Social Cognition, 34*(4), 255–270.
- Peetz, J., Gunn, G. R., & Wilson, A. E. (2010). Crimes of the Past: Defensive Temporal Distancing in the Face of Past In-Group Wrongdoing. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 36*(5), 598-611.
- Peetz, J., & Wilson, A. E. (2013). Marking Time: Selective Use of Temporal Landmarks as Barriers between Current and Future Selves. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 40*, 44-56.
- Peetz, J., & Wilson, A. E. (2013b). The Post Birthday World: Consequences of Temporal Landmarks for Temporal Self-Appraisal and Motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 104*(2), 249-266.
- Pennington, G. L., & Roese, N. J. (2003). Regulatory Focus and Temporal Distance. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 39*(6), 563–576.
- Pintrich, P. R., Conley, A. M., & Kempler, T. M. (2003). Current Issues in Achievement Goal Theory and Research. *International Journal of Educational Research, 39*, 319-337.
- Price, L. L., Coulter, R. A., Strizhakova, Y. A., & Schultz, A. E. (2018). The Fresh Start Mindset: Transforming Consumers' Lives. *Journal of Consumer Research, 45*, 21-48.

- Reinberg, A. E., DeJardin, L., Smolensky, M. H. and Touitou, Y. (2017). Seven-Day Human Biological Rhythms: An Expedition in Search of their Origin, Synchronization, Functional Advantage, Adaptive Value and Clinical Relevance. *Chronobiology International*, 34(2), 162-191.
- Roenneberg, T. (2012). *Internal Time: Chronotypes, Social Jet Lag, and Why You're So Tired*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge.
- Rogers, T., & Bazerman, M. H. (2008). Future Lock-in: Future Implementation Increases Selection of “Should” Choices. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 106, 1-20.
- Rudd, M., Vohs, K., & Aaker, J. (2012). Awe Expands People’s Perception of Time, Alters Decision Making, and Enhances Well-Being. *Psychological Science*, 23(10), 1130–1136.
- Ryan, R. M. (1982). Control and Information in the Intrapersonal Sphere: An Extension of Cognitive Evaluation Theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43, 450-461.
- Ryan, R. M. (1995). Psychological Needs and the Facilitation of Integrative Processes. *Journal of Personality*, 63(3), 397–427.
- Ryan, R. M., & Connell, J. P. (1989). Perceived Locus of Causality and Internalization: Examining Reasons for Acting in Two Domains. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(5), 749–761.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-Being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68-78.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2008). A Self-Determination Theory Approach to Psychotherapy: The Motivational Basis for Effective Change. *Canadian Psychology*, 49(3), 186–193.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2017). *Self-Determination Theory. Basic Psychological Needs in Motivation, Development and Wellness*. New York, NY : Guilford Press.
- Ryan, R. M., & Hawley, P. (2017). Naturally Good? Basic Psychological Needs and the Proximal and Evolutionary Bases of Human Benevolence. In K. W. Brown & M. R. Leary (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Hypo-Egoic Phenomena* (pp. 205–221). Oxford University Press.
- Ryan, R. M., Koestner, R., & Deci, E. L. (1991). Ego-Involved Persistence: When Free-Choice Behavior is Not Intrinsically Motivated. *Motivation and Emotion*, 15(3), 185–205.
- Ryan, R. M., Rigby, C. S. & Przybylski, A. (2006). The Motivational Pull of Video Games: A Self-Determination Theory Approach. *Motivation and Emotion*, 30, 344–360.

