Cut me some slack! How perceptions of financial slack influence pain of payment

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Abstract
Consumers often experience pain of payment, a tug of negative affect that holds back their spending. While the literature has long viewed pain of payment as self-regulatory in nature, it has left the dynamics of self-regulation that lead to the pain of paying largely unaddressed. In self-regulation, affect arises when people move away from a goal they hold. Thus, understanding the specific goals that people consider when making a payment can help us better predict when pain of payment will arise. We propose that people have a goal to maintain financial slack, and that violating this goal contributes to pain of payment. Thus, people experience more pain of payment when the goal to maintain financial slack is stronger or when it is particularly salient that a purchase entails losing financial slack. Critically, subjective changes in financial slack are not equivalent to objective changes in wealth, altering pain of payment for economically equivalent trades. This research contributes to the existing literature by identifying a novel antecedent to the pain of payment. It additionally expands our understanding of people’s preferences between payment systems. Finally, it offers guidance to practitioners who wish to minimize pain of payment among their consumers.

KEYWORDS
affect, goals, mental accounting, pain of payment, self-regulation

1 | INTRODUCTION

When people consider a purchase, a slight tug of negative emotion sometimes holds them back. For instance, imagine choosing a new smartphone, and hoping to get the top model. Even if you have budgeted for the purchase ahead of time, and know full well that you can afford it, a small, aversive feeling might ultimately guide you toward a cheaper, lower-end model. Prior research identifies this feeling as the pain of payment, defined as the negative affective reaction that people experience when parting with their money (Prelec & Loewenstein, 1998).

The pain of payment was initially described as an affective outcome of self-regulation (Prelec & Loewenstein, 1998). In self-regulation, negative affect arises when people move away from a goal they hold (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Baumgartner & Pieters, 2008; Carver & Scheier, 1990; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Kopetz et al., 2012; Louro et al., 2007). Yet recent research has paid more attention to moderators and consequences of the pain of payment than to its self-regulatory underpinnings (e.g., Shah et al., 2016; Thomas et al., 2011). Thus, in this research we ask: What are the goals that, when violated, lead to the pain of payment? We investigate the goal to maintain financial slack, defined as one’s perceived surplus of spare financial resources (Zauberman & Lynch, 2005). We argue that given two equivalent payments—paying the same dollar amount, using the same payment mechanism, at the same time, for the same good or service—the one that decreases perceived slack more will be more painful.

This research advances our conceptual understanding of the pain of payment by connecting the construct to the literature on self-regulation and goal pursuit (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Carver & Scheier, 1990; Van Osselaer et al., 2005). This research additionally has implications for the
consumer psychology surrounding novel digital payment applications and technologies. For instance, the payment application Venmo creates a new store of wealth inside the app. The competing payment application Zelle instead draws from pre-existing stores of wealth such as one’s checking account. Our results demonstrate that app-specific balances are less associated with financial slack, and so are less painful to deplete (Study 5). Finally, this research has implications for marketing practitioners wishing to minimize pain of payment among their consumers. We address these points further in the general discussion.

2 | EXISTING LITERATURE: SELF-REGULATION AND PAIN OF PAYMENT

Since its origin, the pain of paying has been conceptualized as an affective outcome of a self-regulatory process, a conceptualization that has persisted as the literature has evolved (Prelec & Loewenstein, 1998; Shah et al., 2016; Sheehan & Van Ittersum, 2018; Thomas et al., 2011; Zellermayer, 1996). However, understanding the self-regulatory dynamics underlying the pain of paying has not been a central focus of the literature. We argue that a deeper investigation of the assumption that pain of payment is an outcome of a self-regulatory process can lead to a better understand the pain of payment theoretically and can lead to novel findings and practical contributions. In this section, we briefly review the pain of payment literature, noting that it has three main focuses: (i) how the physical form of payment influences pain of payment, (ii) the temporal dynamics of the pain of payment, and (iii) consequences of the pain of payment. While existing research clearly deals with affective outcomes, and some of it demonstrates that the pain of payment can have self-regulatory consequences (e.g., Thomas et al., 2011), it does not primarily focus on the dynamics of self-regulation that lead to the pain of payment.

Perhaps the best-known subset of the pain of paying literature describes the effects of different payment mechanisms (e.g., cash, credit cards, debit cards, gift cards) on the pain of payment (Feinberg, 1986; Hirschman, 1979; Prelec & Simister, 2001; Raghubir & Srivastava, 2008; Soman, 2001, 2003). In general, this work argues that because some payment mechanisms make the loss of one’s money more salient, they make payments feel more painful. For instance, cash has been shown to highlight the loss of one’s money, while credit cards ensnare the loss (Feinberg, 1986; Hirschman, 1979; Prelec & Simister, 2001; Soman, 2001, 2003). This body of research has become influential enough that researchers have begun investigating the effects of payment mechanisms on other outcomes, such as product perception and temporal discounting (Chatterjee & Rose, 2012; Duclos & Khamitov, 2019).

A second subset of literature investigates the temporal dynamics of the pain of payment. Prelec and Loewenstein (1998) argue that people are “debt averse,” meaning it is particularly painful incur “debt” (when you owe money on a purchase you have already consumed), because you do not have thoughts of enjoyable consumption in the future to offset the pain of paying. This leads people to avoid payment after consumption (Quispe-Torreblanca et al., 2019). The pain of payment can additionally influence how spending evolves over the course of a shopping trip, as people experience it each time they add an item to their basket rather than just when paying at the end of a trip (Sheehan & Van Ittersum, 2018).

A third subset of the pain of payment literature describes consequences of the pain of payment. For instance, the more pain of payment people experience, the less they enjoy their purchases (Lee & Tsal, 2014; Prelec & Loewenstein, 1998; Soster et al., 2014), and the more likely they are to develop a psychological connection with their purchase in an effort to reduce cognitive dissonance (Shah et al., 2016). The pain of payment additionally has implications for whether and how much consumers choose to purchase (Lee et al., 2019; Sheehan & Van Ittersum, 2018), the number of vice purchases people make (Thomas et al., 2011), and even who people choose to marry (Rick et al., 2011). While this work demonstrates pain of payment can have self-regulatory consequences, such as leading people to make fewer vice purchases (Thomas et al., 2011), this work does not focus on the self-regulatory antecedents of the pain of payment.

