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*THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE
2012 CONFERENCE
OF
THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ADVERTISING*

Edited by
Dr. Margaret Morrison
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ADVERTISING

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PREFACE

This volume of the 2012 Proceedings contains the pre-conference, competitive, and special topics sessions presented at the 2012 Conference of the American Academy of Advertising held March 15-18 in Myrtle Beach, SC. The papers in this volume are organized in the order in which they appeared in the 2012 Conference Program.

Over 160 competitive papers and 12 special topics proposals were submitted for review. As in previous years, the competitive papers were selected by a double blind review process in which neither the authors' nor the reviewers' identities were known to each other. Authors had the option of publishing an abstract only or a paper in full. A total of 76 competitive papers and eight special topics sessions were accepted and formed the focus of the sessions.

The special topics sessions were coordinated by AAA President-Elect Kim Sheehan of the University of Oregon. Summaries of the special topics sessions presented at the conference are included in the Proceedings.

In addition to the papers and special topic sessions, there were two Pre-Conference sessions. The first was titled "The Advertising Curriculum for 2012 and Beyond." The second focused on the current challenges associated with teaching and conducting research on advertising ethics.

The conference was a great success due to the efforts of many and therefore I must recognize the role of the AAAs members who contributed to quality of the work contained in this publication. As authors, reviewers, and session participants we have collectively added to our understanding of advertising theory and practice.

In addition, I want to acknowledge the many session moderators who volunteered their time and expertise, the sponsors who provided financial support, Conference Manager Betty Djerf, and members of the AAA Executive Committee who gave valuable input into the organization of the conference. Finally, I want to single out one particular person for my infinite gratitude: AAAs Executive Director, Pat Rose. I truly believe that she has been the recipient of a thousand emails and a few hundred phone calls from me over the last few years; her patience and helpfulness is one of the main reasons AAA runs so smoothly.

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PRE-CONFERENCE SESSION: THE ADVERTISING CURRICULUM FOR 2012 AND BEYOND

John Sweeney, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill

The general reaction to the pre-conference workshop was quite positive. The mandate for both the advertising industry and advertising education is clear. Success will come to those able to continuously monitor the changes in the marketplace and adapt to radical technological developments. On the other hand, the traditional art and craft of effective brand storytelling will remain important no matter how many platforms emerge and how many shiny new sites and services are added to a marketing plan.

There were nine presentations on a variety of subjects aimed at shaping the future of advertising curriculum. Following is a brief summary of the presentations:

Brian Sheehan, Syracuse University, looked at advertising education from the perspective of a teacher and an employer. He included direct interviews with leading people who hire students and discussed the strengths and weaknesses of current educational approaches. He provided a truly unique overview to the complete process covering the transition of a student from the classroom to the agency.

Laura Bright, Texas Christian University, analyzed the future of advertising media. She interviewed significant professionals and showed insightful perspectives on traditional media versus the new world of digital. Her presentation contrasting old and new terms in media was a striking illustration on how the business continues to change.

Douglas McKinlay, Brigham Young University, presented how a student ad agency was started and attracted national clients and attention. He also discussed how the process helped develop the portfolios of his creative students.

Lance Porter, Louisiana State University, presented how the university dedicated itself toward constructing a digital curriculum as part of a state strategy to attract business. The implication for teaching campaigns was analyzed in superb detail.

Lisa Duke Cornell and Sabrina Habib, University of Florida, presented a multi-media documentary about students and technology including unexpected insights like the idea that brainstorming can now be between a single person and a laptop. They showed new kinds of classrooms that were specially constructed to use emerging technology.

John Sweeney, UNC-CH, led the audience through a series of exercises designed to reinvent the advertising curriculum from the ground up. Five different groups presented new approaches to teaching based on these exercises.

Dana McMahan, UNC-CH, presented an innovative teaching experiment where students developed brand new products with complete selling materials from displays to packaging. The experiment—started as a voluntary activity—is now being developed into a class.

Alyse Lancaster, University of Miami, was the faculty member guiding the national championship team in the National Advertising Student Competition in 2011. She presented a series of guidelines to organizing effective teams and motivating students in a classroom setting.

PRE-CONFERENCE SESSION: ADVERTISING ETHICS: TEACHING, RESEARCH, AND CHALLENGES

Esther Thorson, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO
Margaret Duffy, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO

This program was sponsored by the Institute for Advertising Ethics, a partnership of the American Advertising Federation, and the Strategic Communication Faculty at the Missouri School of Journalism. We would like to thank especially Mr. Wally Snyder, Director of the Institute for Advertising Ethics, and Mr. David Bell of the Institute's Advisory Board for their intellectual and financial contributions to the pre-conference.

Overview

Persuasion in general and advertising in particular face important and diverse challenges, especially with the growing influence of digital formats, behavioral targeting, globalization, and a morass of legal and regulatory guidelines. This panel brought together experts in the academy and the profession to discuss these challenges.

Summary

The conference covered a wide range of topics focusing on the concept that advertising ethics and practices are crucially related to issues of trust. Further, it was suggested that organizations developing and implementing ethical practices are more likely to be successful in the long term, a contention that should be further tested. Ultimately, organizations and brands are judged by their performance, not their public pronouncements. All of the participants emphasized that in professional and academic realms, ethics must be thought of as a conversation and a process, not a set of rules applied to any situation. Practitioners, marketers, and students need a toolbox of concepts and ideas to help them develop real-world solutions in response to ethical dilemmas. In addition, future research should build on existing theoretical approaches but also broaden our understanding of consumer perceptions of ethical and unethical activities.

CHALLENGES TO ADVERTISING ETHICS IN THE DIGITAL REALM

Panel Chair: Wally Snyder, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO
Lee Peeler, National Advertising Review Council, New York, NY
Robert Burnside, Chief Learning Officer, Ketchum, Inc., New York, NY
Sheryl Oliver, Howard University, Washington, D.C.

Panelists offered numerous examples of ethical issues related to news, and the blurring of news, advertising, and entertainment products. They stressed the need for transparency on the part of agencies and companies. Agencies such as Ketchum and others have developed training programs for employees. Advertising and marketing associations are pursuing various channels of self-regulation. Panelists expect ever-higher levels of scrutiny by regulators and suggest that there is considerable urgency for organizations

to put meaningful standards in place. Regulatory agencies include the FTC and the FCC, each of which has different priorities. Consumer interest groups are also playing a much larger role, especially with regard to privacy intrusion.

NEW ADVERTISING ETHICS RESEARCH

AMERICA'S SELF-REGULATORY PROGRAM FOR ONLINE BEHAVIORAL ADVERTISING: SUCCESS OR FAILURE?

Jef Richards, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI

In the fall of 2010 a group of organizations that develop and direct advertising's self-regulation activities banded together to create a program that would help consumers recognize when information was being collected about their behavior on the Internet. The organizations included the American Association of Advertising Agencies (AAAA), the Association of National Advertisers (ANA), the Direct Marketing Association (DMA) and the Interactive Advertising Bureau (IAB) and the Council of Better Business Bureaus (CBBB). Thus far this two-year old effort has produced mixed results.

INVASIVE OR HELPFUL?: CONSUMER PERCEPTIONS OF BEHAVIORAL TARGETING

Heather Shoenberger, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO

Mark Sableman, Thompson Colburn LLP, St Louis, MO

Esther Thorson, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO

This study asked student respondents to evaluate scenarios in which there was a tradeoff between getting advertising for products they were interested in and having to provide some personal information about themselves. The findings suggest that despite previous headlines, consumers do prefer targeted advertising, even if their online behavior is tracked to provide that targeting. The ethical issues surrounding privacy continue to be a central focus as advertisers, consumers, and regulators try to find the right balance.

INTRUSIVENESS IN ADVERTISING

Steve Edwards, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, TX

This session provided an overview of all the ways in which advertising can be intrusive—from billboards interrupting a beautiful view to commercials interrupting a favorite program. Edwards and his colleagues have been involved in developing a scale to measure advertising intrusiveness. One of the best ways to reduce the experience of intrusiveness is to target advertising more tightly to the interests of consumers, although as noted in the prior paper, the tighter the targeting the more likelihood of abusing personal privacy.

INSPIRATION FOR ADVERTISING ETHICS: AN INTERVIEW WITH DAVID BELL

*David Bell, former CEO, Interpublic Group, and Current Member, Advisory Council,
Institute for Advertising Ethics*

This interactive discussion drew on Mr. Bell's experience in his many roles in a major advertising agency, his decision-making processes, and the examples of others. The discussion highlighted that the practice of advertising ethics is "an ill-structured problem" in that there may be more than one right way to deal with dilemmas. Mr. Bell also emphasized the importance of telling stories about ethical decision-making in an emotionally compelling way.

TEACHING ADVERTISING ETHICS

INTEGRATING ADVERTISING INTO ALL ADVERTISING CLASSES

Jan Slater, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Champaign, IL

To assure that ethics is an integral component of how college students think about advertising, Slater suggests that the topic should be infused throughout the advertising curriculum. There are ethical problems with creative, media planning, account management, and in advertising research. When the study of ethics is isolated into a single advertising ethics course students are less likely to internalize concepts and be able to apply ethical decision-making processes.

TEACHING ADVERTISING ETHICS WITH THE FUTURE PRACTITIONER IN MIND

*Gregory Pabst, San Francisco University, San Francisco, CA
David Koranda, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR*

Media and advertising are strongly relationship-based businesses and students must understand how all roles in advertising can be affected by this. Media buyers may be offered improper "incentives," for example. The creative process has many inherent potential ethical issues and the differing values of the client as well as other actors inside and outside the agency must be considered. Schools must provide students with realistic preparation for the potential conflicts in values and interests that inevitably arise.

ADVERTISING ETHICS IN BROADER CONTEXT

ADVERTISING ETHICS AND MARKETING ETHICS

Richard Beltramini, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI

Beltramini reported on a study that was in press in the Journal of Business Ethics. Third in a series, the newest study, a survey of more than 2000 college students, showed the highest level of concern about ethics in the young people. Students worried that ethical concerns would damage their own financial status, would damage the economy, and would put them under future pressure to breach ethical boundaries. It is crucial to examine the ethical concerns of young business students because they are predictive of the level of honesty and integrity we will see in the next generation of advertising and marketing students.

UPDATE ON THE CURRENT STATE OF ADVERTISING ETHICS THEORY

Minette Drumwright, University of Texas, Austin, TX
Patrick Murphy, University of Notre Dame, South Bend, IN

These authors have done extensive work interviewing advertising academics and business leaders about their advertising ethics. It is clear from these interviews that ethics remains a central issue, but the nature of the conflicts and problems is changing rapidly with the growth of digital forms of advertising and the increasing ability to target advertising. A continuing problem is that the companies that are involved in advertising have business and ownership linkages that more easily lead to conflicts of interest.

THE ABILITY OF CAUSE-BRAND ALLIANCE TO ENHANCE CBBE AND WOM INTENTION: ROLE OF BRAND REPUTATION, FAMILIARITY AND FIT

Hyejoon Rim, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL
Jaejin Lee, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL
Sylvia M. Chan-Olmsted, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL

Abstract

The current study investigates how prior brand reputation, cause-brand familiarity, and cause-brand fit influence customer based brand equity (CBBE) and word-of-mouth (WOM) communications. The results show that prior brand reputation has a strong effect on CBBE, and their intentions to engage in WOM communication. In addition, when it comes to choosing a nonprofit brand for alliance, nonprofit brand familiarity and its fit with a company brand influenced CBBE and WOM intentions. More interestingly, the interaction effect between prior brand reputation and nonprofit familiarity on WOM communication is confirmed, meaning that for a company with a negative reputation, an alliance with a familiar cause brand or high fit cause brand is important to enhance consumers' intention of positive WOM communication toward the company. Implications of the study are discussed in terms of effectiveness of cause-brand alliances.

FUNCTIONAL MATCHING EFFECT IN CRM: MODERATING ROLES OF PERCEIVED MESSAGE QUALITY AND SKEPTICISM

Eleonora Manuel, Cogent Research, Cambridge, MA

Seounmi Youn, Emerson College, Boston, MA

Doyle Yoon, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK

Abstract

With application of the functional matching effect, this study examined the conditions under which the message matching to attitude bases would elicit greater persuasion. Using an experiment, the perceived message quality and CRM skepticism were tested as moderators of the relationship between matching framework and persuasion. As expected, the functionally matched message appeared to generate greater persuasion when the argument was perceived to be strong. Additionally, low skeptics showed more favorable responses to the matched message compared to high skeptics. Theoretical and managerial implications were discussed to enhance the persuasiveness of CRM messages.

CONSUMER EVALUATION OF CAUSE-BRAND ALLIANCE IN CAUSE-RELATED ADVERTISING: THE ROLE OF BRAND FAMILIARITY AND PERSONAL RELEVANCE

Jaejin Lee, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL
Hyejoon Rim, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL
Sylvia M. Chan-Olmsted, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL

Abstract

The current study aims to investigate the relative effects of cause-related marketing (CRM) involving cause-brand alliance (CBA) while evaluate the relationship between the cause brand familiarity and personal relevance of cause. A 2 X 2 (cause brand familiarity: high or low and personal relevance: high or low) experimental study examines the effects on attitudes toward ad, company, and cause-brand alliance (CBA). The overall findings attest to the main effects of cause brand familiarity, personal relevance of the cause, and the interaction effects of the familiarity and relevance. Theoretical and managerial implications, limitations, and future research are discussed.

CAUSE EXHAUSTION IN CAUSE-RELATED MARKETING: ARE CAUSES LOSING THEIR EMOTIONAL POTENCY?

Melanie L. Buford, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO

Gwen F. Daniels, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO

Paul D. Bolls, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO

Glenn Leshner, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO

This study will explore the relationship between a consumer's perceived frequency with which a cause is featured in cause-related marketing and brand-related attitudes and intentions – an important issue in a time when consumers are looking to align themselves with socially conscious companies. As marketers develop cause-related marketing campaigns that stem from consumers' expectations about social responsibility, spending on cause-related marketing campaigns has soared to over \$1.55 billion in 2009 alone, according to a prediction by IEG ("Sponsorship Spending" 2009).

Although cause-related marketing has been prevalent in advertising for half a century, the frequency in which companies depend on the strategy – and the need for research on its effectiveness – is rapidly increasing. In the past, literature has explored concepts that relate to specific message features in cause-related marketing executions, but in order to anticipate the potential affects of this type of advertising, researchers and industry professionals need a better understanding of how cause-related marketing messages affect consumers.

Cause-related marketing takes place when a company engages in communications that leverage its contributions to a cause for self-promotion and financial gain (Varadarajan & Menon 1988). Polonsky and Speed offer an overarching description of cause-related marketing: it "is commercially motivated and involves the 'giving' firm acquiring and leveraging the right to be associated with the recipient" (2001 p. 1365). Although cause-related marketing strategies are often executed with messages that focus around donations to a cause per transaction (Kotler & Lee 2005), companies are also donating a fixed amount and leveraging branding from the cause in their communications much like they would in a sponsorship (Polonsky & Speed, 2001).

At its core, cause-related marketing is an emotional advertising strategy that seeks to show consumers that brands care about the very things that matter to the consumers themselves. Cause-related marketing can be explained by the classical conditioning theory, which suggests that when companies pair conditioned stimuli (CS), like heartfelt causes that are familiar to consumers, with unconditioned stimuli (US), like brands that are less familiar to consumers, the consumers will transfer their attitudes from the favored, familiar CS to the unfamiliar, US.