- Ryan, R. M., Williams, G. C., Patrick, H., & Deci, E. L. (2009). Self-Determination Theory and Physical Activity: The Dynamics of Motivation in Development and Wellness. *Hellenic Journal of Psychology*, 6, 107-124.
- Sackett, A. M., Meyvis, T., Nelson, L. D., Converse, B. A., & Sackett, A. L. (2010). You're Having Fun When Time Flies: The Hedonic Consequences of Subjective Time Progression. *Psychological Science*, 21(1), 111-117.
- Schafer, R. (1968). *Aspects of Internalization*. New York: International Universities Press.
- Schmidt, A. M., Beck, J. W., & Gillespie, J. Z. (2013). Motivation. In *Handbook of Psychology: Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 2nd Ed., Vol. 12, eds I. B. Weiner, N. W. Schmitt, and S. Highhouse (Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.), 311–340.
- Schmidt, A. M., Dolis, C. M., & Tolli, A. P. (2009). A Matter of Time: Individual Differences, Contextual Dynamics, and Goal Progress Effects on Multiple-Goal Self-Regulation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 692–709.
- Scholer, A. A., & Higgins, E. T. (2011). Promotion and Prevention Systems: Regulatory Focus Dynamics within Self-Regulatory Hierarchies. In K. D. Vohs & R. F. Baumeister (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-Regulation: Research, Theory, and Applications* (2nd ed., pp. 143 – 161). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Seijts, G. H., & Latham, G. P. (2000). The Effects of Goal Setting and Group Size on Performance in a Social Dilemma. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, 32(2), 104–116.
- Seijts, G. H., Latham, G. P., Tasa, K., Latham, B. W. (2004). Goal Setting and Goal Orientation: An Integration of Two Different yet Related Literatures. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(2), 227–239.
- Sela, A., Berger, J. A., & Liu, W. (2009). Variety, Vice, and Virtue: How Assortment Size Influences Option Choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35(6), 941-951.
- Senécal, C., Julien, E., & Guay, F. (2003). Role Conflict and Academic Procrastination: A Self-Determination Perspective. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 33, 135–145.
- Shah, J. (2003). Automatic for the People: How Representations of Significant Others Implicitly Affect Goal Pursuit. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(4), 661-681.
- Shah, J. (2003b). The Motivational Looking Glass: How Significant Others Implicitly Affect Goal Appraisals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(3), 424-439.

- Shah, J., & Higgins, E. T. (1997). Expectancy X Value Effects: Regulatory Focus as a Determinant of Magnitude and Direction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73, 447–458.
- Shah, J., Higgins, T., & Friedman, R. S. (1998). Performance Incentives and Means: How Regulatory Focus Influences Goal Attainment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 285–293.
- Sheeran, P., Conner, M., & Norman, P. (2001). Can the Theory of Planned Behavior Explain Patterns of Health Behavior Change? *Health Psychology*, 20, 12–19.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1998). Not All Personal Goals are Personal: Comparing Autonomous and Controlled Reasons as Predictors of Effort and Attainment. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 24, 546–557.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Goal Striving, Need Satisfaction, and Longitudinal Well-Being: The Self-Concordance Model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76(3), 482–497.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Kasser, T. (1995). Coherence and Congruence: Two Aspects of Personality Integration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68, 531–543.
- Shepperd, J. A., Ouellette, J. A., & Fernandez, J. K. (1996). Abandoning Unrealistic Optimism: Performance Estimates and the Temporal Proximity of Self-Relevant Feedback. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70, 844–855.
- Sherif, M. (1948). *An Outline of Psychology*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Shiv, B., & Fedorikhin, A. (1999). Heart and Mind in Conflict: The Interplay of Affect and Cognition in Consumer Decision Making. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 26(3), 278–292.
- Shu, S., & Gneezy, A. (2010). Procrastination of Enjoyable Experiences. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 47(5), 933–944.
- Shum, M. (1998). The Role of Temporal Landmarks in Autobiographical Memory. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124, 423–442.
- Siddiqui, R. A., May, F., & Monga, A. (2017). Time Window as Self-Control Denominator: Shorter Windows Shift Preference toward Virtues and Longer Windows toward Vices. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 43, 932–949.
- Skinner, B. F. (1953). *Science and Human Behavior*. Oxford: Macmillan.