While the papers reviewed here clearly deal with affective responses, and at times speculate as to why the pain of payment might arise (Prelec & Loewenstein, 1998), the connection between these affective responses and self-regulation has received relatively little attention. As reviewed in the following section, self-regulatory affect results from the violation of specific goals. Thus, in this research we ask: What are the goals that, when violated, lead to the pain of payment?

3 | THE GOAL TO MAINTAIN FINANCIAL SLACK

Pain of payment is an affective outcome of self-regulation (Prelec & Loewenstein, 1998; Reshadi & Paula Fitzgerald, 2023; Zellermayer, 1996). In self-regulation, affect results from a comparison of one’s current position with one’s desired position relative to a goal (Baggozi et al., 1998; Baumgartner & Pieters, 2008; Carver & Scheier, 1990; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Kopetz et al., 2012; Louro et al., 2007). When people feel that their behavior moves them away from their goal, negative affect results, acting as a signal and as a motivator (Baggozi et al., 1998; Carver & Scheier, 1990; Louro et al., 2007). Self-regulatory affect thus involves behavior, goals, and a comparison of the two. Past research, as well as the definition of pain of payment, identifies an affective outcome (pain) and its precipitating behavior (payment). In this research, we identify one goal involved in the pain of payment.

Goals are “internal representations of desired states” (Austin & Vancouver 1996, p. 338). Financial goals are clearly important to people—a 2018 survey from the American Psychological Association reported that “money and work consistently top the list of stressors for adults” (APA, 2018). Yet identifying the specific goal most relevant to pain of payment is difficult, in part, because existing literature contains many closely constructs (e.g., financial constraints, financial deprivation, financial satisfaction, financial scarcity, financial well-being, income, poverty, financial slack, SES, subjective SES, and subjective wealth; see Tully & Sharma, 2022). These constructs differ along several dimensions: subjective versus objective, affective
versus cognitive, current- versus future-oriented, and inadequacy- versus adequacy-focused (Tully & Sharma, 2022). We argue that financial slack—an individual’s "perceived surplus (or deficit) of spare money... at a given point in time" (Berman et al., 2016)—best fits the pain of payment. Pain of payment is subjective in nature; while financial slack is a subjective judgment, constructs like income, poverty, and SES are objective measures. Additionally, the goal pursuit literature holds that affect arises from people’s cognitive judgments of their goal progress (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Carver & Scheier, 1990; Louro et al., 2007), consistent with a cognitive construct like financial slack rather than a primarily affective construct like financial wellbeing or financial satisfaction. Finally, perceived financial constraints and perceived scarcity are the conceptual inverse of financial slack (Paley et al., 2018, p. 2). We believe that a goal of maintaining financial slack is more conceptually fluent than an equivalent goal of avoiding financial scarcity or financial constraints, though we agree with past research suggesting that these are two sides of the same psychological coin. On the basis of this reasoning, we argue there is a relationship between financial slack and pain of payment, consistent with the goal pursuit and self-regulation literature described previously (Figure 1).

**H1:** Reductions in perceived financial slack (e.g., as a result of spending) will result in pain of payment.

While it is perhaps self-evident that consumers prefer to have more financial slack, we present one study in Appendix S1 demonstrating that consumers do indeed hold a goal to maintain financial slack.

### 4 | UNEQUAL PAIN OF PAYMENT ACROSS MENTAL ACCOUNTS

Mental accounting research demonstrates that people divide their wealth into mental accounts that have specific purposes (e.g., grocery money vs. gas money), or specific sources (e.g., money from one’s paycheck vs. money received as a birthday gift; Heath & Soll, 1996; Henderson & Peterson, 1992; Shefrin & Thaler, 1988; Thaler, 1985, 1999; Zelizer, 1997; Zhang & Sussman, 2018). Critically, money is not fungible across these mental accounts and is treated differently depending on the mental accounts in which it is held (Morewedge et al., 2007). This can be observed in multiple previous findings: For instance, anticipated income influences judgments of future slack more than anticipated expenditures (Berman et al., 2016). Similarly, assets and liabilities influence judgments of personal wealth differently depending on whether one’s net worth is positive or negative (Sussman & Shafir, 2012). Consumers spend more when larger stores of wealth are made cognitively accessible, they feel more pain when a payment completely depletes a given mental account (even for equivalent payments), and they exhibit different marginal propensities to consume out of different stores of wealth (Case et al., 2005; Shefrin & Thaler, 1988; Soster et al., 2014; Thaler, 1985). If people weigh their various mental differently when judging financial slack, a given payment may feel like a larger reduction in financial slack depending which account it comes from (Figure 1). In conjunction with H1, we thus hypothesize:

**H2:** The more strongly a mental account is weighted in judgments of financial slack, the more painful it will be to spend down.

![Overview of conceptual model](image)

**FIGURE 1** Overview of conceptual model. We hypothesize that reductions in perceived financial slack predict pain of payment (path b; H1). Purchases may deplete mental accounts to a greater or lesser extent, depending on how strongly the mental account depleted is associated with judgments of financial slack (path d; H2). Pain of payment influences downstream consequences (path c), reducing the likelihood of making a purchase, and leading to a preference for the alternative that carries less pain of payment. Studies 1 and 2 address H1; studies 2, 4, and 5 address H2; studies 3 and 5 address downstream consequences.
influence people’s answer than penguins (and they will say that birds can fly). When judging their financial slack, mental accounts that best typify financial slack—for example, checking accounts—will come to mind most quickly. If those mental accounts are full, people will feel more slack; if those mental accounts are empty, people will feel less slack. While they may not fully ignore other accounts, other mental accounts should have less influence on perceptions of slack (and, per H2, carry less pain of payment). Of course, which mental accounts come to mind most quickly will vary across consumers; but across consumers, the mental accounts that come to mind more quickly when judging financial slack should be more painful to deplete.