Cause-Related Marketing Background

As consumers' emphasis on social responsibility has grown, the importance of cause-related marketing has grown, as well. Although they previously looked to cause-related marketing for short-term sales solutions, marketers now consider cause-related marketing an essential way to differentiate themselves from other companies (Lafferty & Goldsmith 2005). Furthermore, cause-related marketing allows marketers to imbue their brand with good deeds and meaning beyond the functional benefits of a particular product (Deshpande & Hitchon 2002).

Cause-related marketing campaigns can also empower consumers to simultaneously help themselves and others with a single purchase – a win-win situation that benefits the company, as well. Consumers are drawn to companies that contribute on their behalf because they have one less decision they have to make in order to help others around them (Deshpande & Hitchon 2002); in addition, the cause-related purchase leaves the consumer feeling positively about the transaction, because they helped someone in need (Strahilevitz & Meyers 1998).

Ultimately, leveraging the consumers' interest in social responsibility can have a significant impact on brand related attitudes. Keller and Hoeffler identified six brand equity benefits companies acquire from well-implemented cause-related programs: building brand awareness, enhancing brand image, establishing brand credibility, evoking brand feelings, creating a sense of brand community, and eliciting brand engagement (2002).

Despite their interest in corporate social responsibility, consumers can develop skepticism about cause-related marketing programs. Werder (2005) proposes that consumers often make the assumption that company donations to the cause will be inadequate because companies are not donating for the sake of doing good, but to increase their sales – a skepticism that is relevant in consumer attitudes about cause-related marketing. In addition to consumer skepticism, marketers must recognize that the increasing prevalence of cause-related marketing messages

may result in consumer fatigue. Consumers may begin to feel bombarded by cause-related marketing messages and ultimately could tune them out. Research in this area is important to help marketers utilize cause-related marketing messages that continue to influence consumers' attitudes and behavioral intentions.

Influence of Cause-Related Marketing on Consumer Perceptions

In the 50 years since the introduction of cause-related marketing, researchers have focused on the effects of cause-related marketing campaigns on consumers and how to best develop the most effective cause-related messages. At first, researchers believed cause-related marketing campaigns would have positive results, regardless of specific message features, because consumers would respond positively when marketers did something for the greater good. While they have identified specific cause-related message features that have a positive influence on brand attitudes, researchers nonetheless conclude that cause-related marketing is good strategy regardless of the effectiveness of a specific message feature because consumers generally reward companies for doing good (Shruti & Julie 2006).

This study questions the logic of the previous researchers. Researchers in other sectors of advertising have discovered that, with all things equal, seeing a message over and over again can cause consumers to experience message "wearout" (Hitchon & Thorson 1995). In television advertising, researchers have identified three message views as the threshold for influencing consumer perceptions (Hitchon & Thornson 1995). After that point, consumers begin to feel exhausted by the message. These findings should lead researchers and industry professionals should question the assumption consumers will always reward companies for doing good regardless of the message feature.

Cause Exhaustion

This study introduces a new concept called *cause exhaustion*. Cause exhaustion counters previous research and the validity of claiming that cause-related marketing is always a good strategy for companies. The researchers theorize that there is a critical point in which consumers may become exhausted by a seeing a cause featured in advertising repeatedly. More specifically defined, cause exhaustion occurs when messages feature causes that are used in cause-related marketing campaigns all the time and in essence lose their emotional potency with a consumer. This study does not suggest that consumers will feel negatively about a brand when a high frequency cause is used, but rather raises questions about the positive effects a brand can experience when high-frequency causes are used. This study intends to discover if there is a point in which positive attitudes will no longer transfer from the good deed and cause to the brand.

Literature Review

Fit Between the Cause and Brand

One of the most researched areas in cause-related marketing literature is the degree of congruence causes and brands. Conceptually, fit refers to the degree which consumers believe the cause-brand alliance "makes sense." Research collectively found that a higher fit between the cause and the brand most often results in a more successful cause-related marketing campaign than a low fit cause-brand alliance (Lafferty et al. 2004; Shruti & Julie 2006). It is important to note that there are not any consistent findings that show that a low cause-brand fit means consumers will not like the brand (attitude) or not purchase the product (purchase intention). Almost always, consumers will reward the brand's good deeds regardless of how they perceive the brand-cause fit (Shruti & Julie 2006).

Importance of Familiarity of Causes and Brands

Familiarity is a key in any marketing campaign. If a customer does not know or recognize a brand, marketers must raise awareness about the brand name. Causes and brands alike can have familiarity in consumers' minds. Brand familiarity normally stems from consumer use of a product or a service (Lafferty et al. 2004). Cause familiarity comes from repetition of seeing the cause.

When the brand or cause is unfamiliar to consumers, the unfamiliar entity can benefit from pairing with a familiar and favorable brand or cause (Lafferty & Goldsmith 2005). The unfamiliar brand or cause acts as a brand extension from the positive brand or cause raising awareness of the brand or cause with the consumer and their perceptions of the brand or cause (Lafferty & Edmondson 2009).

Causes that are highly familiar with consumers have an upper hand in the cause-brand alliance negotiating process (Lafferty et al. 2004). Lafferty, et al. found that highly familiar causes have the ability to elevate consumer attitudes towards the brands they partner with (2004). This is why many brands are partnering with the same causes, because those causes have already proven that they have a special spot in consumers' hearts. This study seeks to identify if cause exhaustion exists regardless of familiarity of the cause.

Beliefs, Attitudes, and Purchase Intentions

Kotler & Lee suggest that one of the many reasons companies decide to use cause-related marketing is to enhance their brand image and status among socially responsible consumers (2005). In order for a brand to enhance its image and status, consumer attitudes must either be formed or changed. In its simplest form, an attitude is "an evaluation of an object of thought" (Bohner & Dickel 2011). Fishbein and Ajzen offer two very important implications surrounding consumer attitudes for brands: attitudes can influence consumers' actions, and those actions are consistently favorable or unfavorable of the brand (1975). With this foundation for attitude, researchers can use theories like classical conditioning to explain how attitudes ultimately influence consumers' evaluations of cause-related marketing campaigns and the cause-brand alliances within them.

Basil & Herr found that the consumer's attitude toward the brand involved in the cause-brand alliance had a significant influence on the consumer attitude toward the cause and nonprofit involved in the campaign (2003). This is an especially important finding for cause managers, because if not developed wisely, a campaign that was created to do good for the cause as well as the brand can hurt the cause. Basil & Herr also found that attitude toward nonprofits and causes significantly improved when prior attitudes toward the brand involved were positive than when they were negative prior to seeing the cause-related marketing campaign (2003).

The Role of Viral Videos in Cause-Related Marketing

As advertising technology evolves, the ways in which consumers receive marketing messages are changing, too. Online videos have become a prominent form of circulating media messages organically, passed along by the consumer without a push from the advertiser. When an online video is passed along enough, industry professionals consider it viral – a personal, unpaid form of marketing (Porter & Golan, 2006). According to a Pew Internet & American Life Project study, about half (53%) of the adult US population has watched or download a video online from popular websites like YouTube and Google Video, which are used specifically for sharing videos.

The prevalence of online viral videos has spilled over to cause-related marketing, as well. Researchers found that when an online message has greater hedonic or utilitarian content, users are more willing to share it with people they know (Chiu et al. 2007). In addition, MindComet found that viral videos are usually less about the product and more about an emotional aspect of the advertising message (2006), suggesting that marketers should use this online strategy for message content like cause-related marketing.

Theoretical Framework

This research study proposed that causes are in fact emotionally potent stimuli that resonate with the consumer to spur information processing. It was theorized that cause exhaustion occurs when causes are featured over and over again in messages. In essence, there is a critical point in which causes lose their emotional potency (Lang, 2006). The motivational relevance and novelty of the stimuli affect whether or not individuals automatically allocate resources when processing cause-related marketing messages. This study suggested that the perceived cause frequency in cause-related marketing affects this automatic allocation of resources. The study used classical conditioning theory and the limited capacity model of motivated and mediated message processing (LC4MP) to explain cause exhaustion. The analysis focused on uncovering a mediation model between perceived cause frequency and forward intention through evoked arousal.

Classical Conditioning Theory in Cause-Related Marketing

The principles of classical conditional theory give rise to the strategy behind cause-related marketing campaigns. According to classical conditioning theory, when individuals view a conditioned stimulus (CS), a stimulus they are already familiar with, paired with an unconditioned stimulus (US), a stimulus they are unfamiliar with, the individual will transfer their attitudes from the CS to the US (Shimp, et. al 1991). In cause-related marketing campaigns, marketing specialists typically aim to transfer the affective responses from a cause (CS) to a

brand or product (US). Even if they are unfamiliar with the specific cause, the consumer should recognize the idea of giving, which serves as a positive CS.

As classical conditioning theory suggests, cause-related marketing campaigns have a strong influence on the consumer. Research in cause-related marketing supports the claim that positive attitudes about a cause or brand or the cause-brand alliance will be transferred positively to the brand or product (Simonin & Ruth 1998); subsequent research found that when consumers have a high attitude toward a brand in the cause-brand alliances, they are more likely to purchase the product, a behavioral intention measure (Shruti & Julie 2006).

LC4MP Applied to Cause Exhaustion

Although the classical conditioning theory offers a solid theoretical framework for cause-related marketing, the LC4MP provides an argument surrounding the essence of cause exhaustion. As stated previously, the researcher hypothesized that the phenomenon of cause exhaustion would occur when messages feature causes that have a high-perceived frequency in cause-related marketing campaigns, and thus, ultimately lose their emotional potency with the consumer. This emotional potency and its effects lie in the how individuals process cause-related messages.

Two main assumptions about the LC4MP provide the theoretical framework for this study. First, information processing has a limited capacity, which means that there are a finite and limited amount of resources that individuals can use at any given time for three simultaneous sub-processes: encoding, storing and retrieving information (Lang 2006; Lang 2009). Second, individuals automatically allocate resources when the information is motivationally relevant. The LC4MP assumes that individuals' motivational and cognitive systems are highly connected and constantly influence one another (Lang 2009). This is why all information processing is considered motivated processing.

In order for stimuli to be motivationally relevant, an individual's aversive or appetitive motivational systems must be activated. The appetitive system is activated by positive stimuli, while the aversive system is activated by negative stimuli. According to Lang, the level of activation in these motivational systems is directly tied to the level of arousing content in the message (2009). The more arousing the message is, the increased level of activation occurs.

One element of automatic resource allocation comes from the orienting response (Lang 2009). The orienting response occurs when a stimulus contains signal information. An example of signal information is when a stimulus is introduced into a new environment, like a scene change or a noise (Lang 2009). The orienting response elicits a signal that sparks the individual's attention. This study included novel stimuli introduced in the environment of cause-related marketing messaging. A stimulus is considered novel when it is new to the particular environment where it is being introduced (Lang 2006). It is important for researchers to know that novel stimuli do not differ among individuals, ultimately affecting individuals equally (Lang 2006).

The Effects of Cause Exhaustion on Brand Attitudes and Intentions

Causes are emotionally potent stimuli. It was theorized that cause exhaustion occurs when causes are featured over and over again in messages. In essence, at a critical point these causes lose their emotional potency, known in the LC4MP as motivational relevance or novelty. The motivational relevance and novelty of the stimuli affect whether or not individuals automatically allocate resources when processing cause-related marketing messages. This study suggests that the perceived cause frequency in cause-related marketing effects this automatic allocation of resources.

For example, cause-related marketing campaigns that feature the Susan G. Komen For the Cure, a philanthropic organization affiliated with the breast cancer research cause, are vast. The number of partnerships a consumer sees on any given day with this cause is overwhelming. The researchers suggest that the novelty of partnering with this cause has long passed because the cause is perceived to be featured at a high frequency in product packaging and cause-related marketing campaigns. During a typical shopping experience, consumers see pink ribbons, a prominent image associated with the organization, in just about any aisle in the store. The researchers suggest, that while the pink ribbon is most likely information stored in memory, it may be too overused to maintain emotional potency ultimately reducing the effect of the cause-related message. The level of activation within the aversive and appetitive systems is reduced because the stimulus is less motivationally relevant than it once was. With the lack of novelty and motivational relevance, a message that once was highly arousing has a harder time activating motivational systems to that extent that it once did. Ultimately, the researchers theorized that evoked arousal would be less for stimuli that are less motivationally relevant and novel. For this experiment stimuli high-perceived frequency causes were considered to be less relevant and novel.

This research used a mediation model to test whether the perceived cause frequency affects forward intention through evoked arousal in cause-related marketing videos. Two simple mediation models are proposed,

one for high-perceived frequency causes (see Figure 1) and the other for low-perceived frequency causes (see Figure 2). For both models, the perceived frequency (independent variable) is the participant's self-reported perception of how often they see the cause in cause-related marketing messages. Evoked arousal (mediator) and forward intention (dependent variable) are both measured and calculated scores from self-report items in the experiment.

Figure 1: Proposed Mediation Model for High-Perceived Frequency Causes

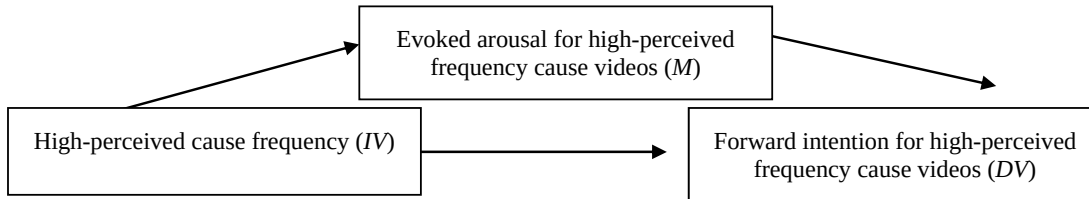


Figure 1: Illustration of a mediation design. Independent variable (IV) is hypothesized to exert an indirect effect on dependent variable (DV) through the mediator (M).

Figure 2: Proposed Mediation Model for Low-Perceived Frequency Causes

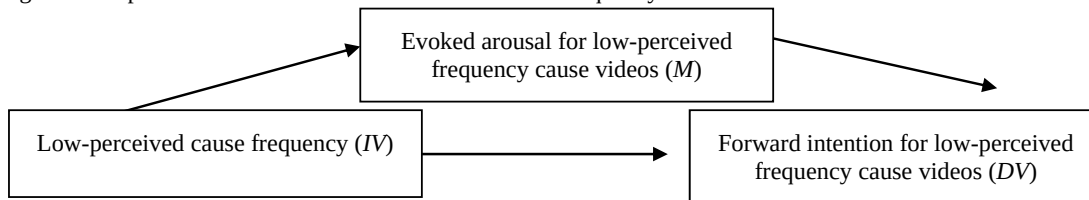


Figure 2: Illustration of a mediation design. Independent variable (IV) is hypothesized to exert an indirect effect on dependent variable (DV) through the mediator (M).

Information processing is vital to whether or not an individual can evaluate their attitudes and behaviors regarding the message content. Due to the fact that there is a significant amount of cause-related marketing campaigns that are executed through online videos, it is important to understand if perceived cause frequency and the levels of evoked arousal influence consumers' intentions to forward cause-related marketing messages.

While research shows that online videos are more likely to be passed along when they have an emotional element (Chiu, et al, 2007), the researchers suggest that there may be a different effect on intent to forward a cause-related marketing message because the relationship among perceived cause frequency and evoked arousal in online videos is different than previous research on online videos and arousal.

RQ1: How does perceived cause frequency and level of evoked arousal affect the intent to forward a cause-related marketing message?

This study used a macro developed by Preacher and Hayes (2004) for SPSS in order to generate bootstrap confidence intervals that estimate the total and specific indirect effects in this simple mediation model of the independent variable (x) on the dependent variable (y) through the mediator (m). By using the bootstrapping nonparametric resampling procedure, the researchers were able to estimate the indirect effects despite the small sample size. According to Preacher and Hayes, bootstrapping has no assumptions about normal distribution and allows the researcher to repeatedly sample the data set (at least one thousand times) and determine the estimated indirect effects among each resampled data set (2004).