- Skowronski, J. J., Ritchie, T. D., Walker, W. R., Betz, A. L., Sedikides, C., Bethencourt, L. A., & Martin, A. L. (2007). Ordering Our World: The Quest for Traces of Temporal Organization in Autobiographical Memory. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 43*, 850–856.
- Soman, D. (1998). The Illusion of Delayed Incentives: Evaluating Future Effort-Money Transactions. *Journal of Marketing Research, 35*(4), 427–437.
- Sonnentag, S. (2012). Time in Organizational Research: Catching Up on a Long Neglected Topic in order to Improve Theory. *Organizational Psychology Review, 2*, 361–368.
- Soster, R. L., Monga, A., & Bearden, W. O. (2010) Tracking Costs of Time and Money: How Accounting Periods Affect Mental Accounting. *Journal of Consumer Research, 37*(4), 712–721.
- Spence, R. W. (1956). *Behavior Theory and Conditioning*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Stapel, D. A., & Koomen, W. (2001). I, We, and the Effects of Others on Me: How Self- Construal Level Moderates Social Comparison Effects. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*(5), 766–781.
- Stapel, D. A., & Koomen, W. (2005). Competition, Cooperation, and the Effects of Others on Me. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 88*(6), 1029–1038.
- Statista. (November 25, 2019). How Long Did You Manage to Stick to Your Resolutions Last Year? In Statista. Retrieved January 21, 2021, from <https://www-statista-com.umiss.idm.oclc.org/statistics/1076481/perseverance-with-new-year-s-resolutions-in-the-united-states/>.
- Steel, P., Svartdal, F., Thundiyil, T., & Brothen, T. (2018). Examining Procrastination Across Multiple Goal Stages: A Longitudinal Study of Temporal Motivation Theory. *Frontiers in Psychology, 9*(327), 1-16.
- Sugarman, J. (2015). Neoliberalism and Psychological Ethics. *Journal of Theoretical and Philosophical Psychology, 35*(2), 103–116.
- Tana, J., Eirola, E., & Eriksson-Backa, K. (2019). Rhythmicity of Health Information Behaviour: Utilizing the Infodemiology Approach to Study Temporal Patterns and Variations. *Aslib Journal of Information Management, 71*(6), 773-788.
- Taylor, S. E., & Lobel, M. (1989). Social Comparison Activity under Threat: Downward Evaluation and Upward Contacts. *Psychological Review, 96*(4), 569–575.
- Taylor, J. & Wilson, J. C. (2016). Failing Time After Time: Time Perspective, Procrastination, and Cognitive Reappraisal in Goal Failure. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 46*, 557-564.

- Tellis, G. J. (2004). *Effective Advertising: Understanding When, How, and Why Advertising Works*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Tesser, A. (1988). Toward a Self-Evaluation Maintenance Model of Social Behavior. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, Vol. 21. Social Psychological Studies of the Self: Perspectives and Programs* (p. 181–227). Academic Press.
- Thaler, R. (1985). Mental Accounting and Consumer Choice. *Marketing Science, 4*(3), 199-214.
- Thaler, R. (1999). Mental Accounting Matters. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making, 12*(3), 183-206.
- Thomsen, D. K., & Berntsen, D. (2008). The Cultural Life Script and Life Story Chapters Contribute to the Reminiscence Bump. *Memory, 16*, 420–435.
- Tiefenbeck, V., Goette, L., Degen, K., Tasic, V., Fleisch, E., Lalive, R., & Staake, T. (2018). Overcoming Salience Bias: How Real-Time Feedback Fosters Resource Conservation. *Management Science, 64*(3), 1458-1476.
- Toure-Tillery, M., & Fishbach, A. (2012). The End Justifies the Means, but Only in the Middle. *Journal of Experimental Psychology-General, 141*(3), 570-583.
- Toure-Tillery, M., & Fishbach, A. (2014). How to Measure Motivation: A Guide for the Experimental Social Psychologist. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 8*(7), 328-341.
- Toussaert, S. (2016). Connecting Commitment to Self-Control Problems: Evidence from a Weight Loss Challenge, mimeo, NYU.
- Townsend, C., & Liu, W. (2012). Is Planning Good for You? The Differential Impact of Planning on Self-Regulation. *Journal of Consumer Research, 39*(4), 688-703.
- Trope, Y., & Liberman, N. (2003). Temporal Construal. *Psychological Review, 110*, 403-421.
- Trope, Y., & Liberman, N. (2010). Construal-Level Theory of Psychological Distance. *Psychological Review, 117*(2), 440–63.
- Tu, Y. & Soman, D. (2014). The Categorization of Time and Its Impact on Task Initiation. *Journal of Consumer Research, 41*, 810-822.
- Tully, S., & Meyvis, T. (2017). Forgetting to Remember Our Experiences: People Overestimate How Much They Will Retrospect about Personal Events. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 113*(6), 878–891.