Some mental accounts may additionally influence slack judgments more than others because they can be used more broadly. For instance, SNAP benefits can be spent exclusively on food. While SNAP benefits objectively improve financial welfare by freeing up unrestricted resources such as US dollars, they may contribute to perceptions of financial slack less than unrestricted resources, making them less painful to spend. Self-imposed restrictions on a mental account may operate similarly; for instance, people may feel that their “dining out” money can only be spent at restaurants, reducing its contribution to financial slack and its pain of payment (Webb & Spiller, 2014). Similarly, if people use payment apps such as Venmo or the Cash app for specific purposes (e.g., paying repairmen), the money stored in a payment app may factor less into slack judgments, even though it can be easily transferred into one’s checking account.

In summary, we argue (i) people hold a goal to maintain financial slack, (ii) changes in perceived financial slack are one antecedent of the pain of payment, and (iii) a given payment may be more or less painful depending on the account from which it comes (see Figure 1 for an overview). Previous research investigates who is most likely to experience pain of payment, as well as how pain of payment influences spending, post-purchase connection to products, and even romantic behavior (Quispe-Torrezblanca et al., 2019; Rick et al., 2008, 2011; Shah et al., 2016). In this research, we contribute one psychological antecedent to the pain of payment—the goal to maintain financial slack.

5 | OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

We present an overview of our conceptual framework, as well as how each study relates to it, in Figure 1. In studies 1 and 2, we measure and manipulate the goal to maintain financial slack, demonstrating that the more strongly people hold this goal, or the more salient the goal is, the more pain of payment they experience. In studies 3 and 4, we demonstrate that accounts that are more strongly associated with financial slack are more painful to deplete. In study 3 we measure the association between different accounts and slack using a conjoint-type design at an individual level. We show that, controlling for the monetary value of an account, paying from accounts more associated with financial slack corresponds to greater pain of payment. In study 4, we manipulate the extent to which a given account is associated with financial slack by restricting its use, influencing both slack judgments and pain of payment.

In study 5, we demonstrate that a given purchase (e.g., $85 for a North Face Backpack) is more painful with Zelle than with Venmo, consistent with our prediction that the former has greater implications for financial slack than the latter. Throughout our studies, we investigate whether pain of payment additionally has downstream implications for preferences, bolstering our confidence that the effects we identify will have real-world implications. We additionally present one study in Appendix S1 demonstrating that consumers hold a goal to maintain financial slack.

Throughout our studies, we use Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) as our main source of data. Online platforms like MTurk have become increasingly popular for sourcing research participants due to their convenience, speed, access to broader demographic samples, and cost-effectiveness (Aguius et al., 2021; Goodman & Paolacci, 2017; Hauser et al., 2019). However, there are several limitations of online platforms like MTurk. For instance, the demographics of online samples are unlikely to be representative of the general population, participants on MTurk often take many surveys and so may develop atypical response patterns, participants may put forth little effort/pay little attention to the surveys they take, and researchers have little insight into the environment in which participants sit to take a survey. Notwithstanding these potential drawbacks, MTurk samples have been utilized extensively, and their use continues to grow (Aguius et al., 2021; Goodman & Paolacci, 2017; Hauser et al., 2019). While there are inherent limitations of MTurk samples—as there are with any sample—its widespread use and acceptance in diverse academic fields underscore its value. In study 5, we transition to using a student sample of participants. This offers two advantages. First, we observe our hypothesized effects in a non-MTurk sample, bolstering the generalizability of the findings across studies. Second, because undergraduate students are a more homogeneous group, we can be more confident that the choices we present them with (e.g., between two pairs of headphones) are relevant.

All anonymized survey materials are available in an OSF folder1; data and code will be made available upon publication in the same folder.

6 | STUDY 1: IMPORTANCE OF FINANCIAL SLACK PREDICTS PAIN OF PAYMENT

Our aim in study 1 is to demonstrate that the more strongly people hold a goal to maintain financial slack, the more pain of payment they experience (H1). We pre-registered analyses and predictions for this study through AsPredicted.org (see Appendix S1 for the pre-registration).

6.1 | Method

We recruited 305 participants from MTurk. We removed four responses with duplicated MTurk IDs, leaving a final sample size of 301 (107 female, 194 male). We recruited 305 participants from MTurk. We removed four responses with duplicated MTurk IDs, leaving a final sample size of 301 (107 female, 194 male).
193 male, 1 not reporting; $M_{\text{age}} = 35.28$). Twenty-eight participants failed an attention check; results include these participants, and do not change when excluding them. As we did not have a clear way to estimate an effect size a priori, we chose a sample size of 300, affording 94% power to detect a correlation of size $r = 0.20$.

Participants first read a short description of financial slack (available in Appendix S1), and answered two comprehension questions. After reading the description of financial slack, participants answered five personality questions, intended to clear working memory and reduce hypothesis guessing. Participants then answered two blocks of questions which we counterbalanced and separated with a series of distractor questions.

One block of questions asked about the importance of three different goals: maintaining financial slack, long-term financial goals, and eating healthily. For each goal, participants responded to four questions: (i) "____ is important to me," (ii) "I prioritize ____", (iii) "I think a lot about my ____", and (iv) "I carefully monitor my ____" (blank lines read "maintaining [financial slack],” “eating healthily,” and “long term financial goals”).

The other block of questions included three items measuring pain of payment: (i) "Spending (or thinking about spending) my money sometimes causes me stress," (ii) "Spending (or thinking about spending) my money is sometimes emotionally painful for me," and (iii) "I sometimes spend less because of the negative emotions that spending causes"; all questions used 11-point scales coded from −5 to 5, anchored at Disagree and Agree with Neither disagree nor agree marking the midpoint.

In Appendix S1, we present a pre-registered factor analysis confirming that the items measuring the importance of the maintaining slack, eating healthily, long-term financial health, and pain of payment, loaded on four distinct factors. This ensures that our independent and dependent variables were distinct. Participants indicated their age, sex, household income (16 bins from under $10,000 to $150,000+ in $10,000 increments), and country of residence before finishing the study.