Method

The current study employed a 2 (perceived frequency: high/low) X 3 (cause) within-subjects repeated measures pretest –posttest experimental design. Independent variable was perceived frequency while cause was the repeated measures factor. The dependent variable was forward intention. Evoked arousal was a measured mediating variable in this study. Perceived frequency was also measured in exploratory testing as well as the experiment

pretest to ensure there was a significant difference between the means of high-perceived and low-perceived frequency causes.

Independent Variable

Perceived frequency of a cause. The perceived frequency of a cause is conceptualized as a psychological state in which an individual perceives a cause to be used in cause-related marketing. This study manipulated perceived cause frequency in online videos by classifying causes in two levels: high and low. The level of perceived frequency for each cause was assigned by measurements collected from a pretest.

The researcher tested perceived cause frequency with 40 participants who did not take part in the final experiment. To test perceived cause frequency, 15 causes that are commonly used in cause-related marketing were identified through a client list provided by IEG, a leader in cause-related sponsorships. The following causes were pretested: American Cancer Society, American Heart Association, Boy Scouts of America, Children's Cancer Research Fund, Susan G. Komen For the Cure, Make-A-Wish Foundation, March of Dimes, MDA, The Salvation Army, Special Olympics, National Geographic, Unicef, United Way, USO, and World Wildlife Fund.

Care was taken to only test national causes with which participants are most likely to be familiar. Thus, the researcher chose to test participants' recognition of IEG's cause client list to ensure that perceptions of well-known causes were being compared. In the exploratory testing questionnaire, participants were presented with a commonly used definition of cause-related marketing. After reading the definition, the participants viewed 15 cause logos and were asked to rate the perceived frequency with which each cause is perceived to be used in cause related marketing on a 9-point scale anchored by *never* to *extremely frequently*. There was a significant difference between the means of high-perceived frequency causes ($M = 7.41$) and low-perceived frequency causes ($M = 3.08$), $F(1,40) = 317.844$, $p < .0001$. Complete list of means and standard deviations for each cause found in the Appendix in Table 2.

Causes featured in the online stimulus videos. In this study, a cause was conceptualized as a philanthropic organization that is featured in an online video. Cause was used as a repeated factor in the research design. Six causes were used in this study. Three causes were classified as having low frequency (Boy Scouts of America, Muscular Dystrophy Association, USO) and while the other three were classified as having high frequency (American Cancer Society, Make-a-Wish Foundation, Susan G. Komen For The Cure). Each participant viewed videos about all six causes during the experiment.

Dependent Variable

Intention to forward the message. Intention to forward the message is conceptualized by the participant's reported belief that they would share the cause-related marketing message with someone else. Operationally, this variable was defined by responses to two items borrowed from previous research conducted by Bolls: "This ad is worth sharing with others" and "I will recommend this ad to others" (2011). These two items were measured on a 9-point scale anchored with *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*.

Measured Variable

Due to the nature of this study and its base in the LC4MP, it was important to recognize arousal as a mediating variable. Previous research showed that evoked arousal was very closely tied to how motivationally relevant a message was to the individual. The level of activation that occurred in both the aversive and appetitive systems was dependent on this variable. The researcher assumed that perceived frequency of the cause could be directly tied to increased arousal. However, by measuring these two mediating variables, the researcher was able to draw more specific conclusions.

Evoked arousal in the individual. According to Lang, evoked arousal is conceptualized in messages by the level of excitement elicited by the message content (Lang, 2009). This study specifically measured the participant's perception of evoked arousal to the message. Arousal in this study was defined by how aroused the individual was. Operationally, this study defined evoked arousal as the participants' self-report of their perception of how aroused they were after viewing the message content on a 9-point scale and anchored with *not at all aroused*, *not at all excited* and *extremely aroused*, *excited*, *awake* (Bradley & Lang, 1994).

Exploratory testing of arousal in the message content. In order to avoid introducing arousal as a confounding variable, care was taken to ensure that the perception of arousal in each unbranded video was as similar as possible before ever manipulating the stimulus materials. In the exploratory testing, participants were asked to rate how arousing the message was in the online videos by using the same scale used in the final experiment. Twenty-four online videos were tested with 23 college-aged students who did not participate in the final experiment. For the selected videos, the evoked arousal means were not significantly different for high-perceived frequency causes ($M = 5.90$, $sd = 1.739$) and low-perceived frequency causes ($M = 5.95$, $sd = 1.795$), $F(1, 23) = .052$, $p = .822$.

Stimulus Materials

Before creating the experimental stimuli, the researcher employed strategies to avoid two important confounding variables in the experimental design: level of evoked arousal and pre-existing attitude toward the brands to be presented.

Due to the overwhelming amount of differences in cause-related marketing executions and the variations among the messages, the researcher opted to develop six cause-related marketing videos for this controlled experiment in order to keep a consistent balance of brand messages and cause messages. To maintain consistent levels of evoked arousal, the researcher selected twenty-four public service announcements to pretest for arousal. These videos ranged in length from 35 seconds to 90 seconds. The universe of videos chosen included four videos for each pretested cause including high-perceived frequency causes (American Cancer Society, Make-A-Wish Foundation and Susan G. Komen For the Cure) and low-perceived frequency causes (Boy Scouts of America, Muscular Dystrophy Association and USO). During the exploratory testing, videos were rated for the level of arousal of the content on a 9-point scale. Only moderately arousing videos were chosen to as a strategy to eliminate arousal as a potential mediator. For the selected videos (See Appendix: Table 3), the evoked arousal means were not significantly different for high-perceived frequency causes ($M = 5.90$, $sd = 1.739$) and low-perceived frequency causes ($M = 5.95$, $sd = 1.795$), $F(1, 23) = .052$, $p = .822$. In addition, the researcher took into consideration the potential effects of the participants' attitude toward the brand could have on forward intention. In order to minimize attitude toward the brand effects on the dependent variable, the researchers employed two strategies. First, attitude toward the brand was measured on 20 brands in exploratory testing. Participants were asked to answer how they felt toward the brand on a 9-point scale anchored with *completely negative* and *completely positive*. Only brands with similar attitude scores were chosen. The mean averages (Appendix, Table 4) for the six brands chosen were not significantly different, $F(1, 23) = 1.837$, $p = .184$. Second, the researcher formed two conditions and created 12 videos in total. See the Appendix, Table 2 for a complete list of cause and brand pairings per condition. This manipulation helped cancel out any potential effects attitudes toward the brand might have on the dependent variable of forward intention.

After the public service announcement videos were selected, the researcher manipulated the videos by adding branded cause-related marketing messages at the bottom of the screen during the video and at the end of video. At the bottom of each video, the participant viewed the following message accompanied by the brand's logo "[Insert brand name] cares about the [insert cause name]." At the end of the video participants were reminded again about brand's support for the cause and encouraged them to share the video with someone else, "Help [insert brand name] raise awareness about [insert cause name]. Share this video with your family and friends." Beneath the text, the cause logo and brand logo appeared on the screen.

Procedure

Participants were 76 university undergraduate students with an average age of 19.45 years. Twenty-three students were male and 53 students were female. Recruitment for the study took place in two large lecture courses at a large midwestern university. Participants individually completed the testing in two settings. Before their scheduled appointment, participants were sent a link via email and given instruction to complete the pre-test questionnaire for the experiment at least 12 hours prior to their research appointment. The experiment and post-test questionnaire took place by appointment in campus computer lab. Informed consent was obtained from each participant, and those who participated received course or extra credit for their participation.

Procedure

First, participants were sent a link through Survey Monkey software to answer the pre-test questionnaire, self-reporting their attitudes toward the each brand, attitudes toward each cause, and perceived frequency that each cause was used in cause-related marketing messages. Only participants that completed the pre-test questionnaire at least 12 hours prior to their appointment time were invited to participate in the experiment in a research lab at a large state university. The computer program MediaLab was used to control the presentation of instructions, stimulus videos, and questionnaire items. Stimulus videos were presented in a random order. Participants watched the videos on individual desktop computers and listened to the audio through headphones. Participants were able to move forward at their preferred speed as they answered each question. After each video, participants reported their

evoked arousal and forward intention. In the post-test questionnaire, additional self-reported measures and memory evaluations were conducted after watching a short distracter video in order to collect data for a broader set of research questions and hypotheses. After the participant concluded the 25-minute experiment, they were debriefed and dismissed.

Results

Manipulation Check

Perceived frequency was measured again in the pre-test questionnaire to ensure this group of participants viewed the perceived frequency of the causes the same as exploratory participants did prior to stimuli exposure. This relationship was examined through a 2 (perceived frequency) X 3 (cause) repeated-measures ANOVA comparing the means of high-perceived frequency causes and low-perceived frequency causes in the exploratory testing to those in the pre-test questionnaire. Again, there was a significant difference between the means (Appendix, Table 3) of high-perceived frequency causes ($M = 6.82$, $sd = 2.417$) and low-perceived frequency causes ($M = 5.056$, $sd = 2.253$), $F(1,70) = 49.802$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_{part} = .416$.

The mediation model tested whether perceived cause frequency affected intention to forward through evoked arousal in cause-related marketing. A paired-samples t-test indicated that there is a significant difference between the levels of evoked arousal in high-perceived frequency causes and low-perceived frequency causes, $t(75) = 6.19$, $p < .001$. The mean for evoked arousal of the message was higher for high-perceived frequency causes ($M = 6.23$, $sd = 1.46$) than low-perceived frequency causes ($M = 5.28$, $sd = 1.53$). This is why the researcher tested separate models to determine the indirect effect of evoked arousal on the relationship between perceived cause frequency and forward intention.

High-Perceived Frequency Model (Figure 3): For the “a path,” or the effect of perceived frequency on evoked arousal, $B = .2881$, $t(72) = 3.0529$, $p = .0032$. The path is significant but in the direction opposite than predicted, indicating support for the mediation model but not for cause exhaustion. For the “b path,” or the direct effect of evoked arousal on forward intention, $B = .9291$, $t(72) = 6.1390$, $p < .0001$. The path is significant in the opposite direction than predicted, indicating support for the mediation model but not for cause exhaustion. For the “c path,” or the total effect of perceived-cause frequency on forward intention, $B = .1836$, $t(72) = 1.2447$, $p = .2174$. The path is not significant; indicating that perceived cause frequency has no total effect on forward intention. For the “c’ path,” or the direct effect of perceived-cause frequency on forward intention, $B = -.0841$, $t(72) = -.6608$, $p = .5109$. The path is not significant; indicating that perceived cause frequency does not have a direct effect on forward intention. For the “ab paths,” or the indirect effects of perceived cause frequency on forward intention through evoked arousal, $p = .0058$. The path is significant, indicating that evoked arousal mediates the relationship between perceived cause frequency and forward intention in cause-related marketing messages that use high-perceived frequency causes. This result does not support the theory of cause exhaustion. This model explains 34.89% of the variance in the dependent variable or forward intention.

Figure 3: Mediation Model for High-Perceived Frequency Causes

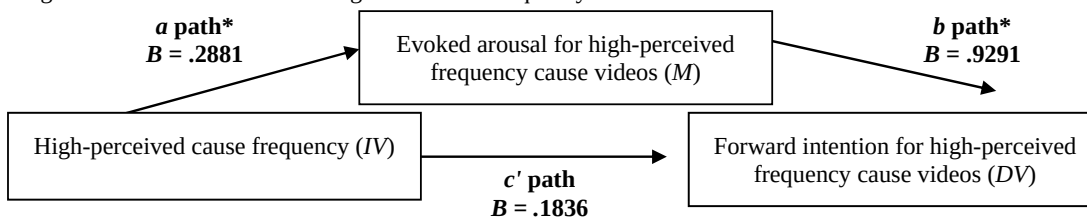


Figure 4.1: Illustration of a mediation design. Independent variable (IV) is hypothesized to exert an indirect effect on dependent variable (DV) through the mediator (M). *A significant path

Low-Perceived Frequency Model (Figure 4): For the “a path,” or the effect of perceived frequency on evoked arousal, $B = .0991$, $t(75) = 1.0569$, $p = .2941$. The path is not significant, indicating no support for the mediation model or cause exhaustion. For the “b path,” or the direct effect of evoked arousal on forward intention, $B = .7996$, $t(75) = 6.6277$, $p < .0001$. The path is significant in the predicted direction, indicating support for the

mediation model and cause exhaustion. For the “c path,” or the total effect of perceived-cause frequency on forward intention, $B = .0813$, $t(75) = .6680$, $p = .5063$. The path is not significant; indicating that perceived cause frequency has no total effect on forward intention. For the “c’ path,” or the direct effect of perceived-cause frequency on forward intention, $B = .0021$, $t(75) = .0218$, $p = .9827$. The path is not significant; indicating that perceived cause frequency does not have a direct effect on forward intention. For the “ab paths,” or the indirect effects of perceived cause frequency on forward intention through evoked arousal, $p = .2933$. The path is not significant, indicating that evoked arousal does not mediate the relationship between perceived cause frequency and forward intention in cause-related marketing messages that use low-perceived frequency causes. This result does not support the theory of cause exhaustion.

Figure 4: Mediation Model for Low-Perceived Frequency Causes

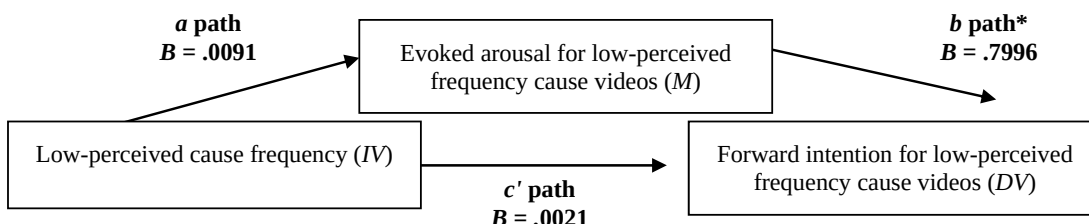


Figure 4.2: Illustration of a mediation design. Independent variable (IV) is hypothesized to exert an indirect effect on dependent variable (DV) through the mediator (M). *A significant path

Through bootstrapping analyses, the researchers determined that there is a significant meditation model for high-perceived frequency causes but not for low-perceived frequency causes.

Discussion

The underlying goal of this study was to determine if the researchers’ theory of cause exhaustion was accurate. The researchers suggested that there is a curvilinear relationship between perceived cause frequency and an individual’s attitudes and intentions. Cause exhaustion suggests that a participant’s attitudes and intentions are negatively affected by high-perceived frequency causes and positively affected by low-perceived frequency causes due to the novelty of the message feature. The reasoning for this comes from the LC4MP model. When causes are featured over and over again, causes lose their emotional potency and motivational relevance for the consumer. For the LC4MP model, emotional potency or the novelty of the stimuli and motivational relevance are vital for an individual to automatically allocate their limited resources to information processing and ultimately to forming attitudes and behavioral intentions. The researchers suggested that low-perceived frequency causes were in fact more novel and therefore the results should illustrate higher evoked arousal and behavioral intentions for cases with low-perceived frequency causes than for high-perceived frequency causes.

However, the results found an inverse effect of perceived cause frequency on evoked arousal and forward intention. The results suggest that the perceived cause frequency does in fact motivate information processing. However, the theory of cause exhaustion does not stand up in this study. The relationship between perceived frequency and forward intention resembles a linear relationship versus a curvilinear relationship. The results showed that higher perceived frequency causes had higher means of evoked arousal and higher means for forward intention. With the LC4MP model, the results suggest that high-perceived frequency causes are possibly novel stimuli or at least learned information that signals automatic allocation of resources, much like someone hearing their name.