- Utman, C. H. (1997). Performance Effects of Motivational State: A Meta-analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *1*, 170–182.
- Van Boven, L., & Gilovich, T. (2003). To Do or to Have? That is the Question. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*(6), 1193–1202.
- van Lent, M., & Souverijn, M. (2020). Goal Setting and Raising the Bar: A Field Experiment. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics*, *87*, 1-16.
- Van Yperen, N. W. (2003). Task Interest and Actual Performance: The Moderating Effects of Assigned and Adopted Purpose Goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*(6), 1006-1015.
- Vohs, K. D., & Baumeister, R. F. (eds.). (2004). *Handbook of Self-Regulation: Research, Theory, and Applications*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and Motivation*. New York: Wiley.
- Waller, B. N. (1998). *The Natural Selection of Autonomy*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Wang, G. & Netemeyer, R. G. (2002). The Effects of Job Autonomy, Customer Demandingness, and Trait Competitiveness on Salesperson Learning, Self-Efficacy, and Performance. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *30*(3), 217-228.
- Weber, R. J. (2000). *The Created Self*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company.
- Welding, K., De Leon, E., Cha, S., Johnson, M., Cohen, J. E., & Graham, A. L. (2017). Weekly Enrollment and Usage Patterns in an Internet Smoking Cessation Intervention. *Internet Interventions*, *9*, 100–105.
- Williams, G. C., Niemiec, C. P., Patrick, H., Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2009). The Importance of Supporting Autonomy and Perceived Competence in Facilitating Long-Term Tobacco Abstinence. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*, *37*(3), 315–324.
- Williams, G. C., Patrick, H., Niemiec, C. P., Williams, L. K., Divine, G., Lafata, J. E., Heisler, M., Tunceli, K., & Pladevall, M. (2009). Reducing the Health Risks of Diabetes: How Self-Determination Theory May Help Improve Medication Adherence and Quality of Life. *Diabetes Educator*, *35*(3), 484–492.
- Wilson, A. E., Buehler, R., Lawford, H., Schmidt, C., & Yong, A. G. (2012). Basking in Projected Glory: The Role of Subjective Temporal Distance in Future Self-Appraisal. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *42*, 342–353.
- Wilson, A. E., & Ross, M. (2001). From Chump to Champ: People's Appraisals of Their Earlier and Present Selves. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *80*(4), 572–584.

- Wilson, A. E. & Ross, M. (2003). The Identity Function of Autobiographical Memory: Time is on Our Side. *Memory*, 11(2), 137-149.
- Wood, W., Tam, L., & Witt, M. G. (2005). Changing Circumstances, Disrupting Habits. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 88(6), 918-933.
- Woolley, K., & Fishbach, A. (2017). Immediate Rewards Predict Adherence to Long-Term Goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 43(2), 151-162.
- Zauberman, G., & Lynch, J. G. (2005). Resource Slack and Propensity to Discount Delayed Investments of Time versus Money. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 134, 23-37.
- Zerubavel, E. (1981). *Hidden Rhythms: Schedules and Calendars in Social Life*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Zerubavel, E. (1997). *Social Mindscales: An Invitation to Cognitive Sociology*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Zhang, Y., Fishbach, A., & Dhar, R. (2007). When Thinking Beats Doing: The Role of Optimistic Expectations in Goal-Based Choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34(4), 567-78.
- Zhou, W., & Hey, J. (2018). Context Matters. *Experimental Economics*, 21, 723-756.
- Zimbardo, P. G., & Boyd, J. N. (1999). Putting Time in Perspective: A Valid, Reliable Individual Differences Metric. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77, 1271-1288.
- Zimbardo, P., & Boyd, J. (2008). *The Time Paradox: The New Psychology of Time That Will Change Your Life*. New York: Free Press.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2008). Investigating Self-Regulation and Motivation: Historical Background, Methodological Developments, and Future Prospects. *American Educational Research Journal*, 45(1), 166-183.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Bandura, A. (1994). Impact of Self-Regulatory Influences on Writing Course Attainment. *American Educational Research Journal*, 31(4), 845-862.
- Zimmerman, B. J., Greenberg, D., & Weinstein, C. E. (1994). Self-Regulating Academic Study Time: A Strategy Approach. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Self-Regulation of Learning and Performance: Issues and Educational Applications*, (pp. 181-199). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Online Fitness Challenge Examples

Online Fitness Challenge Self-Chosen Start Date Example:

Individual Weight Loss Bets ?



HealthyWager Personal Challenge

Make an individual weight loss bet!

Entry Fee: You Choose!

Dates: You Choose!

Prizes: Up to \$10,000!

Team Size: Just You

Online Fitness Challenge Other-Chosen Start Date (Monday) Example:

Step Challenge ?