### 6.2 Results and discussion

#### 6.2.1 Results

Consistent with H1, the stronger an individual’s goal to maintain financial slack, the more pain of payment they experienced ($r = 0.36, t(299) = 6.74, p < 0.001; Table 1; Figure 2). The importance of financial slack remained a significant predictor of pain of payment when controlling for long-term financial goals and healthy eating in an OLS regression model ($\beta = 0.36, t (297) = 4.65, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.068, p < 0.001$). Longer-term financial goals also correlated positively with pain of payment ($\beta = 0.20, t(297) = 1.98, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.011, p = 0.049$). Notably, the importance of healthy eating did not influence pain of payment ($\beta = 0.10, t(297) = 1.25, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.005, p = 0.211$), which is inconsistent with the possibility that the observed relationship between financial slack and pain of payment was an experimental artifact. We ran one additional regression model adding household income as a covariate to the model just described. Again, financial slack predicted of pain of payment ($\beta = 0.37, t(292) = 4.81, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.073, p < 0.001$). This suggests our results are not due to people with lower income feeling it is more important to maintain slack, and feeling more pain of payment due to objective financial constraints. We note that household income had a negative effect on pain of payment ($\beta = -0.17, t(292) = 3.85, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.048, p < 0.001$).

### 6.2.2 Discussion

Study 1 provides initial evidence for the relationship between financial slack and pain of payment. While prior literature suggests that pain of payment is self-regulatory (Prelec & Loewenstein, 1998), and demonstrates the self-regulatory consequences of pain of payment (e.g., Thomas et al., 2011), they do not investigate the self-regulatory goals underlying the pain of payment, as we do in study 1. Notably, long-term financial goals and household income do not explain this relationship, inconsistent with the possibility that broader perceptions of financial scarcity instead drive pain of payment (Tully & Sharma, 2022). Additionally, the importance of an unrelated goal (healthy eating) did not predict pain of payment; this suggests that the effects of financial slack are not simply an experimental artifact (e.g., participants mindlessly reporting agreement to all items).

The correlational nature of study 1 prevents us from making causal conclusions regarding the relationship between financial slack and pain of payment. In study 2 we manipulate the salience of financial slack, seeking evidence for a causal relationship between financial slack and pain of payment.

### 7 STUDY 2 MANIPULATING SALIENCE OF FINANCIAL SLACK HEIGHTENS PAIN OF PAYMENT

In study 2, we replicate the relationship between slack and pain of payment observed in study 1, providing further evidence for H1. Study 2 additionally extends study 1 in two key ways. First, study 2 uses an experimental manipulation to establish a causal relationship between financial slack and pain of payment. By manipulating salience, we can alter...
the sway of a financial slack goal without altering other potentially relevant factors (e.g., payment methods) that could influence other unmeasured psychological processes. Second, in study 2 we measure pain of payment for specific purchases, rather than at a trait-level. This helps to generalize our findings, as people's experience of negative affect in the moment can differ from their memory or perception of their affect (Kahneman & Riis, 2005). In study 2, we additionally demonstrate one downstream implication of our research: We examine whether pain of payment, as manipulated by the salience of one's financial slack goal, influences preferences between a more expensive branded alternative and a cheaper non-branded alternative. We pre-registered analyses and predictions for this study through AsPredicted.org; the pre-registration is available in Appendix S1.

7.1 | Method

We recruited 501 participants from MTurk; we removed 4 responses with duplicate MTurk IDs, leaving a final sample size of 497 (186 female, 310 male, 1 not reporting; \(M_{\text{age}} = 36.64\)). Five hundred participants afforded 99% power to detect an effect of size \(d = 0.30\).

Participants saw the description of financial slack and comprehension questions from study 1, followed by a bank of questions including four items about how important two different goals were to them. The four items for each goal mirrored study 1: (i) "_____ is important to me," (ii) "I prioritize _____," (iii) "I think a lot about my _____," and (iv) "I carefully monitor my _____" (11-point scales coded from −5 to 5, anchored at Disagree and Agree with Neither disagree nor agree marking the midpoint). All participants first saw these four items pertaining to the goal of spending time with friends and family, which we included to reduce hypothesis guessing. Critically, half of participants then saw four items on financial slack, and half saw four items on healthy eating. This constituted our manipulation—by directing some participants' attention toward their financial slack prior to pain of payment (which came next, and is described in the next paragraph), we attempted to heighten the salience of the goal to maintain slack, thereby heightening pain of payment.

We next presented participants with three products, one after another, randomly drawn from a set of seven stimulus replicates (an Amazon Echo Dot for $59.99, a Ring Video Doorbell for $99.99, an Instant Pot Duo Nova for $99.99, a Nespresso machine for $159.99, a Nest learning thermostat for $249.99, a Roomba Robot Vacuum for $249.99, and a Yeti Tundra Cooler for $249.99; we drew product prices, images and abbreviated descriptions from Amazon.com). For each item, participants answered three pain of payment questions that paralleled the questions asked in study 1: "Spending $__ on ____..." (i) "...would cause me stress," (ii) "...would be emotionally painful for me," and (iii) "...would make me spend less on other things because of the negative emotions that it caused" (11-point scales coded from −5 to 5, anchored at Disagree and Agree with Neither disagree nor agree marking the midpoint). On the following screen, participants read "If you were deciding between the ____, which cost $__, and a cheaper non-branded option that cost $__ less [coded to cost 15% less than the branded option], which do you think you would choose" (7-point scale coded from −3 to 3 anchored at Definitely choose the ____ and Definitely choose the cheaper non-branded option, with Not sure marking the midpoint). Participants indicated their age, sex, household income, and country before...
finishing the survey. Participants in the control condition additionally answered the four items on the importance of maintaining financial slack with these demographics. This allowed us to control for these scores without making financial slack salient for participants in this condition.