The high-perceived frequency mediation model offers a very interesting insight into how perceived cause frequency and forward intention are related. While there is no direct effect of perceived cause frequency on forward intention in the high-perceived frequency model, there is an indirect effect through evoked arousal as the mediator. The researchers predicted that the effect of perceived frequency on forward intention would minimize as the perceived frequency increase, but in actuality the results show that effect increased as perceived frequency did. The researchers suggest the possibility that high-frequency causes create a type of priming effect when introduced in cause-related marketing messages. While this study cannot claim orienting response because there were not any physiological measurements collected, the researchers suggest that high-perceived frequency causes prime higher

levels of evoked arousal, resulting higher levels of forward intention. For cause-related marketing specialists, this is an important finding. As noted in the introduction there are underlying tones in the cause-related marketing arena that pairing with causes that are used over and over again may minimize cause-related marketing effects or even possibly result in negative effects. However, this study suggests that the idea of cause exhaustion may not be as apparent as the researchers once believed.

There are several opportunities for future research that could offer additional industry and scholarly knowledge in regards to cause-related marketing. The researchers speculate that the cause-related marketing videos may not have been branded as heavily as cause-related messages currently are in the advertising space. The videos that were featured in this study were in essence branded public service announcements. The intention was to control the amount of branding in order to have equal levels of brand and cause messages in the stimuli. However, there are many types of executions that exist in cause-related marketing. Future research could explore types of executions in regards to the level of branding that exist in cause-related marketing messages and if cause exhaustion exists when the messages are highly commercial versus the cause-centric messages that were shared in this study.

In addition, there is an opportunity for future research to dive into a deeper understanding surrounding the effects of perceived cause frequency through the LC4MP model. Psychophysiology may be able to further dissect the direct relationship between perceived frequency and evoked arousal. This study suggests that when a consumer's perception is that a cause is used extremely frequently, that individual's evoked arousal from the cause-related marketing video is higher. Further research with psychophysiology measures could identify if there is an orienting response elicited when a high-perceived frequency cause is viewed. Experiments developed with the LC4MP model often use physiological measurements like heart rate which indicate the amount of cognitive resources allocated to process a particular media message at every second of the media exposure (Leshner, Vultee, Bolls, & Moore, 2010; Lang, 1994). By using this type of measurement, future studies could determine if perceived cause frequency increases resource allocation at its most basic physiological level and whether or not an orienting response exists with this message feature. This is an important area for both scholars and marketing professionals. Despite speculations around partnering with overused causes, this research can provide statistical evidence surrounding whether or not a consumer's perception of cause frequency effects evoked arousal, brand attitudes and behavioral intentions.

Conclusion

As a preliminary experiment on the perception of cause frequency, this study provides important insights regarding consumers' perceptions of cause frequency and their forward intentions of cause-related marketing messages. The primary finding in this study was that a mediation model exists in high-perceived frequency cause-related marketing videos: perceived frequency effects forward intention through evoked arousal. However, this mediation does not take place in low-perceived frequency cause-related marketing videos. This offers an interesting insight into the effects of high-perceived frequency causes in cause-related marketing campaigns. With higher levels of perceived cause frequency, evoked arousal increases and consumers intent to forward a message increases. This finding follows the LC4MP model directly. As an individual's appetitive or aversive systems are activated, levels of arousal, resources are automatically allocated for motivated information processing. Therefore, allowing individuals the opportunity to evaluate their behavioral intentions like forward intention.

This study's primary purpose was to determine whether or not cause exhaustion is viable theory in cause-related marketing. The evaluation of perceived frequency in the mediation model determines that cause exhaustion is not supported. However, the researchers suggest that further studies be conducted in the area of perceived frequency in order to determine whether or not the cause-related marketing creative execution has effects on evoked arousal and ultimately behavioral intentions like the intent to forward a cause-related marketing video.

Appendix

Table 1: Video Manipulation Perceived Frequency Causes and Cause

Brand: Condition 1

Brand: Condition 2

High-perceived frequency		
American Cancer Society	Pepsi	UPS
Susan G. Komen for the Cure	Amazon	Volkswagon
Make-a-Wish Foundation	American Express	L'oreal
Low-perceived frequency		
Boy Scouts of America	UPS	Pepsi
Muscular Dystrophy Association	L'oreal	American Express
USO	Volkswagon	Amazon

Table 1: In condition one, Pepsi, American Express and Amazon were paired with high-perceived frequency causes. While in condition two, these brands were paired with low-perceived frequency causes. In condition one, UPS, L'oreal and Volkswagon were paired with low-perceived frequency causes. While in condition two, they were paired with high-perceived frequency causes.

Table 2: Exploratory Testing for Evoked Arousal

Cause	Mean	Standard Deviation
High-perceived frequency		
American Cancer Society	5.92	1.998
Susan G. Komen for the Cure	5.00	1.934
Make-a-Wish Foundation	6.79	1.285
Low-perceived frequency		
Boy Scouts of America	5.75	1.595
Muscular Dystrophy Association	6.21	1.793
USO	5.92	1.998

Table 2: For the selected videos, the evoked arousal means were not significantly different for high-perceived frequency causes ($M = 5.90$, $sd = 1.739$) and low-perceived frequency causes ($M = 5.95$, $sd = 1.795$), $F(1, 23) = .052$, $p = .822$. The table shows the evoked arousal means and standard deviations for each cause.

Table 3: Manipulation Check on Perceived Frequency

Cause	Mean	Standard Deviation
High-perceived frequency		
American Cancer Society	5.56	2.228
Susan G. Komen for the Cure	4.89	2.539
Make-a-Wish Foundation	4.72	2.485
Low-perceived frequency		
Boy Scouts of America	6.87	2.177
Muscular Dystrophy Association	6.83	2.348
USO	6.76	2.233

Table 3: There was a significant difference between the means of high-perceived frequency causes ($M = 6.82$, $sd = 2.417$) and low-perceived frequency causes ($M = 5.056$, $sd = 2.253$), $F(1,70) = 49.802$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_{part} = .416$.

Table 4: Exploratory Testing for Attitude Toward the Brand

Cause	Mean	Standard Deviation
Amazon	7.08	1.692
American Express	5.46	1.769

L'oreal	6.17	1.606
Pepsi	5.92	1.501
UPS	6.17	1.551
Volkswagon	6.08	1.530

Table 4: The mean averages for the six brands chosen were not significantly different, $F(1, 23) = 1.837$, $p = .184$.

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**HOW CAN ADVERTISING BEST CRAFT COUNTER-
ATTITUDINAL COMMUNICATIONS?:
AN INTEGRATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING
COUNTER-ATTITUDINAL MESSAGES AND
COUNTERARGUMENTS IN ADVERTISING**

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Abstract

While consumers tend to show resistance to persuasive attempts, it is important for marketers or message providers to overcome these realities by understanding how consumers respond to counter-attitudinal messages, how they generate their self-counterarguments and what factors influence these responses.

In this paper, we presented several propositions regarding the previous studies of counter-attitudinal messages and further identify certain gaps in the literature. We also presented a comprehensive conceptual model that integrates the characteristics and the processing of counter attitudinal messages, and the potential interaction between counterarguments, individual differences and situational factors. In addition, directions for future study are discussed.

BALANCING “WE” AND “I”: SELF-CONSTRUAL AND AN ALTERNATIVE APPROACH TO SEEKING UNIQUENESS

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Abstract

Influenced by the need for uniqueness (NFU) theory and optimal distinctiveness theory (ODT), the current study proposes that expressing uniqueness via consumption offers a means for achieving a different sense of being without damaging the individual's sense of social assimilation. With respect to self-construal, it is suggested that highly interdependent people satisfy their need for distinctiveness by selecting unique products in order to balance their two competing needs of distinctiveness and assimilation; meanwhile, individuals with a highly independent self-construal seek out uniqueness in order to satisfy their need for distinctiveness.

A LOOK AT TWO THEORETICAL APPROACHES WHEN INVESTIGATING INTERNET BRAND ADVERTISING AND NEWS SYNERGIES

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Abstract

This research compares the effects of paid advertising (banner ad-plus-banner ad) and publicity (news article – plus - banner ad) on attitude towards the brand in the context of different product categorization approaches. The authors utilize both the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) and the economics of information theory to test the mechanism through which different electronic communications modes impact consumers' attitude towards the brand for various product categories. Findings indicate the product categorization based on the level of involvement (ELM) to be superior to the one distinguishing search from experience goods (economics of information). Including news about the brand in the online brand communication mix generates higher brand attitudes for low- and moderate-involvement products while for high-involvement products, brand attitudes become more favorable with increasing credibility of the added news message.

ADVERTISING CREDIBILITY: A VALIDATION OF THE SCALE

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Abstract

Advertising credibility has been identified as one of the most important variables that determine advertising effectiveness. However, there has been lack of consistency in terms of the number and types of dimensions. To develop a validated measure of credibility in advertising, this study examines the reliability and validity of advertising credibility scales. The result shows that Jones' credibility scale, Soh and colleagues' trust scale, and Lutz's credibility scale are highly correlated while Jones' credibility scale shows a relatively stronger correlation with attitude toward the advertising than other scales. Also, Jones' scale is a more powerful predictor of advertising credibility with less items and less factors (relevance, trustfulness, and informativeness). Implications and limitations of the study are offered.

SPECIAL TOPICS SESSION: THE FUTURE OF ADVERTISING IS AS SOLID AS A BRIC

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We live in an increasingly global and connected world. With the advent and proliferation of Internet, social, and mobile tools, our world is smaller than it has ever been before. While these disruptive technologies have wreaked havoc in several of the nations in the developed world, they are presenting opportunities elsewhere in the form of four developing economies—Brazil, Russia, India, and China (BRIC). Together BRIC will surpass the G7 in size by 2018 according to Goldman Sachs. Their collective gross domestic product (GDP) amounts to nearly \$11 trillion USD and all of these economies are growing at an astonishing rate (Wilson, Ahmed, and Kelston 2010).

As these economies grow, the opportunities for businesses (and therefore, advertising) multiply and invite interest from global players in both advertising and marketing. There has never been a more opportune time to turn our attention to these four regions. Their exploding GDPs (Brazil \$2.2 trillion, Russia \$1.5 trillion, India \$1.4 trillion, and China \$5.7 trillion in 2010 USD (Wilson, Ahmed, and Kelston 2010)) are adding to their respective per capita incomes and creating vast segments of populations with disposable incomes to buy and consume goods and services. With economic recession and consumption slowing down in most of the developed world, many companies and brands are looking to invest in these developing economies. The BRIC nations appreciate the importance of foreign investment and have all set up funds to attract multinational and foreign companies to their respective countries.

Despite the above-mentioned opportunities, very little attention has been devoted to BRIC and neighboring nations in both academic research and popular business press as far as advertising is concerned. These nations/regions are vastly different in terms of natural resources, landscape, labor and workforce, education, food and dietary habits, music, movies, languages, religion, and overall cultural. The current panel is designed to survey BRIC in terms of socio-political-economic factors and discuss current trends, issues, and future opportunities for advertising research and practice in BRIC and neighboring nations.

THE BRICS AND THE NEED FOR MORE ADVERTISING RESEARCH

Charles R. Taylor, Villanova University

While the business community and academic researchers in advertising, marketing, and communications have long recognized the importance of the BRICs, there is a clear shortage of published articles on advertising in these important markets. This presentation focused on some of the potential reasons for the paucity of advertising studies and speculated why China leads the way in terms of published studies of advertising in the BRICs.

Directions for research using data from the Brazil, India, Russia, or China were outlined. Some areas covered included interactive advertising and advertising in new media (including social media), legal issues facing marketers, creative strategies, cultural issues, standardization between the BRICs and other markets, client-agency relationships, sponsorships, product placement, and societal issues related to

advertising in these markets. Both single country studies as well as cross-national studies from these important markets were outlined.

The presentation also commented on promising theory bases for conducting cross-national research when conducting research in these BRICs. These include cultural bases such as the Hofstede and GLOBE frameworks, Global Marketing Strategy Theory, Global Consumer Culture Theory (and the idea of global consumer culture positioning), and Resource Advantage theory.

A LOOK AT ADVERTISING CREATIVITY IN BRAZIL

Gracieli Scremin, University of Tampa

The first decade of the 21st century has been deemed a revival of the Brazilian economic miracle of the 1960s and 70s. Brazil stands as one of the four emerging world economies expected to increasingly fuel the global economy in decades to come. Even though the good reputation for its economic performance has come to the foreground only over the past few years, Brazil has, since the 1990s, achieved a good name for itself among advertising creatives around the world. As early as 1993, Brazilian ad agencies and their creatives, whose work stood out for its originality and playfulness, have been recognized as major contenders in international advertising competitions. This presentation focused on the current state of advertising creativity in Brazil as well as on the opportunities and challenges it faces. We drew upon the factors that contributed to the emergence of the “creative revolution” in Brazilian advertising in the 1990s and considered the ways in which creativity in Brazil has changed and will continue to do so as the country grows as a major force in the global economy.

BEAR IN MIND: THE RETURN OF ADVERTISING IN THE ERA OF STRATEGIC COMMUNICATION IN RUSSIA

Katerina Tssetsura, University of Oklahoma

This presentation provided an overview of the latest developments in Russia in the field of advertising as part of strategic communication efforts by national companies that becomes increasingly global. After discussing the particularities of the Russian market and its growth and changes over the last 30 years, the presentation concentrated on socio-economic-political aspects of Russia addressing the opportunities and challenges in advertising which many companies in the region face every day. Then, the main issues in advertising practice in Russia and countries of the former Soviet Bloc were explored and future opportunities for advertising research and practice were highlighted. In this paper, Dr. Tssetsura presented the argument that despite the growing interest toward public affairs among the companies in Russia, advertising is central to strategic communication efforts by national and global corporations in communicating with the variety of audiences.

TIGER IN THE TANK: HOW INDIA’S AD INDUSTRY IS ROARING AHEAD

Padmini Patwardhan, Winthrop University

Though advertising has been around for over a hundred years in India, its growth as a global advertising hub is more recent. Along with China, India is the fastest growing major market in the world as well as the most populous. Today, India ranks within the 15 largest ad markets in the world. A burgeoning

middle class, youthful population, and rising consumption make it an attractive prospect for long-term growth and return on investment. Unlike China, there is little organized discussion at international advertising academic conferences or research forums about the transformations in Indian advertising despite its emergence as an advertising hotspot. Growth is not the only significant development for the Indian advertising industry. Change is evident in many other aspects including consumer culture, global and local branding issues, as well as professionalization of industry practices.

This presentation provided a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the current state of advertising in India, the drivers behind the double digit growth of its ad industry, and discussed some key advertising trends in the region. Dr. Patwardhan made the argument that India has emerged not only as a major consumer market for global and domestic advertisers, but also as a strategy and creative hub for global advertising agencies.

“ART FOR STRATEGIC GAINS” VS. “ART FOR ART’S SAKE” – CHINA’S AGGRESSIVE SELF-BRANDING IN THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

Fengru Li, University of Montana

Advertising for the sake of aesthetics is becoming a luxury that China can no longer afford and is not willing to invest in further, given the turbulent global economic crisis that for the first time in history is marrying, for better or worse, the developed world with the emerging economies. China is deploying all means of hard and soft advertising to transform its three decades - old images of “1.3 billion consumers,” “the world’s biggest factory,” and “rivalry with India.” Instead, China seeks to be known as the “world’s biggest homogeneous entrepreneurial country,” determined to ally with India, Brazil, and Russia in making the emerging economy a new economy. China wants its products to be labeled “Created in China,” not just “Made in China.” This presentation explored China’s continuous efforts in building its global brand by (1) funding its elite universities for research on advertising; (2) raising global media awareness of China’s industries of strategic value, such as clean energies; and (3) China’s very recent proposal seeking strategic alliances with India.