Stepping in the Sunshine Step Challenge

Increase your steps individually by 25% and win!

Entry Fee: \$30/mo for 2 months

Dates: May 13, 2019 - Jul 11, 2019

Pot Amount: \$8,010 and growing!

Team Size: 1 to 9

Online Fitness Challenge Other-Chosen Start Date (Sunday) Example:

Personal Jackpot ?



**Superpower Slimdown
Jackpot Challenge**

Lose 6% individually and win!

Entry Fee: \$20/mo for 3 months

Dates: May 19, 2019 - Aug 11, 2019

Pot Amount: \$7,560 and growing!

Appendix B: Study 1 Stimuli

Self-Chosen Monday

JUN2019

SUN	MON	TUE	WED	THU	FRI	SAT
						01
02	03	04	05	06	07	08
09	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30	1	2	3	4	5	6

Self-Chosen Saturday

JUN2019

SUN	MON	TUE	WED	THU	FRI	SAT
						01
02	03	04	05	06	07	08
09	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30	1	2	3	4	5	6

Other-Chosen Monday

JUN2019

SUN	MON	TUE	WED	THU	FRI	SAT
						01
02	03	04	05	06	07	08
09	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30	1	2	3	4	5	6

Other-Chosen Saturday

JUN2019

SUN	MON	TUE	WED	THU	FRI	SAT
						01
02	03	04	05	06	07	08
09	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30	1	2	3	4	5	6

Self-Chosen Monday

APR2020

SUN	MON	TUE	WED	THU	FRI	SAT
			01	02	03	04
05	06	07	08	09	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30		

Self-Chosen Saturday

APR2020

SUN	MON	TUE	WED	THU	FRI	SAT
			01	02	03	04
05	06	07	08	09	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30		

Other-Chosen Monday

APR2020

SUN	MON	TUE	WED	THU	FRI	SAT
			01	02	03	04
05	06	07	08	09	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30		

Other-Chosen Saturday

APR2020

SUN	MON	TUE	WED	THU	FRI	SAT
			01	02	03	04
05	06	07	08	09	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30		

Appendix D: Scale Items

Goal Commitment (Devezer, Sprott, Spangenberg, & Czellar, 2014)	
Scale Items	Scale Anchors
How committed are you to attaining your goal of saving money?	1 = not committed; 7 = very committed
To what extent do you feel committed to saving money?	1 = not at all; 7 = very much
How likely is it that you will work your hardest for your goal of saving money?	1 = not very likely; 7 = very likely
How hard will you try to reach your goal of saving money?	1 = not very hard; 7 = very hard
How satisfied would you be if you reached your goal of saving money?	1 = not very satisfied; 7 = very satisfied

Perceived Autonomy (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Ryan, Rigby, & Przybylski, 2006)	
Scale Items	Scale Anchors
I feel almost completely responsible for deciding how and when I can achieve this goal.	1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree
I feel considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in achieving this goal.	
I have a chance to use my personal initiative and judgment in achieving this goal.	
Setting this goal provided me with interesting options and choices.	
I experienced a lot of freedom in setting this goal.	

Self-Efficacy (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001)	
Scale Items	Scale Anchors
I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges in my pursuit of saving money.	1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree
I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me for this goal.	
I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks in my goal pursuit.	
I will be able to achieve this goal of saving money.	
I believe I can succeed at this goal if I set my mind to it.	
Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well in my goal pursuit.	
When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them in goal pursuit.	
Compared to other people, I can do most tasks quite well in my goal pursuit.	

VITA

Jennifer A. Locander

East Tennessee State University

Johnson City, Tennessee

Email: locander@etsu.edu

Education

<u>Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration, Marketing</u> University of Mississippi Oxford, MS GPA: 3.95; Phi Kappa Phi Honors Society; Graduate Achievement Award	2021
<u>Master of Business Administration</u> Loyola University New Orleans, LA Alpha Sigma Nu – Jesuit Honor Society	2016
<u>Bachelor of Business Administration, Marketing</u> Jacksonville University Jacksonville, FL	2007

Academic Experience

East Tennessee State University Assistant Professor of Marketing	2021 – present
University of Mississippi Graduate Research Assistantship Instructor	2016-2021

Refereed Articles

Locander, D. A., **Locander, J. A.**, & Weinberg, F. J. (2020). “How Salesperson Traits and Intuitive Judgments Influence Adaptive Selling: A Sensemaking Perspective,” *Journal of Business Research*, 118, 452-462. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.07.013>