7.2 | Results and discussion

7.2.1 | Results

We pre-registered all predictions through AsPredicted.org. As in study 1, we averaged the three pain of payment items (α’s for the three items were above 0.90 for all seven product replicates), leaving three pain of payment scores for each participant—one for each of the three items that they saw. We averaged these to form one pain of payment composite for each participant (M = 1.61, SD = 2.70, α = 0.92). We repeated this process for each participant’s preference between pricier and cheaper alternatives—each participant had three responses for preference between a less and more expensive option (one for each of the three items that they saw), which we averaged together to form one overall preference measure for each participant (M = 0.73, SD = 1.93, α = 0.93). Finally, we averaged the items measuring the importance of maintaining financial slack (M = 2.76, SD = 1.63, α = 0.85).

As predicted, participants primed to consider their financial slack reported more pain of payment (M = 1.90, SD = 2.29) than participants primed to consider healthy eating (M = 1.33, SD = 2.63, t(490) = 2.56, d = 0.23, p = 0.011; Figure 3, top). This result held when controlling for participants’ ratings of how strongly they held the goal to maintain financial slack in an OLS regression (β = 0.53, t(494) = 2.57, partial η² = 0.013, p = 0.011). We additionally noted that controlling for experimental condition, participants who were more concerned about financial slack experienced greater pain of payment, replicating the result from study 1 (β = 0.55, t(494) = 8.63, partial η² = 0.131, p < 0.001). Notably, order of elicitation did not influence the importance of financial slack (MslackFirst = 2.24, SD = 2.00, MpainFirst = 2.40, SD = 2.16; t (292.17) = 0.66, d = 0.08, p = 0.508), consistent with the notion that merely making this goal more salient—even without changing its importance—can increase pain of payment.

Finally, we conducted a mediation analysis to test one downstream consequence of our research: whether priming financial slack influenced preference between more and less expensive alternatives via its influence on pain of payment. As shown in Figure 3, (i) participants primed with financial slack reported more pain of payment (statistics reported above; Figure 3 top), (ii) pain of payment increased preference for a cheaper non-branded alternative (statistics reported above; Figure 3 top), and (iii) priming slack had the predicted indirect influence on preferences (95% BCCI: [0.04, 0.34]; residual direct effect: β = 0.33, t (494) = 12.38, partial η² = 0.24, p < 0.001; total effect: β = 0.24, t (495) = 1.59, partial η² = 0.01, p = 0.113; Figure 3 bottom).

7.2.2 | Discussion

Study 2 extends study 1 by providing causal evidence that activating a goal to maintain financial slack increases pain of payment. Taken together, studies 1 and 2 show that people experience more pain of payment when the goal to maintain financial slack is activated. Again, while prior literature suggests that pain of payment is a self-regulatory phenomenon (Prelec & Loewenstein, 1998), it does not identify a specific goal at play in this process. Studies 1 and 2 provide evidence that violating a goal to maintain financial slack results in pain of payment.

In the following studies, we examine how perceptions of financial slack can deviate from objective calculations of wealth. While the goal to maintain slack may vary in strength or salience, a given payment may also feel like a larger or smaller decrease in slack. In studies 3–5, we explore how different mental accounts are more or less linked to judgments of financial slack, and demonstrate the consequences for pain of payment.

8 | STUDY 3: ACCOUNTS MORE ASSOCIATED WITH SLACK ARE MORE PAINFUL TO DEPLETE

Imagine a consumer whose judgments of financial slack depend almost entirely on how much cash they have on hand, and very little on how much money is in their checking account. For this person, spending cash will feel like a large decrease in slack, and so will be more painful than spending out of their checking account. However, for someone whose judgments of financial slack depend almost entirely on how much money is in their checking account, and very little on how much cash they have, this pattern might reverse. Controlling for how much money someone has total, we argue that pain of payment depends on the mental accounts consumers weight most heavily when judging their financial slack (H2). In study 3, we use a conjoint analysis to measure the degree to which each participant weights four different accounts in judging financial slack. We then test whether these weights predicts pain of payment. Study 3 extends previous studies by investigating the relationship between specific mental accounts, financial slack, and pain of payment, without any assumptions about how each participant views each account. This highlights a novel source of variance in the pain of payment—the degree to which the store of wealth being depleted is incorporated into judgments of financial slack for a given consumer.

8.1 | Method

We recruited 197 participants from MTurk (91 female, 106 male, Mage = 37.92). Participants read the description of financial slack and answered comprehension questions from study 1. Participants then completed the survey in two blocks: one measuring the degree to which they weighted four different accounts—checking, savings,
physical cash, and credit card debt—by financial slack, and one measuring how much pain of payment the participant would experience paying from each account. We counterbalanced the order of these two blocks (order had no effect, and so we do not discuss it further).

8.1.1 Measuring each account’s influence on financial slack

We first measure the degree to which each of four accounts—checking account, savings account, physical cash, and credit card debt—were weighted in each participant’s judgment of financial slack. We measured these values without explicitly asking participants for them via a conjoint analysis. Participants reviewed nine financial profiles, each of which listed the balance an individual had in all four accounts (see Figure 4). For each financial profile (presented in random order), participants indicated how much financial slack they felt a person with that financial profile had (7-point scale anchored at No financial slack at all and A large amount of financial slack). We constructed the conjoint profiles in accordance with a pre-set configuration that allows for statistically efficient calculation of main effects (Rao, 2014, p. 49; see Appendix S1 for the values of each account for each profile).

To estimate the degree to which each account was weighted in a participant’s judgment of financial slack, we ran a regression for each participant using the nine slack ratings as the dependent variable, and the balances of each account in the profiles as the independent variables. This yielded four coefficients for each participant—one for each account. These coefficients measured the extent to which participants’ slack judgments depended on the monetary value of each account. Conceptually, these represented the extent to which each account was weighted in financial slack judgments for each participant (Table 2).

One account was credit card debt. While we presented this account at the same levels as the other accounts ($200, $800, $1400), participants read that it represented, for example, $200 worth of debt (i.e., it had a negative value).