ADVERTISING IN TAIWAN: PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE

Shu-Chuan (Kelly) Chu, DePaul University

Since 1980s, an increasing advanced economy and high-technology industries have made Taiwan an economic power that attracts multinational and foreign companies. With its sustained economic growth, well educated workforce, and multi-party democracy, Taiwan’s per capita income level has been on the rise- its gross domestic product (GDP) reached \$430 billion in 2010, with real annual growth rate at 10.88% and per capita GDP at \$18,588 (U.S. Department of State 2011). Although Taiwan and China share similar cultural heritage and values, their advertising industries and practices have evolved quite differently due to different socio-economic-political developments and climates (La Ferle, Edwards, and Lee 2008).

According to a recent report from The Nielsen Company (2011), the 2010 total advertising expenditure in Taiwan is \$1.81 billion, with the Internet banner advertising contributing an 8.5% share of the total advertising spending. Among the main media (television, newspaper, magazine, radio and out of home), advertising spending in Taiwan increased 19% in 2010, totaling \$1.66 billion. This growth in advertising expenditure mainly came from television (21.4%), followed by newspaper (19.5%) and radio (19.2%). In particular, several sectors contributed to the region’s 2010 advertising expenditure growth, including real estate (the biggest advertising sector), finance/investment/banking, and transportation sectors. In terms of top advertising categories, building ranked on the top, with \$2.24 million advertising investment, followed by government activities (\$0.47 million) and automobile (\$0.42 million). Among the

Internet advertising banner market (The Nielsen Company 2011), leisure/personal hobbies is the biggest advertising sector, followed by financial/investment/banking, media, transportation and real estate. These industries aggressively utilize the Internet to develop highly targeted and real-time online advertising strategies.

Two issues that are related to advertising in Taiwan open future research avenues. First, Taiwan has energetically engaged in online activities and moved into the age of mobile technology, and the penetration of mobile phone subscribers had passed 120% in 2011 (budde.com 2011). Taiwan also ranked the top in blog category reach among its online population, with 85.5% of Internet users visiting blogs during June 2011, followed by Brazil (85.2%), and South Korea (84.9%) (comScore 2011a). In addition, Taiwan is also Groupon's (a daily deal site) third largest market by online penetration where it reached 8.4% of visitors in April 2011, compared to U.S. at 5.7% reach (comScore 2011b). Collectively, Taiwan has established a solid foundation for future investigations of Internet and mobile advertising in a global context. Second, as proposed above, while Taiwan and China share similar cultural backgrounds, the way they use media and respond to advertising messages may differ greatly given that Taiwan is a more liberal media market. Consequently, to effectively target Chinese communities, continued research should examine media patterns (particularly mobile and social media) and advertising perception across the two markets where present a potential opportunity for standardized advertising strategies (La Ferle et al. 2008).

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THE MATH PROBLEM: ADVERTISING STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD STATISTICS

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Abstract

This study used Sutarso's (1992a) Students Attitudes Toward Statistics (STATS) scale to measure attitude toward statistics among a national sample of advertising students. A factor analysis revealed four underlying factors make up the attitude toward statistics construct – *Interest & Future Applicability*, *Confidence*, *Statistical Tools* and *Initiative* similar to the factors found by Sutarso (1992a). Advertising students' attitudes toward statistics were shown to be more positive than negative. Students in this study were most positive about the use of *Statistical Tools* and displayed attitudes well above neutral on *Interest & Future Applicability* and *Initiative*. *Confidence* received the lowest evaluation, though still above neutral. Advertising students who were drawn to the major because of its creative aspects had significantly weaker attitudes towards statistics than did those who came to study advertising because of the business aspects. Suggestions for dealing with negative attitudes toward statistics in advertising courses are discussed.

A LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF ADVERTISING RESEARCH FROM 1980 TO 2010: THE ARCHITECTURE OF THE FIELD

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Abstract

Scholars in recent years have been critical of the state of advertising as academic field, questioning its progression and contending that advertising has failed to build indigenous theory, expand its focus, and adapt to the changing environment. It has been further charged that the journal review process has created rigid theoretical and methodological barriers to publication, retarding progression. The present study seeks to assess the maturation of the field by providing a longitudinal content analysis of articles in five top-tier advertising journals over 30 years (1980-2010, n=781) to empirically address these concerns. Results indicate the field has theoretically progressed, but has largely failed to mature significantly as a stand-alone academic unit. Instead of becoming a self-sufficient discipline, the advertising field still relies on borrowed theory and methodology as opposed to developing its own. Journals are also found to vary in their accommodation of field maturation. Implications for the field, scholars, and advertising practitioners are discussed.

USE OF STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES IN MAJOR ADVERTISING AND PUBLIC RELATIONS JOURNALS, 1980-2010

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Abstract

This study investigated the use of statistical techniques in advertising and public relations journal articles over thirty-one years, 1980 through 2010. All research articles in the four major advertising and two public relations journals were analyzed in five-year intervals: *Journal of Advertising (JA)*, *Journal of Advertising Research (JAR)*, *Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising (JCIRA)*, *International Journal of Advertising (IJA)*, *Journal of Public Relations Research (JPRR)*, and *Public Relations Review (PRR)*. For the analysis period, 1,112 articles appeared in the journals, of which 693 articles reported statistical analyses of research data. Percentages and types of statistical techniques in articles were compared between time periods and between advertising and public relational journals.

The main findings indicate: (a) use of statistical analysis in articles has increased over time, (b) statistical techniques used in articles have changed over time, and (c) advertising and public relations journals have different statistical use profiles (a)-(b), with advertising research becoming more statistically sophisticated than public relations research across the past thirty-one years. Additional questions were asked regarding the use of statistical analyses in the advertising journals only to provide a more complete profile of the use statistical techniques in advertising research over the years of analysis.

USING QUALITATIVE CONTENT ANALYSIS METHODS TO STUDY ONLINE ADVERTISEMENTS

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Abstract

Qualitative content analysis (QCA) methods were established to analyze mass media messages over half a century ago; however, there are not standardized QCA methods for analyzing online advertisements. This paper's goal is to provide a strategic framework to provide methodological sophistication and to strengthen scientific rigor for QCA research focused on analyzing online advertisements. The following nine strategic steps are recommended for standardizing QCA of online advertisements: formulation, foundation, planning, inclusion, familiarization, initial review, reliability check, comparison, and conclusion.

MORE COMPLEX THAN MEETS THE EYE: A LOOK AT PRINT AD PERFORMANCE

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Abstract

There is a long tradition of print advertising research focused on mechanical and message variables which Pieters, Wedel and Batra (2010) recently extended by focusing on aspects they label feature complexity and design complexity. To study complexity they used a combination of eye tracking and consumer attitude and reactions to 249 one-page print ads. They found that an advertisement's feature complexity, as measured by size (kb) ad JPEG, harmed brand attention, as measured by eye tracking, and attitude toward the ad, but had no impact on comprehensibility of the advertisement. We extended their work by examining the relationship between feature complexity, product involvement and print ad performance using well-known Starch print performance measures.

Our research attempted to learn whether the negative effects of higher feature complexity found by Pieters and colleagues is robust when examined with Starch recognition measures. Message feature complexity only considers the input side of the processing equation. The human processing aspect relates to the ability and motivation which the audience has to attend to or process the message. The effectiveness of advertising messages is widely believed to be moderated by involvement with the underlying concept that higher involvement products tend to be more durable, more risky, and often more expensive. Lower involvement products on the other hand tend to be more routinely purchased, less risky and lower priced. Such distinctions are expected to result in a range from very low to higher amounts of effort (split attention and working memory) devoted to process messages. We extend the work by Pieters et al. (2010) by incorporating higher versus lower involvement products into the complexity analysis. Feature complexity may be expected to interact with involvement and audience desire for information, affecting the allocation of cognitive resources and attention to process lower or higher complexity ads. We suggest that a match-up between the ad and the motivation to process inherent in the product will yield an optimal advertising strategy.

As expected, the analysis indicates that there is a strong relationship between feature complexity and ad performance, but that result is influenced by product involvement. It suggests that feature complexity interacts with product involvement. Higher feature complexity may be beneficial for higher involvement products/brands but is particularly harmful for lower involvement products/brands. The feature complexity by product involvement interaction was significant for Starch Noted and marginally significant for Associated and Signature scores.

Planned contrasts revealed that ads for lower involvement products with higher levels of feature complexity (top 20 percent in kb size) performed significantly more poorly than ads with lower feature complexity (bottom 20 percent in kb size). Further, ads with higher levels of feature complexity performed much better, overall, when advertising high involvement products. A similar relationship was found for the Starch Associated and Signature scores. It appears that high involvement products benefit from having ads with higher levels of feature complexity.

Our analysis of Starch data confirm Pieters et al. (2010) negative influence of feature complexity, but only for low involvement products. The primary distinction between our result and their study is that our analysis reveals an important positive effect for the influence of high feature complexity on ad performance for high involvement products. This strongly suggests that the nature of the product or brand should be considered as an important starting point when examining advertising feature complexity effects.

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MEDIA GUIDING CONSUMERS ACROSS DIFFERENT STAGES OF THE PURCHASE PROCESS

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Abstract

The media landscape has changed tremendously since the dramatic increase in the media offer, the fragmentation of the audience, and the advent of the internet and other interactive media. In line with these transitions, the way consumers search and use information to guide their purchase decisions has changed as well. Consumers use the internet to buy products and to search for product information, for example through search engines, brand websites, applications on their mobile phones, and brand communities (Shankar and Hollinger 2007). Additionally, consumers' use of social media such as YouTube, Facebook and Twitter exploded (Block and Schultz 2009), and these media are also used to form opinions about products and brands. As a result, using the right media mix becomes more and more critical (Rohm and Sultan 2004). Danaher and Rossiter (2011) even believe that selecting media "for marketing communications is one of today's most complex and pressing issues for marketing managers". Therefore, there is an urgent need for insight into the way consumers search and use for information across media and combinations of media that are claimed to have influenced their decision making. The current study aims at answering the following research question: Which media are used, in what stage of the purchase process, for what type of products, and by what type of consumers?

Earlier attempts to give insight into consumers' search for and use of information across media in the purchase process such as project Apollo, Touch Points or the Simultaneous Media Usage Study (SIMM) acknowledged the value of single source data (Gritten 2007). However, these attempts are very complex to administer, suffer from respondent burden, focus on purchases in general and do not distinguish between the stages of the purchase process.

We believe that it is useful for media planners and advertisers to know which media are used in various phases of the consumer decision making process. This information can guide media planners and advertisers when deciding which messages to place in which media. Therefore, we believe that the five phases of the purchase process should play an important role in our questionnaire. Besides, we also believe that our questionnaire should not focus on purchases in general, but should focus on specific purchases, because we believe consumers are unable to correctly report their information search behavior for purchases in general.

A total of 347 respondents filled in an online questionnaire (46.9 % female, mean age 45.46, SD = 18.32). After weighing the sample was representative for the Dutch population of 16 years and older considering age, sex and education. Fieldwork was conducted by TNS NIPO and took place in July 2011.

The questionnaire started with asking the respondent to indicate which product they purchased recently (last 3 months for high involvement products or the last 30 days for low involvement products). Participants were shown two lists, one list with 22 high involvement products, and one list with 23 low involvement products. Then, one of the recently bought products or services was randomly selected. Next, participants were explained that a purchase process usually has five phases, and that the questionnaire walked them through these five stages one by one. For each stage participants had to indicate which media and information sources had been important to them, and which medium had been most important.

Preliminary results of this small-scale application showed that media were most important in the stages of the purchase process before the actual purchase was made. Media that were most influential across the total purchase process were the Internet, TV and free door-to-door newspapers. Non-advertising media that were important were conventional shops and Word of Mouth. Consumers indicated that cinema, mail and outdoor advertising were least important in influencing their purchase decision. Only some small differences were found between the role of specific media in the various stages of the purchase process.

The results of this study also have some interesting implications for advertisers and media planners. By investigating media usage patterns in different phases of the purchase process, for different types of products, for different kinds of consumers, the current study offers insights that are helpful for practitioners in the current media landscape. Results can be used to guide the optimal choice of media for advertising campaigns of different types of products. For example, campaigns for high involvement products could best rely on Internet advertising,

and online stores, while WOM should also be stimulated. For low involvement products, consumers rely more on conventional stores and traditional media like television and door-to-door newspapers. Therefore, these media should play a central role in campaigns for low involvement products. The Internet was more important for men than for women which can be used when deciding on integrating online media in cross-media campaigns.

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HOW MEDIA NOVELTY AND PRESENCE AFFECT CONSUMER EVALUATIONS: THE CASE OF STEREOSCOPIC 3-D ADVERTISING

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Abstract

The current study aimed to answer how a new, innovative medium contributes to advertising effectiveness, focusing on the important roles of media novelty and presence within the context of stereoscopic 3-D technology. Three stereoscopic 3-D advertisements were tested in comparison with 2-D advertisements and we identified that the novelty effect, created by the newness of the medium, had the power to attract viewers' attention, and in turn, it enhanced their sense of presence. The findings demonstrated that these sequential relationships result in diverse positive advertising effectiveness in terms of attitudes toward the ad, brand attitude, and purchase intention.

ADVERTISING AFFINITIES: AN ANALYSIS OF READER ENGAGEMENT OF ADVERTISEMENTS IN PRINT AND ONLINE NEWS MEDIA

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Introduction

A product largely unchanged from a bygone era, the modern newspaper remains in the throes of reinventing itself. The convergence of print newspapers with the Internet, which has slowly been playing itself out for more than 15 years, has also spelled bleak times for newspapers across the country. Employee cutbacks are now regular news fare as the erosion in newspaper circulation continues (Pérez-Peña, 2009). Still, newspapers remain committed to adapting to the new realities of how news is delivered and consumed, with immediacy and interactivity. Advances in online journalism, especially those in the past decade, have changed the architecture of the newsroom so that reporters no longer merely collect and write the news. Now, newspaper journalists are trained to adapt to a host of multimedia skills that the Internet demands. Blogs, audio and video recordings are all part of the new age of interactive journalism — one that newspapers hope will deliver them from their dire straits.

Still, the news that reporters produce continues to be largely dependent on what journalists first produce for the print product. However, the same cannot be said about advertisements, the linchpin upon which the survival of the newsroom relies and a topic not often explored in the scholarly literature in the context of newspapers' sustainability. Unlike journalists, who still predominately rely on static images and the written word in the dissemination of the news items they produce, advertisers have found themselves creating two distinctly different products in two distinctly different media. Advertisers, in adapting to the interactive features of the Internet, must embrace a completely new format — namely one that is dynamic and thus very different than the traditional print format. In essence, while the online newsreader consumes the same product that appears in print, the experience of advertisement exposure in both media is quite different. This research sets out to examine that difference by asking: Do reader engagements towards advertisements vary by media? To gauge the effectiveness of ads in both media, this research relies on a premise already established in the literature — that memory retention is one of the most efficient ways of measuring the extent to which an advertisement made an impression.

This study will revisit similar research from 1998, which sought to determine the value of online advertisements (Sundar et al., 1998). That research, conducted at a time when online advertising was relatively new, concluded that print subjects remembered significantly more advertisements than online subjects (Sundar et al., 1998). The present study seeks to update that research to determine the extent to which the development of dynamic online ads in the past decade has had any effect toward making online ads more impressionable than print ads. Moreover, unlike the 1998 study, this research incorporated the use of authentic news products — real-life media in real time — in order to emulate a more true-to-life experience while also exposing participants to a more typical amount of ad content. Understanding the nature of online advertisements and the impact they make on consumers is crucial for an examination of the progress of the newspaper industry's drive toward media convergence and a commercial base drawn on ads. Answering the overall research question is important for advertisers and notably for journalists, whose futures are inexorably linked to the effectiveness of a new breed of interactive advertisements.