Locander, J. A., White, A., & Newman, C. L. (2020). “Customer Responses to Frontline Employee Complaining in Retail Service Environments: The Role of Perceived Impropriety,” *Journal of Business Research*, 107, 315-323. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.10.036>

Cinelli, M. D., White, A., & **Locander, J. A.** (2018). "Are Conservatives Always Conservative? Political Ideology and Consumer Decision Making," *Journal of Marketing Behavior*, 3(3), 251-261. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1561/107.00000053>

Non-Refereed Articles

Locander, J. A., & Doğan, O. B. (2020). "In Love with your New Blender? Keep it to Yourself!" *Journal of Marketing Research* Scholarly Insights by AMA DocSIG. <https://www.ama.org/2020/04/16/in-love-with-your-new-blender-keep-it-to-yourself/>

Yoo, K., & **Locander, J. A.** (2020). "Dissecting the Anatomy of the Advertising Budget Decision." *Journal of Marketing Research* Scholarly Insights by AMA DocSIG. <https://www.ama.org/2020/06/12/dissecting-the-anatomy-of-the-advertising-budget-decision/>

Papers Under Review

Locander, J. A., Mertz, B., & Locander, W. B. (2020). "How Human Dignity Influences Perceptions of Meaningful Work." (status: initial submission to *Journal of Business Ethics*).

Zmich, L., **Locander, J. A.**, & Locander, W. B. (2020). "Too Much of a Good Thing? How B2B Salesperson Social Media Usage Impacts the Effectiveness of Salesperson Influence Tactics During Early Stages of the Buying Process." (status: initial submission to *Industrial Marketing Management*).

Working Papers

Locander, D. A., Babin, B., & **Locander, J. A.** (2020). "Customer Focus, Passive Deviance and Selling Orientation – Their Impact on Creative Selling and Performance." (status: In preparation for submission to *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*).

Locander, J. A., & Cinelli, M. (2020). "Investigating the Boundary Effects of the Fresh Start Effect." (targeted for *Journal of Consumer Research*).

Locander, J. A., Locander, W. B., Locander, D. A., & Locander, W. H. (2020). "How Salesperson Fresh Starts Affect Salesperson Flow." (targeted for *European Journal of Marketing*).

Locander, J. A., Cinelli, M. D., & White, A. (2020). "The Perceived Authenticity of Frontline Employee Complaining." (targeted for *Journal of Retailing*).

Locander, J. A. (2020). "An Examination of Exclusive Neighborhood E-Communities as Trusted Information-Sharing Platforms." (in development).

Presentation of Refereed Papers

Locander, J. A. (2018). “An Examination of Exclusive Neighborhood E-Communities as Trusted Information-Sharing Platforms.” Society for Marketing Advances, West Palm Beach, FL.

Locander, D. A. & **Locander, J. A.** (2017). “An Examination of the Interplay Between Emotional Intelligence, Deliberation, and Intuition.” National Conference in Sales Management, St. Louis, MS. ***Winner of 2017 Best Paper Award**

Locander, J. A., White, A., & Newman, C. L. (2017). “Customer Reactions to Frontline Employee Complaining: The Role of Perceived Impropriety.” Society for Marketing Advances Retail and Distribution Symposium, Louisville, KY.

Presentation of Non-Refereed Papers

Locander, J. A. (2017). “Frontline Service Employee Complaining Behavior: Effects on Consumer Evaluations and Intentions.” Southeast Marketing Symposium, Lexington, KY.

Service to the Profession

Editor

2020-2021 Academy of Marketing Science (AMS) Quarterly

Officer

American Marketing Association Doctoral Special Interest Group (AMA DocSIG)

2020-2021 Officer: Past Chair – AMA DocSIG

2019-2020 Officer: Chair – AMA DocSIG

- Coordinated conference events, recruited new doctoral student members, secured sponsors for DocSIG events, created the JMR Scholarly Insights blog in partnership with AMA and the JMR editorial board, helped administer and produce the 2020 *Who Went Where* survey, and managed a team of fourteen doctoral student officers

2018-2019 Officer: Chair Elect – AMA DocSIG

- 2019 Winter AMA Conference – Chaired a special session/panel on preparing for summer AMA interviews and coordinated the annual mentors’ networking breakfast

2017-2018 Officer: Assistant VC of Special Projects/Partnerships – AMA DocSIG

Blog Creator & Administrator

Journal of Marketing Research Scholarly Insights by AMA DocSIG (2020)

Committee Member

2019-2020 Academy of Marketing Science (AMS) Career Center Committee

Panel Moderator

2020 AMA Winter Educators' Conference, San Diego, CA. Moderator for a special session panel on *Making an Academic Contribution in Marketing*. Panelists: Daniel Ladik, Bill Locander, Christine Moorman, David Shepherd, and V. Kumar.