We used the term “leeway” in our survey materials to avoid jargon.
8.1.2 | Measuring pain of payment from each account

To assess how painful it would be to make payments from each account, we asked participants to consider different purchases made from each of the four accounts. We used three purchase replicates to increase power: a $20 book, a $50 gift for a friend, and $85 for car repairs. For each account, participants rated how painful it would be to make each of the three purchases (7-point scale anchored at Not painful at all and Very painful) from each account. We randomized the order in which the accounts appeared. We average the three pain ratings for each account for each person (ɑsavings = 0.90, ɑchecking = 0.88, ɑcash = 0.90, ɑdebt = 0.91), yielding one pain of payment measure for each account for each person (Table 2).

8.1.3 | Additional measures

Before finishing, participants responded to demographic questions (gender, age, household income, employment status) and exploratory financial questions (how much financial slack do you have currently, how much would a windfall into the four accounts shown in the conjoint exercise influence your slack, how often do you check your bank account balance online, how much cash do you typically carry).

8.2 | Results and discussion

8.2.1 | Results

We predicted that it would be more painful to spend from accounts that participants weighted more heavily in judgments of financial slack (H2). To test this prediction, we constructed a data set with four rows per participant, one row each for savings, checking, cash, and credit card debt. We have a measure of each account's mean pain of payment (averaged from the three pain of payment questions), and its weight in financial slack judgments (extracted from the participant-level regressions predicting slack from each account across the nine financial profiles). We conducted a mixed effects model, predicting pain of payment from an intercept term, and weight in financial slack judgments, including random intercepts and slopes by participant and account. As predicted, accounts that were more strongly associated with financial slack carried greater pain of payment (β = 1.01, t(107.62) = 1.99, p = 0.049).

8.2.2 | Discussion

In study 3, we measured the weighting of four different mental accounts in financial slack judgments. We show it is more painful to spend from accounts that are weighted more heavily in financial slack judgments for a given individual (H2). The conjoint analysis allowed us to avoid explicitly asking participants to consider the degree to which they weight each account with financial slack, reducing the possibility for demand effects or hypothesis guessing. Prior literature on pain of payment documents differences in pain of payment across people, based on whether or not they use a shopping list at the store (Sheehan & Van Ittersum, 2018). Study 3 provides a novel way in which pain of payment varies across people. Specifically, because different people weight different mental accounts more or less strongly in financial slack judgments, and different accounts are more or less painful to spend down.

9 | STUDY 4: RESTRICTED USE RESOURCES ARE LESS PAINFUL TO SPEND

In study 4, we restrict the uses of a resource that consumers use to make a purchase. As discussed previously, restricting the possible uses of a resource should lower its association with financial slack.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pain</th>
<th>Weight in slack judgment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings</td>
<td>4.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checking</td>
<td>3.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credit card</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 4 A sample conjoint profile seen by participants in study 3 (configuration of all nine profiles is displayed in Appendix S1).
reducing pain of payment. As we discuss later, we speculate that this pattern should replicate with other restricted-use resources, such as food supplements, store credit, airline miles, or rewards points.

9.1 | Method

We recruited 199 participants from MTurk (79 females, 119 males, 1 not reporting; Mage = 39.47), affording 85% power to detect an effect of size \( d = 0.30 \). Participants read the description of financial slack and answered the comprehension questions from study 1. Participants then imagined that they had “a gift card to Amazon.com for $100” that was intended for the books section of the website. To manipulate the degree to which this resource influences financial slack, subjects then read that the gift card either could or could not be used make any purchase on Amazon. We predicted that participants would feel the restricted resource (books only) contributed less to their financial slack than the unrestricted resource (all of Amazon).

On the next screen, participants answered “To what extent would you feel that the gift card increases your financial flexibility?” (7-point scale from Not at all to Very much), measuring the account’s association with financial slack. Following this measure, participants chose a course from a drop-down menu of online course offerings. This set up the following screen’s purchase scenario: “This course requires a textbook, which costs $80. The book is available on Amazon.com, and you plan to purchase it there because of your gift card.” Participants then answered: “How painful would it be to purchase the textbook for $80 using the gift card?” (7-point scale from Not at all painful to Very painful). In reality, Amazon offers unrestricted gift cards, but not books-only gift cards. As such, we asked participants how realistic they found the scenario to be. While participants found the unrestricted scenario to be more realistic \( (M_{\text{restricted}} = 4.24, \ SD = 2.03, M_{\text{unrestricted}} = 5.53, \ SD = 1.46; \ t(136.37) = 4.49, \ d = 0.73, \ p < 0.001) \), perceived realism did not interact with any of the effects we examined (all \( p’s \geq 0.478 \)); as such, we do not discuss perceived realism further. Participants responded to demographic questions (frequency of shopping on Amazon, age, household income, gender, employment status) before the survey concluded.

9.2 | Results and discussion

9.2.1 | Results

The manipulation was successful: participants in the less restricted condition believed the gift card contributed to their financial slack \( (M = 4.32, \ SD = 1.82) \) more than participants in the more restricted condition \( (M = 2.63, \ SD = 1.69; \ t(196.65) = 6.78, \ d = 0.96, \ p < 0.001) \). As predicted, participants in the less restricted condition felt the purchase was more painful \( (M = 3.73, \ SD = 1.93) \) than those in the more restricted condition \( (M = 2.57, \ SD = 1.97; \ t(196.49) = 4.19, \ d = 0.59, \ p < 0.001) \).

Mediation analysis was consistent with the conceptual model: participants in the less restricted condition believed the gift card contributed more to their slack (as just reported), and ratings of the extent to which the gift card contributed to financial slack positively predicted pain of payment \( (\beta = 0.42, \ t(197) = 6.16, \ p < 0.001) \). The indirect effect was positive, as predicted (95% BC CI [0.31, 0.92]; residual direct effect: estimate = 0.56, \( t(197) = 0.1.91, \ p = 0.057 \).