Literature Review

Today, convergence has spelled a fundamental change in publishing economics. As circulation figures for print newspapers continue their precipitous decline, newspaper companies drew unprecedented traffic to their Web sites in the first quarter of 2010, on average attracting 74.4 million unique visitors per month — more than one-third of all Internet users (Editor & Publisher, 2010). Still, after years of robust increases, the online newspaper audience

seems to have all but stopped growing. The number of unique visitors to newspaper Web sites was almost flat, and the total number of pages viewed by this audience had stagnated (Farhi, 2008). In short, newspaper sites are not holding on to ad dollars (Clifford, 2009). The goal of this research is to examine some of the reasons for the reality of lost revenue in digital ad sales with a comparative examination of advertisements in online and print media. Such an examination is important because lost online ad revenue may continue to have dire consequences for journalists in a new era of online journalism. Implications also extend to consumers of news. In the absence of better online ad models, the newsreader may soon encounter a reality in which the news they read online will no longer be free.

The Internet is a hypertext medium. Hypertext in a broad sense includes text, graphics, animations, videos and sound, alone or in any combinations (Gallagher, Foster & Parsons, 2001a). This hypertext allows communications to be delivered in an interactive multimedia format. The multimedia capacity has the potential to change the audience from passive receivers of information to active participants in its construction (Hoffman and Novak, 1996; Stewart and Pavlou, 2002). Indeed, the real power of the Internet — and the chief characteristic that differentiates it from traditional media — is its interactivity. Because of this, the interaction between advertisers and consumers has become greatly increased with the advent of the Web (Hoffman and Novak, 1996; Stewart and Pavlou, 2002).

Rather than merely a place for interactive space for entertainment and information consumption, the Internet can be considered a site of task-performance (Chen & Wells, 1999). Thus, “people avoid Internet ads more vigorously, especially when they have limited time to perform specific tasks” (Cho and Cheon, 2004, p. 90). Further, because users are more likely to be goal orientated when they go online, an interrupting ad may be seen to be more intrusive (Li, Edwards & Lee, 2002). Research has focused on the sheer number of online ads users encounter when browsing the Internet. The excessiveness of ads contributes to consumers’ perceptions that none of the ads are targeted specifically to them. (Elliott and Speck, 1998). The result is the conscious or unconscious expectation by Internet users that they will encounter goal impediments, ad clutter and an overall negative experience with online advertisements, spurring their avoidance (Cho & Cheon, 2004).

When ad effectiveness is measured in terms of learning and memory, recall and recognition are common dependent variables in advertising research (Stewart et al., 1985). Although both recognition and recall have been equally dominant methods used to measure memory, they engage different mechanisms of memory. Psychology researchers have explored the different mechanisms at work in recognition and recall. The dual-processing hypothesis (Anderson and Bower, 1972; Singh, Rothschild and Churchill, 1988) holds that recall involves two steps: memory search and recognition. To recall a brand name, a subject generates a number of prospective candidates for recall during the search process and then decides through recognition. The dual-process hypothesis thus assumes that recognition is a prerequisite of recall. Psychological recall and recognition have been studied in communication research as well. Sundar et al. (1998) indicate that all memory substructures control recall, though recognition requires less rigorous involvement of memory structures. Hence, recall (compared to recognition) requires higher levels of memory retention that most advertisers ultimately want to achieve through advertising messages (Danaher and Mullarkey, 2003; Singh et al., 1988).

Other research has delved into the myriad factors that go into online recollection. Time spent on a Web site has also proven to be a critical factor. Examining the use of banner ads — one of the earliest and most prevalent forms of online advertisements in which an embedded advertisement appears in a pre-specified section on a web page, sometimes with sound and video — researchers found that the longer a person is exposed to a Web site containing a banner ad, the more likely they are to remember that banner ad (Danaher and Mullarkey, 2003). Building on the concept of “banner blindness” — the idea that Internet users tend to avoid fixing their eyes on anything that looks like a banner ad (Benway, 1998) — and in keeping with the suggestion that the Internet can be considered a site of task-performance (Chen and Wells, 1999), researchers found that Internet users in a goal-oriented mode are much less likely to recall and recognize banner advertisements than users who are using the Web for more recreational purposes (Danaher and Mullarkey, 2003).

Other variables can also come into play. For example, complicated news stories paired with Web banner ads made readers recognize and recall the ads at a higher rate than if the news stories were easy to read (Chung et al., 2004). The banner ad’s position and use of graphics on a Web site has also been studied. Razzouk and Seitz (2002) asked 100 subjects to view a Web site with a series of banner ads. Four modalities were tested: a banner at the bottom with graphics, a banner at the bottom without graphics, a banner at the top with graphics, and a banner at the top without graphics. Results showed that only 8% correctly identified the presence of one banner ad. Of those, 50% incorrectly identified the product or could not identify the product at all. Sixty-two percent saw no banner ad at all; however, 70% correctly identified the Web site in which the ads were placed (Razzouk and Seitz, 2002).

In advertising research, memory effects have also been studied using traditional media. Singh, Rothschild, and Churchill (1988) conducted two experiments to compare recall with recognition of advertising messages on

television. The study examined numerous factors affecting advertising recall and recognition of television commercials. Commercial lengths, repetition, length of time between commercials and individual involvement with the advertised brand had an effect on memory retention. The study concluded that when viewers were exposed to broadcast advertising, retrieval cues, such as sound and visuals, made the ad reside longer in their memory than for viewers' exposed to print advertising with fewer stimulus cues (Singh and Rothschild, 1983; Singh et al., 1988). Those stimulus cues apparently are also present in online advertisements. Unlike newspaper advertisements, online ads are usually in color; may contain streaming audio and video; are usually linked to more information on other pages; and are capable of popping up without prompting. They can come in a variety of forms, including banners, pop-ups, text links, buttons and so-called superstitials, which emulate television commercials by featuring full animation, sound and graphics (Zeff & Aronson, 1999). These multimedia and interactive capabilities affect the effectiveness of advertising in terms of recollection (Gallagher, Foster, and Parson, 2001a). So how do online advertisements measure up against print ads?

Sundar et al. (1998) compared identical advertisements and news stories in two different media, a print newspaper and an online newspaper. Researchers tested subjects (N = 48) by exposing them to both a newspaper and a news Web site. To control for variables, half of the subjects were shown the front page of a fictitious newspaper featuring two news stories and one advertisement. The other half of the group saw the same content in online form. Results of the study showed that print newsreaders remembered significantly more advertisements than online newsreaders (Sundar et al., 1998). Researchers speculated that their findings might have to do with physical dimensions of the newspaper and the screen: "It may be speculated that the paper on which the newspaper is printed allows for the readers' eyes to consume the news page in its entirety...while the computer screen...limit readers' attention to the center of the screen" (Sundar et al., 1998, p. 830). These previous studies, however, neglected to explore how reader attitude is related to the recall process.

Consumer attitude — whether implicit or explicit — is an important variable between exposure to advertising messages and behavioral change (Petty, Brinol and Priester, 2009). Lavidge and Steiner (1961) developed a hierarchy of media effects model which includes awareness, knowledge, liking, preference, conviction, and purchase as sequential psychological steps a person goes through during the decision-making process. As the media effects model shows, preference is a prerequisite for eliciting behavior. As advertisers' ultimate goal is to drive sales, their chief objective is to make consumers go through a sequential hierarchy of effects that moves them further along the path to purchase. Although the academic literature on the hierarchy of effects model suggests that this sequential process happens over an extended period of time with traditional media, in online media, especially the Internet, a single exposure to an advertising message could possibly result in a behavioral action, namely a click (Sheehan, 2012). Thus, the current study examines whether the medium, either online or print, has an impact on forming consumers' favorable attitudes toward advertisements embedded in each medium. The current study investigates these ongoing questions of whether type of medium affects memory and attitude toward advertisements embedded in print and online. Based on the findings from previous literature, the following research questions were posed:

RQ1: Does type of medium affect users' recollection of advertisements?

RQ2: Does type of medium affect users' recollection of specific traits of advertisements?

RQ3: Does type of medium affect users' attitude towards advertisements?

Method

Participants for this study were recruited from the undergraduate population in a school of journalism and mass communication at a large U.S. university. Subjects were offered two incentives to participate; each received a \$10 Starbucks gift card and was entered into a drawing for an iPod Shuffle. Subjects were invited to participate via e-mail to all registered undergraduates in the department, as well as through in-class announcements. Each interested subject was pre-screened with a short questionnaire via e-mail. Subjects who indicated they "almost never" use either media, print or online, to get their news were disqualified from this study. Subjects who qualified for the study — by indicating they use both media to get the news at least once a month — were randomly assigned to one of two groups, print or online readers. In addition, eligible participants were instructed to avoid all news consumption on the day of their participation, which began between 8 and 9 a.m. An e-mail confirming participation and emphasizing the media blackout was sent 24 hours prior to the sessions.

Overall, 11 subjects participated in pre-test sessions to ensure soundness of the experimental method, and 45 subjects participated in actual experimental sessions. All respondents were between the ages of 19 and 26, with 27% men and 73% women. After pre-screening and pre-test, eligible 45 participants were randomly assigned to one of two possible conditions for the experiment—hardcopy (n = 25) and online (n = 20). The number of subjects in the experimental sessions was commensurate with the number of subjects in other, similar field studies (Jones et al., 2003; Sundar et al., 1998).

All sessions were held in a campus computer lab, with online tasks completed using desktop computers. Shortcut icons for *The New York Times* Web site (nytimes.com) were created on each desktop for the online condition. Participants were told that they would be participating in a study examining the contemporary newspaper reading experience. Participants in each condition were given two tasks: 1) read that day's newspaper for 20 minutes, and 2) complete a short online survey. Those assigned to the hardcopy condition were given a new copy of that morning's *New York Times*, while those assigned to the online condition were directed to the main-page of the *Times*' Web site. Participants were instructed to use the reading period to peruse the newspaper product in any manner they wished and informed that they would be completing a short survey afterward. The online survey asked each participant to recall as much information as possible about the advertisements they had just read. Additionally, the survey collected information on general media use and demographic information, including gender, age and school major. After being thanked for their participation, participants were verbally debriefed about the purpose of the study.

The independent variable for this study was newspaper medium. Participants were randomly assigned to either the print or online version of that day's *New York Times*. Some studies of advertising and news content recall across media have used manipulated Web sites and/or constructed broadsheet news products to control for exposure effects (Gallagher, Parsons and Foster, 2001b; Jones et al., 2003; Sundar et al. 1998). Sundar et. al. (1998) created identical print and online news products but were limited to an artificially low amount of content (two news stories and one advertisement) and concluded that the print subjects remembered significantly more ad material than online subjects and concluded with a recommendation: "Animated ads as opposed to still ads might be needed to attract online users. To the extent advertisers use the new features of the online medium that are nonexistent in print (audio and video downloads, animated images, hyperlinks, site-maps, etc.), they are probably more likely to enhance user attention to advertising" (Sundar et al., 1998, p. 830). To adequately address the speculation, this research deviated in the prior research method to test subjects' memory by using both real newspapers and the accompanying Web site in real time. This method allowed researchers to both account for the variety of dynamic ad forms and to replicate the real-time, real-world experience of browsing a real news product in both media.

A number of dependent measures were assessed in this study, including unaided recall of advertising and elements of advertisements, attitudes towards recalled advertisements and interest in recalled advertisements. Of the three main types of recall: free recall, cued recall and serial recall, this research focused on free recall, a process in which a person is asked to recall a list of pre-set items in any order. Specifically, participants were asked to recall any and all of the following elements for a given advertisement: image(s), headline, and brand or product name. Participants were instructed to leave the corresponding box blank if they were unable to recall a category. If they provided a reasonable amount of information to indicate they remembered a category, the recall was considered successful. Attitude towards each advertisement recalled was gathered by asking participants, "To what extent do you agree the advertisement was pleasing?" Similarly, interest in the product(s) advertised in recalled ads was gathered with the question, "To what extent do you agree that the advertisement made you want to learn more about the product/service?" Each of these measures was gauged using a five-point Likert scale.

In addition, separate data analysis was completed using a weighted point system created by the researchers to distinguish the importance of some elements above others. As advertisements generally utilize a number of production elements at once to trigger memory, previous research has indicated such a system is a more accurate reflection of recall (Singh et al., 1988; Singh and Rothschild 1983). In the present study, information on brand or product name was assigned four points, information on headline was given three points, and information on images was given two points. For example, a recall that included brand name and image was given six total points. All weighted point assignments were discussed and agreed upon by the three primary researchers to ensure inter-rater reliability.

Results

The main purpose of this study was to examine whether reader engagement toward advertisements varies by medium. The first research question asked if the type of medium affects readers' recollection of advertisement. In order to increase the precision of the experiment by reducing within-group error variance and eliminating confounds, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted. The study assumes that print and online newspaper readership frequency is related to advertisement recall. An ANCOVA makes it possible to statistically remove the effect of covariances (frequency of newspaper readership) that might affect advertising recall. The result shows that the main effect was significant with the type of medium affecting participants' recollection of advertisements ($F(1, 41) = 7.77, p < .05$), indicating that print news readers ($M_{Print} = 1.33, SD = .17$) remembered more ads than online news readers ($M_{Online} = .69, SD = .15$) (Table 1). The results also showed that frequent print newspaper readers remembered significantly more advertisements than frequent online newspaper readers ($F(1, 41) = 8.34, p < .05$).

Table 1. ANCOVA of Advertising Recall for Print and Online Newspaper with Frequency of Newspaper readership as Covariate

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
Covariate					
Freq. of print news readership	1	4.83	8.34**	.01	.17
Freq. of online news readership	1	.00	.00	.96	.00
Main effect					
A type of medium	1	4.44	7.77**	.01	.16
Error	41	.58			

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Additional analysis was conducted to see whether the type of medium affected the participants' weighted advertising recall. As previously discussed, a participant who remembered the exact brand or product name earned more points than a participant who remembered just an ad image. Adjusted mean scores represent how accurate readers recalled advertisements. A one-way between-subjects ANCOVA showed that there was a significant difference in the weighted means of print ($M_{Print} = 6.80, SD = 1.04$) and online ($M_{Online} = 3.50, SD = 1.16$) news readers ($F(1, 41) = 4.42, p < .05$), indicating that print news readers remembered more details about the advertisements than online news readers. Again, frequent readers of newsprint were significantly more likely to remember details of the print ad, such as brand names, headlines, and images ($F(1, 41) = 6.17, p < .05$).

The second research question asked if medium affects readers' recollection of specific traits of advertisements. Participants were asked to recall images, headlines and brand or product names that appeared in recalled advertisements. A multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was run to see if the type of medium affects three dimensions of advertising recalls (image, headlines, and brand or product names), covarying out two variables (frequency of print and online newspaper readership) that presumably confound the main effect. The result ($\Lambda(3, 39) = 2.78, p < .05$) indicated that print newsreaders remembered more images ($M_{Print} = 1.33, SD = .15$) in advertisements than online newsreaders ($M_{Online} = .69, SD = .17$) ($F(1, 41) = 7.77, p < .01$), but other specific traits of ads (headline and brand name) did not show significant differences in readers' recall across media (Table 2).