Reviewer

2021 – *European Journal of Marketing*

2021 – *Industrial Marketing Management*

2021 – *International Journal of Hospitality Management*

2021 – American Marketing Association Summer Conference; Consumer Behavior Track

2021 – American Marketing Association Summer Conference; Services Track

2021 – Academy of Marketing Science Annual Conference; Sales Track

2021 – Academy of Marketing Science Annual Conference; Consumer Behavior Track

2020 – ARVR Conference

2020 – *European Journal of Marketing*

2019 – *European Journal of Marketing*

2019 – *International Journal of Hospitality Management*

2019 – Academy of Marketing Science Annual Conference; Public Policy & Nonprofit Track

2019 – ARVR Conference

2018 – *Journal of Business Research (special issue)*

2018 – *European Journal of Marketing*

2018 – Academy of Marketing Science; Nonprofit Track (2)

2017 – Society of Marketing Advances Annual Conference; Services Track (2);

Retail and Distribution Symposium

Professional Affiliations

Academy of Marketing Science

American Marketing Association

American Marketing Association Doctoral Special Interest Group (DocSIG)

Society for Marketing Advances

Teaching Experience

Services Marketing, Spring 2021, University of Mississippi

1 section, 39 students, (TBA)

Consumer Behavior, Spring 2021, University of Mississippi

1 section, 27 students, (TBA)

Services Marketing, Fall 2020, University of Mississippi

1 section, 29 students, (4.04/5.00)

Global Marketing & Supply Chain Management, Fall 2020, University of Mississippi
1 section, 60 students, (4.15/5.00)

Global Marketing & Supply Chain Management, Summer 2020, University of Mississippi
1 section, 21 students, (4.75/5.00)

Services Marketing, Spring 2020, University of Mississippi
1 section, 15 students, (4.91/5.00)

Principles of Marketing, Summer 2019, University of Mississippi
1 section, 10 students, (5.00/5.00)

Consumer Behavior, Spring 2019, University of Mississippi
1 section, 68 students, (4.63/5.00)

Consumer Behavior, Fall 2019, University of Mississippi
1 section, 48 students, (4.47/5.00)

Awards & Honors

2021 – University of Mississippi Graduate Achievement Award (1 student awarded annually by College of Business faculty vote)

2020 – AMS Doctoral Consortium Fellow (Coral Gables, FL)

2019 – University of Mississippi Graduate Achievement Award (1 student awarded annually by College of Business faculty vote)

2019 – AMA DocSIG Mathew Joseph Emerging Scholar Award (nominated)

2019 – AMA Sheth Foundation Doctoral Consortium Fellow (dept. faculty vote) (NYU)

2018 – SMA Doctoral Consortium Fellow (dept. faculty vote) (West Palm Beach, FL)

2018 – Fellowship to the New Horizons Consortium at Summer AMA (Boston, MA)

2017 – DRS award at Southeast Marketing Symposium (Lexington, KY)

2017 – Winner of Best Paper Award at the National Conference in Sales Management

References

Barry Babin

Morris Lewis Professor of Marketing & Chair
Department of Marketing
University of Mississippi
P.O. Box 1848
University, MS 38677
bbabin@bus.olemiss.edu

Melissa Cinelli

Associate Professor of Marketing
Department of Marketing
University of Mississippi
364 Holman Hall
University, MS 38677
mcinelli@bus.olemiss.edu

Greg Marshall

Charles Harwood Professor
of Marketing and Strategy
Crummer Graduate School
of Business
Rollins College
302 Bush Executive Center
Winter Park, FL 32789
gmarshall@rollins.edu

Frankie Weinberg

Associate Professor of Management
Chase Minority Entrepreneurship
Distinguished Professor
Department of Management
Loyola University New Orleans
6363 St. Charles Ave., Box 15
New Orleans, LA, 70118
weinberg@loyno.edu