9.2.2 | Discussion

In study 4, we demonstrated that restricted-use resources are less associated with financial slack than nonrestricted resources, making them less painful to spend. This provides additional evidence that purchases that reduce slack less are less painful. We additionally note that restricted use resources are common in the real world: people often receive them (e.g., when they receive gift cards or airline points) or actively create them (e.g., when they save up for vacation or use health savings accounts). Prior literature shows that physical differences in how money is stored can alter pain of payment by making it feel more or less like money (Raghubir & Srivastava, 2008). We show that analogous mental differences in how money is perceived—as more or less restricted—can similarly alter pain of payment.

10 | STUDY 5: DIFFERENT PAYMENT APPS ALTER PAIN AND INDUCES PREFERENCES REVERSALS

In study 5, we tested one direct implication of the present research for two commonly used peer to peer payment apps: Venmo and Zelle. Venmo and Zelle are similar in most respects; however, Venmo allows users to store the money they receive in a balance within the app, while Zelle draws on money stored in a bank account. When users receive a payment, it goes into this balance rather than directly into one’s bank account (as with Zelle). We suggest that Venmo balances may be less associated with financial slack than bank account balances (which Zelle draws on) because Venmo balances are relatively novel (giving consumers less time to internalize that they can be a source of financial slack) and because Venmo balances are restricted (many retailers do not accept payment from Venmo). Thus, we predict that consumers will find it less painful to spend with Venmo than with Zelle.

In study 5, we tested this idea by asking participants to rate pain of payment and make four choices between similar alternatives, varying which alternative would be purchased with Venmo and Zelle. Critically, we find significant differences in pain of payment between the two apps. We even find that these apps can induce preference reversals between alternatives, suggesting that people’s preferences between payment apps may at times be more impactful as their preferences between goods.

Study 5 additionally contributes by offering a novel sample—university students instead of participants recruited from MTurk. This offers two main advantages. First, we demonstrate that we are able to generalize our hypothesized effects beyond participants recruited from MTurk. Second, because undergraduate students are a better
known and more homogeneous group, we can be more confident that the choices we present (e.g., between two pairs of headphones) are relevant to our participants.

10.1 | Method

We recruited 187 participants from the behavioral lab of a major state university ($M_{\text{age}} = 20.04, 96$ females, $91$ males, 5 not reporting). We maximized our sample size subject to subject pool constraints: 187 participants allowed $82\%$ power to detect an effect of size $d = 0.30$. Participants first indicated how familiar they were with Venmo and Zelle (5-point scale anchored at Not familiar at all and Extremely familiar), and whether they had an account with Venmo and Zelle. While participants were more familiar with Venmo ($M = 4.51, \text{SD} = 0.89$) than Zelle ($M = 1.82, \text{SD} = 1.03; t(186) = 27.96, d = 2.79, p < 0.001$), our effects were robust across levels of familiarity with the two apps (see Appendix S1 for a discussion of the effect of familiarity). Participants then read a brief article describing the differences between Venmo and Zelle (Bowman, 2022), and answered two comprehension questions.

Participants next made four choices between two similar alternatives in four categories relevant to students: speakers (Bose Soundlink Color II vs. JBL Flip 5), backpacks (Herschel Little America vs. North Face Borealis), coffee makers (Nespresso Essenza Mini vs. Keurig K-Slim), and headphones (Apple AirPod Pros vs. Beats PowerBeats Pro). Each choice appeared on its own screen. We introduced each of the four choices by telling participants to imagine they were shopping for a new speaker/backpack/coffee maker/pair of headphones, and that they had found two options on Facebook Marketplace that they could pick up from someone nearby (Figure 5). Critically, one alternative in each choice would be paid using Venmo, and the other would be paid using Zelle (randomized).

Participants next indicated their preference on a 6-point scale (e.g., Strongly prefer Airpods, Prefer Airpods, Weakly prefer Airpods, Weakly prefer PowerBeats, Prefer PowerBeats, and Strongly prefer PowerBeats (Figure 5)). On a separate screen, participants indicated how painful it would be to pay for each alternative using the prescribed payment mechanism (7-points scale anchored at Not painful at all and Very painful with Somewhat painful marking the midpoint). Participants then indicated their age, gender identity, and whether they had recently taken any similar surveys in the lab.

10.2 | Results and discussion

10.2.1 | Results

As predicted, payment app had a large impact on both preferences and pain of payment. First, $65.51\%$ of participants preferred the product they could purchase using Venmo, generating a preference...
reversal pictured in Figure 6 (left). Additionally, averaging across the stimuli, participants reported less pain of payment with Venmo ($\alpha = 0.85, M = 2.93, SD = 1.62$) than with Zelle ($\alpha = 0.89, M = 3.70, SD = 1.68$; paired $t(747) = 11.57, d = 0.47, p < 0.001$). Because of repeated measures within participants and within stimuli, we replicated our analysis with a mixed-effects model. We predicted pain of payment (1–7) from payment app (0.5 for Venmo and −0.5 for Zelle), including random intercepts for participants and stimuli, and a random slope of payment mechanism by participant and stimulus. Again, participants found it more painful to pay using Zelle than using Venmo ($b = -0.77, t(27.91) = 7.10, p < 0.001$).

Pain of payment additionally influenced preferences, demonstrating one consequence of this research for downstream behavior. For each choice participants made, we have two pain of payment measures, but only one preference measure. As such, we subtract pain of payment with Venmo from pain of payment with Zelle to create a single pain of payment score. As predicted, the difference in pain between Venmo and Zelle was strongly associated with preference for the Venmo-paid alternative ($r = 0.59, t(185) = 10.04, p < 0.001$; Figure 6, right).

10.2.2 | Discussion

In study 5, we demonstrate that highly similar payment apps can induce differences in pain of payment, resulting in preference reversals. This is a critical finding, as Venmo and Zelle are similar in so many respects as peer-to-peer payment apps. This study demonstrates the implications of the present research for retailers considering whether to accept payments from novel payment apps. We note that because we conducted this study in a university lab, and the sample was relatively young, we believe that these results would best generalize to similarly young populations. Further, it is probable that older populations view these payment apps differently than younger populations (Jargon, 2019). Nonetheless, it is instructive to note that, at times, consumers’ preference for a payment app can outweigh their preference between brands.