Table 2. MANCOVA of Ad Image, Ad Headline, and Brand Recall for Print and Online Newspaper with Frequency of Newspaper readership as Covariate

Source	MANOVA <i>F</i> (3, 39)	Image Recall	Headline Recall	Brand Recall
Covariate				
Freq. of PNR	3.45*	8.34**	3.36	3.22
Freq. of ONR	.16	.00	.02	.22
Main effect				
A Type of Medium	2.78*	7.77**	.15	2.83
Error				

Note. *F* ratios are Wilks's approximation of *F*. ANOVA = univariate analysis of variance; MANOVA = multivariate analysis of variance; PNR (print newspaper readership), ONR (online newspaper readership) **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001.

The third research question asked if a type of medium affects readers' attitudes toward the advertisements they recalled. A one-way between-subjects ANCOVA was calculated to examine participants' attitudes toward advertisements they recalled, covarying out two variables (frequency of print and online newspaper readership). The results showed that print newsreaders (*M*_{Print} = 4.53, *SD* = .50) more positively evaluate the ads than online newsreaders (*M*_{Online} = 2.83, *SD* = .56) after being exposed to the ads (*F* (1, 41) = 5.05, *p* < .05), indicating that medium affects readers' attitudes toward the advertisement they recalled (Table 3).

Table 3. ANCOVA of Attitudes toward Advertisements for Print and Online Newspaper with Frequency of Newspaper readership as Covariate

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
Covariate					
Freq. of PNR	1	115.12	18.94***	.00	.32
Freq. of ONR	1	.16	.03	.87	.00
Main effect					
A type of medium	1	30.71	5.05*	.03	.11
Error	41	6.08			

Note: PNR (print newspaper readership), ONR (online newspaper readership)

p* < .05, *p* < .01, ****p* < .001.

Discussion

This research identifies some fundamental differences in how print and online readers view advertisements and demonstrates that the medium does affect users' recollection of advertisements. These findings reflect similar research from 13 years ago that showed that print subjects remembered significantly more ads than online subjects (Sundar et al., 1998). A host of reasons can account for the disparity, including the expectation by Web users that they may encounter goal impediments and ad clutter with online ads, spurring their avoidance.

One possibility is that newspapers consist of rigidly static images and text; its physicality allows it to possess a sense of posterity; it even carries a whiff of nostalgia, an emotional attachment that's difficult to quantify (Bentley, 2001). The Internet, on the other hand, possesses none of those attributes. Texts, like advertisements, are transient items that hasten readers' loss of a sense of time and place. Users lose navigational control when they switch from reading the print newspaper to reading the online newspaper. Users, for example, have little control over their exposure to commercial Web messages. It is not uncommon for online ads to change, appear, disappear, and reappear regularly; they can pop-up, pop-behind, consume a screen or otherwise unintentionally interrupt a user's interaction with the item they are intentionally engaging. It collectively leads users to an expectation that when they go online, the advertisements will be a nuisance. Further, when readers go to a news Web site, they are generally in a task-oriented mode, presumably searching for news. The legacy medium allows them the freedom to search for advertisements if they choose; they may make a conscious choice to browse advertisements for a product or service that is uppermost on their mind. The advertisements are stationary, waiting to be discovered. Internet advertisements instead vie for readers' attention via a host of interactive and dynamic strategies, including audio and video, popping up and consuming a screen. Carr put it this way: "For more than 100 years, Tiffany has occupied the upper-right corner of Page 3 of *The New York Times*. Until our digital model finds a way to create a similar kind of exalted placement, it will be tough to charge the kind of prices for advertising that reflect the cost of producing quality content" (Carr, 2009).

Of the advertising traits tested in this study — headline, image and brand name — only images stood out. Print subjects remembered significantly more images than online subjects. The static nature of print advertisements versus the ephemeral nature of online advertisements might explain the variation as well. This elucidation of the present data corresponds with the finding that print readers recall more information from advertising than online

readers. Though exposure times were not recorded in this study, exposure effects (Fang, Singh, and Ahluwalia 2007; Zajonc 1968) may be at play here. Advertisements in print newspapers are static, offering a greater potential for increased exposure time, while online ads, which typically change with each page refresh, offer less exposure time. For example, a reader of *The New York Times* print version will find the same advertisement on page A3 if she goes back to reread or finish a story while a reader of the *New York Times* online may encounter a different ad if she returns to previously viewed content. A significant relationship was also found between attitudes towards advertising and the print medium. The exposure effect helps explain the finding that the longer, static exposure of print advertisements positively affects readers' attitudes toward advertisement than frequently changing online advertisements.

Limitations

As authentic news products were used in this study instead of artificially constructed news products, prior exposure to specific advertisements and brand experience may have had confounding effects on participants' recall. The research design sought to more accurately mimic real-world newspaper reading experiences than previous, similar experiments, so authentic, real-world advertisements were used as stimulus materials. While some previous research has indicated the value of using real-world brands in experimental testing of ad recall (Nelson, Yaros and Keum, 2006), further iterations of this study should consider employing control groups using fictitious advertisements in order to control for prior exposure effects.

Additionally, this study only measured participants' unaided recall of advertisements. Other literature on memory and content recall has shown that aided recall and recognition are other useful measures in assessing the impact of advertising messages (Danaher and Mullarkey, 2003; Zinkhan, Locander and Leigh, 1986), while other psychological research has suggested that unaided recall and recognition may work together in a patterned way (Rotello and Heit, 1999; Wixted, 2007). This indicates the opportunity for a more robust survey to be used in future iterations of the experiment, thus providing a fuller assessment of advertising impact. Finally, as previous research has implicated the compounding nature of informational and aesthetic elements in advertisements on measurements of recall, this study employed a weighted point system to code and access subject responses. Further replications of the study will aid in refining this system for future applications in communication research.

Future Research

Online advertisements have astounding potential to reach a whole new range of people that they would have otherwise never been able to reach in the print newspaper. Advertisers have capitalized on the ability, for example, of Web sites to automatically read a computer's IP address, telling the newspaper the approximate location of the reader and thus allowing targeted messaging. This technological capability should be chief on the minds of future researchers. Both advertisers and newspapers should also want to know what researchers find when examining the success or failure of new ads designed to follow the readers as they scroll down the Web page. Will this kind of ad be similarly intrusive and further spur readers to block it out, or will its attempt at subtly pay off?

Finally, future research examining the effectiveness of advertisements should seek to include new media, including electronic devices like tablets and smart phones. These new portable devices are becoming virtually ubiquitous, and the recent findings that those ages eight to 18 spend more than seven and a half hours a day with such devices, compared with less than six and a half hours five years ago (Lewin, 2010), should be a catalyst for new research about young peoples' exposure to and engagement with advertisements.

Conclusions reached in this research suggest that the development of dynamic online ads in the past decade have had little effect toward making online ads more impressionable than print ads. Their nature of being continually in flux has weakened their effectiveness. Advertisers, as they move headlong into a new digital frontier, should recognize that the Internet is a medium based on interruption (Carr, 2010) and instead of forcing advertisements upon the reader with flashy spectacles and kaleidoscopic gimmickry, they should look to print advertisements to see what they are doing right. Advertisers, even if they are operating in a new medium that demands connectivity and engagement, should nevertheless at least try to emulate the spirit of print advertisements — one that places an emphasis on stability, consistency and quality.

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SYNCHRONIZED BRANDING AND CONSTRUCTED INTUITION: MESSAGE CONSISTENCY AND THE SUBCONSCIOUS IN DEVELOPING AND MAINTAINING CONSUMER RELATIONSHIPS

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Understanding and communicating brand authenticity and maintaining message consistency are key functions of advertising. However, in striving to achieve these goals, advertisers most often focus on responses to the brand at the conscious level, despite that approximately 90% of our decisions heavily, if not fully, influenced by the subconscious. Breaking through media clutter is often a major focus, and as such, far less, if any, attention is generally given to the (possible) subconscious effects of our executions. This is, in part, because people tend to imagine that we are very rational in our decision-making. On top of that, measuring conscious responses is a relatively simple procedure, and it produces more readily understandable data for both the agency and the client. However, to fully synchronize our branding and construct consumer intuition, it is crucial to have a deeper understanding of the subconscious workings of the mind and how we might utilize that information toward maintaining an authentic relationship with our customers. All consumer touch points and their details make a difference to brand perception and interaction.

Recently-developed technologies that tap subconscious responses allow us much better insight into the ways in which consumers respond to ads – even more so than consumers can articulate or even know. For instance, while attitude change as a function of viewing product placements has not been possible using “explicit attitude” self-report measures that only gauge conscious responses, the use of “implicit attitude” measures has allowed us to detect changes in affinity at the subconscious level. It has also been shown that while consumers might say they dislike an ad, the executions can still positively affect our relationships, subconsciously. Similarly, relatively low levels of attention paid to anti-drug ads has led to better, more negative implicit attitudes, as compared to high levels of attention, while attention levels may make no difference to expressed attitudes.

Although theory and research in this area is burgeoning, much is left to be done, and perhaps more importantly, there is a wide gap between the development of this knowledge and its application of in practice. This panel addressed some key questions in this area: How do we best capture and communicate synchronized authenticity at all levels? What are the creative challenges, and how can they be met? In the end, what are the ethical implications for advertisers in using knowledge about peripheral processing and subconscious responses?

DRIVING IN REVERSE: AN INITIAL ASSESSMENT OF THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF REVERSE PRODUCT PLACEMENT

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Abstract

A relatively novel practice in marketing is the practice of Reverse Product Placement (RPP). While traditional Product Placement (PP) focuses on placing commercially available brands in movies, TV shows, video games, etc., RPP focuses on creating and placing a fictitious brand in an entertainment medium and subsequently producing it for commercial release. The Bubba Gump Shrimp Company (from the movie *Forest Gump*) and Duff beer (from the TV show *The Simpsons*) are some examples. Since traditional PPs have been around for quite a while, consumers, by and large, may recognize them and process them in the same manner as they would process advertising, i.e. their persuasive powers would be greatly diminished as viewers recognize the commercial intentions behind the placement. With RPP however, the novelty of this practice and the commercial unavailability of the product at that time is expected to work in favor of persuasion.

The purpose of this paper is to lay down the foundation for demonstrating the usefulness of RPP over traditional PP. Its value lies in investigating a new practice with potential for use in marketing and promotional strategy. Using the Persuasion Knowledge Model, Attribution theory, and Kelley's Discounting Principle, we propose a significantly stronger persuasive effect on viewers and a significant change in their attitude towards the brand as compared to a traditional placement. We conclude by proposing that RPP can benefit marketers by reducing time-to-market and costs in the New Product Development process, as also accelerate new product adoption.

ARE ADVERTISERS THE BIGGEST LOSERS? AN EXAMINATION OF PRODUCT PLACEMENT, FAST-FORWARDED COMMERCIALS, AND MEMORY

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Abstract

This study examined the role of product placement on memory for television advertisements that are zipped during fast-forwarding using a DVR. Previous studies in this field have examined memory recall and recognition for advertisements that are skipped during fast-forwarding using a standard DVR. Studies have found anywhere from 40%-60% recall of standard advertisements even when they are skipped using a DVR. Despite all of the literature published examining both product placement and memory for zipped commercials, previous research has not looked at the combination of product placement and zipped television commercials. This combination may provide greater opportunities for advertisers who fear television commercials are becoming less effective in the DVR era. This study used an episode of *The Biggest Loser*, a popular television show where product placements were paired with zipped commercials for the placements. Three types of memory were tested including free-recall, unaided recognition, and aided recognition memory. The results of the study indicate that the combination of zipped television commercials and product placement results in an increase in memory for brands. This was true for free recall, aided recall and recognition. The results also give implications for the difference between a simple product placement and those products that are discussed during the show. The results indicate that products discussed in the show increased recognition memory when compared to those in simple placement.

“SEE ME OR NOT, I AM THERE” CHINESE WHITE-COLLAR MOVIEGOERS’ INTERPRETATION OF PRODUCT PLACEMENTS IN CHINESE COMMERCIAL MOVIES

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Abstract

A phenomenological study explored how Chinese white-collar moviegoers perceive product placements in Chinese commercial movies. 51 in-depth interviews were conducted to collect data. Findings revealed three major interpretative themes: (1) referencing practices, (2) balancing activities, and (3) connecting product, movie, and audience. Theoretical and practical implications were offered.

FROM APPLE TO OMEGA: BRAND PLACEMENT IN 2010 TOP-EARNING FILMS

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Abstract

This study compares the findings of a content analysis of brand placement in a population of top-earning films from 2010 to that of a similar population from 1991. There were substantially more brand placements in the recent film, which is consistent with the attitudes of most scholars and practitioners who assert that placement is becoming more pervasive throughout the media landscape, including motion pictures. Discussion is offered and a number of directions for future scholarship are advanced.

Introduction

There is a reason that Samantha Jones and friends are motored around Abu Dhabi in a quartet of Mercedes Maybach automobiles in the film *Sex and the City 2* and it certainly is not because a small fleet of the ultra luxury \$400,000 sedans is readily on-call for anyone needing a taxi to the market. Rather, Mercedes negotiated and funded a deal with the film's producers to place the Maybach—along with the company's E-Class Cabriolet, S400 Hybrid, and G-Class SUV—in the movie. Such agreements are common in the film industry and have become an important means for advertisers to reach target audiences with brand messages. The present study reports the findings of an investigation of brand placements in the aforementioned title and the other 24 top-grossing films of 2010.

Brand placement, often used interchangeably with the term “product placement,” has existed in the film industry since its infancy in the late 19th century and has become increasingly sophisticated in recent years. Though this marketing technique has attracted past academic attention, no recent analysis has quantified the level at or means by which it is currently occurring in major US motion pictures. The need for an updated set of findings provided the impetus to conceive and conduct the present study. Further, placement's increasing appeal to both marketers and movie makers, as well as the emergence of marketing communications professionals and businesses specializing exclusively in brokering brand placement deals, make apparent and augment the value of this study's contribution.

In the subsequent sections of this paper, the authors provide a brief review of relevant placement literature and then detail the specific means by which they conducted a content analysis of the 25 top-grossing US films of 2010 that updates findings from a previously-conducted similar study. The results of that analysis are reported and discussed and a number of directions for future scholarship are proposed.

Review of literature

Brand placement history and evolution

Brand placement—known also as integration—involves the insertion of branded goods or services into the audio and/or visual contexts within entertainment content such as films, television programs, and radio shows. Product placement—a similar, but technically more inclusive concept—is often used synonymously with brand placement despite being a more accurate label for unbranded products or commodities such as cigarettes, milk, orange juice and the like.

In their review of the history of placement, Newell, Salmon, and Chang (2006) reported that both brand and product placement have occurred in films—the present study's medium of interest—since the earliest short-length motion pictures were created by industry pioneers Auguste and Louis Lumière in 1895. These authors also noted that the genesis of the modern era of brand placement in film is largely attributed to the sales success of Reese's Pieces candy after its prominent appearance in the 1982 blockbuster *E.T.: The Extra Terrestrial*.

Modern brand placement in film is amenable to both marketers and filmmakers for a number of reasons. Advertisers are motivated to employ them because they are sometimes more cost efficient than traditional advertising

vehicles (Wells 1996), have extended lifespans through home release (Gupta et al 2000), benefit from implied actor/character endorsement (Avery & Ferraro, 2000), and can be targeted to specific market segments (Nebenzhal & Secunda, 1993), some of which are difficult to reach otherwise. Further, because brand placements are inserted into the creative content, they cannot be avoided as easily as traditional commercials which are often either ignored completely or not reliably attended to.

Likewise, many filmmakers are inclined to solicit and facilitate brand placement for the obvious financial benefits that they offer and because using brands that exist in the marketplace is a means of enhancing the realism of scenes (Natharius, 2004). Further, cross promotion of the film with placement partners increases marketing communication exposure at no cost to its advertising budget.