11 | GENERAL DISCUSSION

In this research, we demonstrate that violating a goal to maintain financial slack is one antecedent to the pain of payment. In studies 1 and 2, we measure and manipulate the goal to maintain financial slack, demonstrating that this goal influences pain of payment. In studies 3 and 4, we demonstrate that mental accounts more associated with financial slack produce more pain of payment. This suggests that a given payment can feel like a greater decrease in slack, and so can feel more painful, depending on the mental account it depletes. Finally, in study 5, we demonstrate that different payment mechanisms can actually induce preference reversals—because of the consequences for financial slack and the pain of payment, payment mechanisms can have a greater influence on decisions than products themselves.

This research makes a number of contributions for researchers and practitioners alike. First, while the main focus of prior research is on downstream consequences (e.g., Shah et al., 2016) and moderators (e.g., Soster et al., 2014) of the pain of payment, we identify one psychological antecedent to the pain of payment—perceived losses in financial slack. We additionally build on prior literature by strengthening the conceptual bridge between the pain of payment and the literature on self-regulation, goal pursuit, and negative affect (Prelec & Loewenstein, 1998; Zellermayer, 1996). Finally, our work contributes by identifying novel moderators of the pain of payment. For instance, restrictions on a resource—whether externally imposed via

![Venmo Appears with](image1)

![Preferred Venmo Paid Option](image2)

FIGURE 6 Left: Participants preferred the alternative they could purchase using Venmo. Distributions depict participants’ preferences for the left- or right-side option when the right-side option was paired with Venmo (white distribution) and Zelle (black distribution). Right: The more painful Zelle was relative to Venmo (x-axis); the more people preferred the Venmo-paid alternative (y-axis).
The notion that some resources are more associated with financial slack than others has important implications for current and novel financial technologies (e.g., credit cards, Venmo, Zelle, or crypto currencies). It is important for regulators to be aware that different stores of wealth may be psychologically easier or more difficult for consumers to spend based on consumers’ perceptions of their wealth. For instance, many consumers clearly have a difficult time controlling their credit card spending. The present research suggests one reason why this may be the case—consumers might see their credit card as a way to spend without cutting into their financial slack, reducing the pain of payment (and its break on spending).

Relatedly, while money stored in Venmo might be more convenient and secure than physical cash, it is also psychologically easier to spend (study 5). This is important for retailers—while airlines have long been aware that it is easier for their customers to part with their miles than to part with their dollars, other retailers are only now beginning to take notice (Berthene, 2018). One wonders whether Venmo balances and airlines miles are as easy to put toward saving money as they are to spend, suggesting a possible application of this research to boost savings rates.

### 11.1 Future research

The goal to maintain financial slack likely varies in any population. The extent to which people feel this goal and the subjective process by which people judge changes in their financial slack, merit further investigation. Our data suggest that there is variance across the population in how slack judgments are formed, as does prior literature (e.g., Sheehan & Van Ittersum 2018). For instance, some people may feel abundant slack if their checking account is relatively full, while others may feel abundant slack if they have a greater amount of cash on hand. To date, relatively little work has investigated what drives perceptions of financial slack—or its conceptual equivalent, financial scarcity (Paley et al., 2018). Far more research has focused on measurement of and outcomes of perceived scarcity (Lastovicka et al., 1999; Netemeyer et al., 2017; Paley et al., 2018; Rick et al., 2008, 2011; Shah et al., 2012; Sharma & Alter, 2012; Sharma et al., 2014; Tully et al., 2015). Understanding judgments of financial slack or scarcity is critical, as these judgments influence a myriad of behaviors, and are decoupled from one’s objective financial situation (Tully & Sharma, 2022). Thus, future research should ask what are the main drivers of perceived financial slack/perceived financial scarcity. Why do some objectively wealthy people feel financially constrained? Do liquidity constraints play a larger role on perceived financial slack than objective wealth? And, critically, how do these variables influence consumption behavior and the pain of payment?

There is additionally a broad set of goals beyond maintaining financial slack that might influence pain of payment. For instance, pain of payment might arise when people purchase something made with poor labor practices (violating a prosocial goal; Ehrich & Irwin, 2005), or something that is too expensive (violating a goal to be a market maven; Feick & Price, 1987; Thaler, 1985). People want to be able to justify their choices sufficiently to others and to the self (Shafir, 1993). Thus, the perception that a purchase is not sufficiently justifiable is in part responsible for pain of payment (consider that it is more painful to make hedonic than utilitarian purchases, which seems consistent with this supposition; Rick et al., 2008). It seems possible that what we term pain of payment is in fact a constellation of negative emotions that accompany any given payment. Future research should aim to identify additional specific goals that, when violated, result in pain of payment. Aside from financial slack, what other goals are widely shared by consumers, and are violated by day-to-day purchases? Are certain goals more important for certain consumers? For instance, do self-identified environmentalists feel more pain of payment when purchasing something with a worse carbon footprint? Do self-identified market mavens feel more pain of payment when purchasing something at full price (vs. on sale), or when purchasing something at a high price (e.g., purchasing gasoline when prices are high)? These questions have important implications for marketing practice, as academic researchers could provide practitioners with a “checklist” of the different goals that a purchase might threaten, allowing them to strategically structure their offerings to minimize consumers’ pain.

### 11.2 Conclusion

In this research, we argue that violations of the goal to maintain financial slack are one psychological antecedent to the pain of payment. We demonstrate that because different mental accounts contribute to perceptions of financial slack differently, they may be more or less painful to deplete, and they may even drive preference reversals. This has important implications for our existing understanding of the pain of payment, and the psychology of consumer payments. We believe that future work exploring other goals, and how they interact, will prove fruitful in further developing our understanding of the psychology of payments and purchases.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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**DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

The data that support the findings of this study are available in the supplementary material of this article.

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**SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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