It seems reasonable, then, to assert that the synergies created for both marketers and filmmakers are the basis for placement's robust growth in recent years. This growth is especially apparent when one considers recent projections which predict that compensation agreements between filmmakers and marketers will overtake the bartering arrangements which have historically comprised the majority of placement deals (Kivijarv, 2006).

The proliferation of availability and cash deals has engendered a bevy of marcom professionals and boutique agencies that specialize in brand placement strategy, valuation, and execution. This trend is readily apparent when one reviews recent trade press coverage written by or quoting such specialists (see Renwick, 2010a; Renwick, 2010b; Brodesser-akner, 2009). Accordingly, it becomes clear that brand placement has crossed the threshold from B-movie extra to major motion picture star in the minds and budgets of numerous major marketers.

Types of brand placement

A number of scholars have advanced the study of brand placement by formulating means to conceptualize, classify, and describe placement deals, strategies, executions, and the like. For instance, Oliver (1986) posited that there are two main varieties of brand placement agreements: creative placements and on-set placements (Oliver, 1986). Creative placements are those which are pursued by marketers wishing to insert their brands into entertainment content. Conversely, on-set placements are typically initiated by production companies in order to obtain branded products that are then used enhance the realism of scenes.

The importance of this symbiotic environment is evident in a number of exclusive studio-advertiser agreements including those between Toyota and Universal Studios and Miramax and Coors Brewing which ensure mutually-beneficial arrangements for both partners (Shillito, 2001; Bing, 2002; Orwall, 2002; Rose, 2002; Stanley, 2004).

All placements—regardless of their business arrangement—may occur in one or more styles in one of three specific dimensions, or modalities, within film content. Visually, brands can either be prominent within a scene or used peripherally as set decoration; from an auditory perspective, a brand's name may be heard when an on-screen character says, sings, or otherwise announces it; or a brand may be seen and/or heard in conjunction with a plot by being used by a character in the film, or in some cases actually becoming a character (e.g. Chevy Camaro in Transformers, Mr. Potato Head in Toy Story 3).

Accordingly, Chang, Newell, and Salmon (2009) established a typology consisting of three categories—serendipitous, opportunistic, and planned—to describe the manner in which brands and products are inserted into content. *Serendipitous placements* are short-lived, mostly used to fill screen space, and irrelevant to a script. *Opportunistic placements* are usually initiated by marketing partners that review scripts and then suggest potential placement opportunities to clients. These placements also tend to be relatively minor and but are becoming increasingly expensive because studios are better able to provide data related to the exposure such placements will receive, which has resulted in filmmakers' creating standard rates akin to those established by traditional media vendors (Chang, Newell, & Salmon, 2009).

Finally, *planned placements* occur when a brand is significantly incorporated into a script or story line. Exclusivity (i.e. keeping competitors out of a work) is often a condition that is negotiated by marketers who pursue planned placement and is becoming a more common strategy within the industry (Chang, Newell, & Salmon 2009). Further, a formal process may exist in which a script can be adapted to accommodate a marketing partner's requests, suggestions, and requirements.

Now that we have explored the ways that brand placements may be classified, we turn our attention to a summary of relevant findings that have been published by marcom scholars.

Prior placement-related research findings

In addition to film, brand placement has been studied in myriad other media contexts including radio (van Reijmersdal, 2011), books (Nelson, 2004), and television (LaFerle & Edwards, 2006; Russell, 2002; Avery & Ferraro, 2000), among others. Though brand placement literature has grown in recent years, the industry's ongoing development and expansion will likely provide ongoing opportunities for scholarly endeavors well into the future.

The most frequent focus of existing placement-related research has investigated the effectiveness of different types of placements. For instance, some scholars have tested the effect that visual prominence (see Gupta & Lord, 1998; Russell, 1998; Avery & Ferraro, 2000; Soloman & English, 1994; Soloman & Greenberg, 1993; Rolandelli, et al., 1991; Balasurbramanian, Karrh, Patwardhan, 2006; DeLorme & Reid, 1999; Cowly & Barron, 2008), on-screen duration (see Auty & Lewis, 2004; Babin & Carter, 1996; Bhatnagar, Aksoy, & Malkoc, 2004; Gupta & Lord, 1998), and modality—

including plot connection and repetition (see Russell, 1998; 2002; Law & Braun, 2000; Brennan & Babin, 2004; Brennan et al., 1999; Babin & Carder, 1996) have on viewer recall and recognition. Findings, at this point, have been mixed and are far from conclusive.

Similar to other advertising scholarship, experimenters and industry leaders have formed differing opinions on how to best measure placement effectiveness. Karrh (1994) surveyed a small group of professionals affiliated with the product placement trade group Entertainment Resources & Marketing Association (ERMA) and reported that those practitioners indicated that unaided recall and recognition were the best measures of placement success. A follow-up study conducted in 2003 found that unaided recall and recognition continued to be the most preferred means for assessing placement success. The same study also reported that measuring sales growth related to placement activities was becoming more common.

Other studies, such as Pardun and McKee (2000)'s assessment of 106 marketing professionals' attitudes, have revealed that a film's national viewing potential, theme, and fee for placement were marketers' three most important criteria when making placement decisions, whereas action in the movie was considered the least important.

Of particular import to the present study are Sapolsky and Kinney (1994)'s findings from a content analysis of top-earning films of 1989 and 1991. These authors documented the amount of placement as well as several variables related to those brand appearances and concluded that the brand placement industry lacked rigor, but that it might become an increasingly viable alternative for marketers if the industry established a credible professional trade group and regularly published systematic research about the effectiveness of placement executions. As the literature lacks a contemporary analysis of placement in films akin to those previously studied, this investigation is particularly beneficial because it updates Sapolsky and Kinney's prior findings and provides an opportunity to compare current brand placement executions with those described in earlier studies. Further, in light of Sapolsky and Kinney's assertions regarding industry rigor, the present study's findings are imbued with additional gravitas as a result of the increased prominence of the product placement trade group ERMA as well as Nielsen's recent expansion into the placement tracking and research business.

Accordingly, the following research questions guided the authors' work:

RQ1: Does the frequency of brand placement in the top-earning films of 2010 differ from that of top-earning films from 1991?

RQ2: How frequently do the various brand placement modalities occur in the top-earning films of 2010?

RQ3: How frequently do various product types appear in the top-earning films of 2010?

RQ4: How many brand placements occur in each film genre?

RG5: How does the on-screen time length differ between the top-earning films of 2010 and the top-earning films of 1991?

Method

A content analysis was performed in an effort to answer the investigation's proposed research questions.

Sample

The authors obtained a list of the 25 highest-earning films that were released during 2010 from online film industry publication Box Office Mojo. These titles were then randomly assigned to one of the two researchers who also served as coders for the project. Each researcher independently viewed the assigned films and used electronic (Microsoft Excel) spreadsheets to track and store coding data before importing it into SPSS 18 for analysis.

Operational definition of brand placement

For the purposes of this study, brand placement included the following: any verbal mention of a brand name; any visual appearance of a brand logo or trademark; and any product that an average viewer could readily identify as being made by a specific company (e.g. Volkswagen Beetle, Segway scooter, etc.). Instances of unbranded and/or commodity products such as, but not limited to, cigarettes, milk, clothing, and televisions were not included in the coding. Again, the distinction of *brand* placement precludes such.

The authors feel their definition is consistent with the spirit of Sapolsky and Kinney (1994)'s study which, unfortunately, did not explicitly convey an operational definition of brand placement.

Coding scheme

In an effort to give context to our findings and enable comparison to prior research, the authors borrowed a coding scheme from scholarship conducted by Troup (1991) and Sapolsky and Kinney (1994) which quantified the frequency of brand placements and reported their characteristics based on a number of key attributes including type, form, involvement, physical contact, character status, character role, character quality, setting, context, centrality, duration, and genre.

Frequency of brand placements was determined by recording each brand placement appearance that occurred in the films. If a brand appeared more than once in a scene—for example a package of cookies that found its way into multiple

shots—it was regarded as a single placement. However, if the product appeared in different scenes, each new scene was designated a separate placement.

Modality or *form* was the manner in which the placement occurred in the film content. Each placement was coded as visual, verbal, or both verbal and visual.

Type refers to the product category in which the placed brand markets its products or services. The typology used was identical to that of Troup (1991)'s with the addition of these categories: guns, colleges, tools, gaming, jewelry, computers, and phones.

Similar to Sapolsky and Kinney (1994)'s study, the *genre* category consisted of action, animation, comedy, and drama and was coded based on the type of story the film depicted.

Duration concerned the length of time that the brand appeared on-screen. If a brand appeared and reappeared in the same scene, only the time that it was visible was recorded. Visual placements that lasted less than one second were rounded up to one second. Finally, to remain consistent with Sapolsky and Kinney (1994), all verbal placements were recorded as lasting two seconds.

Intercoder reliability

To test intercoder reliability, three films from each coder's list of titles were randomly selected and evaluated by the other coder. Krippendorff's alpha was calculated to assess coder agreement on each of the measured categories. Reliability coefficients for each category ranged from .71 to .79, exceeding the widely-accepted minimum threshold of .70.

Data analysis

SPSS 18 was used for all data analysis conducted for the study. Please note that comparisons between the data and any previous data are done using population values. Because the authors analyzed a census—not a sample—of films, there is no need to perform tests of statistical significance between any differences that were found between our data and Sapolsky and Kinney (1994)'s. Though this certainly is not the most advanced method of comparison, but in this case it is the correct one.

Findings

The first research question addressed the frequency of brand placements in the films that were analyzed in the present investigation and those of the 1991 study. The authors found that the films from 2010 contained 528 instances of brand placements ($M = 21.12$), compared to 292 that occurred in the films from 1991 ($M = 11.6$) (Sapolsky & Kinney, 1994). These results illustrate a substantial increase in the appearances of product placements that appeared in the top-25 earning films from 1991 to 2010.

Six of the films released in 2010 (Shrek, Tangled, How to Train Your Dragon, Alice in Wonderland, Clash of the Titans, and The King's Speech) were either animated films or period pieces set in earlier centuries; both of these genres have historically low levels of placement as modern brands are rarely congruent with historical films and many marketers and film are somewhat adverse to placing brands in animated films targeted at children because of scrutiny from anti-advertising groups. One film, Black Swan, contained zero product placements despite being set in present-day New York. The authors removed the films that contained no brand placements as, Sapolsky and Kinney (1994) did, and found that the 2010 films still contained nearly twice as many placements on average as those analyzed in 1991—27.79 compared to 13.90.

The second research question concerned the modality of brand placements and which form would most frequently occur. Results showed that 423 (80.1%) of the brand placements in 2010 were visual-only. There were 75 (14.2%) audio-only placements and 30 (5.7%) occurrences of product placements that were audio-visual.

This analysis revealed that 238 (56.3%) instances of brand placements occurred in which the brand's product or service was not used or touched by a character. Here, the films from 1991 had a higher ratio of untouched/unused brands ($N=156$)—69.96%—compared to those of 2010.

Unlike the 1994 analysis, the present study did not differentiate between usage and consumption (i.e. drinking a beverage versus holding a beverage). When collapsing the data from 1991's films, character consumption and touching yielded a combined 136 instances. This is only slightly less than our population from 2010 which showed 185 instances of product placement usage. Twenty-seven (90%) of the audio-visual product placements in 2010 were used/touched by the character whereas three (10%) products' names were heard, but were not touched or used by a character.

The third research question examined the types of product placements that occurred in the films, based on product categories. Images or references to automobiles are the most frequently occurring type of product placement (19.5%; $n = 103$), followed by food, media outlets, alcoholic beverages, and non-alcoholic beverages (10%, 7.2%, 6.6%, and 6.4% respectively) in 2010. 1991's population was similar to 2010's: automobiles occurred the most frequently, (17.8%) followed by food, alcoholic beverages, and non-alcoholic beverages (13.7%, 12.6%, and 10.3% respectively).

In 2010, the number of placements occurring in each film genre brands was observed more often in comedies than any other genre (58.0%; $n = 306$). Our population did not include any dramas, unlike the 1991 population. Similar to 2010, brands were most likely to appear in comedies in the 1991 films (36.6%; $n = 107$).

The final research question that the study aimed to answer concerned the temporal aspect of the brand placements. All instances of brand appearances were coded in seconds, similar to the 1994 study. Though the audio-only placements had previously been coded as two seconds in duration, the authors elected to remove them from the analysis since such instances did not actually last that long, and were not capable of being otherwise timed. The subsequent analysis found that the 423 visual brand placements in 2010 ($M = 10.28$, $SD = 19.99$) appeared for only slightly more time on-screen when compared to the placements from the 1994 study ($M = 10.11$, $SD = 17.63$).

Discussion

This study analyzed brand placements in the 25 top-earning films of 2010 and compared those findings to results of a similar study conducted in 1994. As the data have illustrated, the films from 2010 included substantially more (nearly double) placements per film than those in the prior investigation; however brand placement characteristics in the two groups were generally similar with regard to other categories including product types, genres, and duration.

Clearly, the conclusions reached from analyzing this study's universe of films cannot be generalized to any population. But a stratified probability sample of films from the past several decades would be an excellent method to employ in a future study that would allow researchers to meet the assumptions needed to perform statistical analysis and draw more comprehensive conclusion about the evolution of brand placement in motion pictures.

With that said, the present study does offer a number of valuable contributions despite its limitations. First, it found evidence of increased placement incidences among top-earning films, which is consistent with innumerable trade and popular press articles that assert that brand placement in entertainment content is proliferating. Our investigation also uncovered the need to add product categories that were not included in prior studies. The advent of the telecommunications and portable computer categories—both of which are major marcom spenders—is at least partially responsible for this change.

Finally, the findings generated from this research seem to make Sapolsky and Kinney appear clairvoyant. In their study, these authors concluded that marketers would increase the use of brand placement if the placement industry established a viable trade group and released regular, valid research about placement. As discussed early, ERMA and Nielsen have helped lead the way on those fronts. And if the present findings are indicative of a broader migration toward placement as we suspect they are, there seems little doubt that both these organizations have played an important role in placement's maturation.

It should also be noted that a likely driver of increased brand placement in films, assuming such a trend exists, is the difficulty that marketers have reaching broad audiences and certain population targets in today's hyper-segmented media marketplace. Films offer the ability to reach captive audiences in an environment that is relatively uncluttered compared to television and other media. Undoubtedly, these factors are highly appealing to marketers looking for ways to have a conversation with consumers.

Aside from the aforementioned sampling issue, this study was also limited by the necessity to treat every brand occurrence as an intentional brand placement agreement between an advertiser and movie studio. Because such deals aren't usually publicized, future research will likely suffer from the same limitation.

Many opportunities for future research related to brand placement in films exist. First, researchers should be aware of the changing structure of remuneration between filmmakers and their placement partners. The traditional bartering system seems to be shrinking, which offers the opportunity to examine whether or not brands that have bartered for placement in the past are pushed out by those who are willing to pay.

Another potential industry revolution will be the point at which demand drastically outstrips supply and placement cost efficiency changes. Like television, there are only so many minutes in a film and only so many brands that can be woven into scenes. If placement continues to grow some brands that have been able to afford screen time in the past may be pushed aside by larger competitors.

Future research should also focus on replicating the effectiveness studies that have been key to the development of the brand placement literature. Finally, though the authors value practical research like the present investigation, academic scholars desperately need to tie future placement investigations to solid theoretical foundations. Once that develops, brand placement research—much like the industry itself has done—will take a big step forward.

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THE FACE OF THE BRAND: TOWARD A THEORY OF VISUAL BRAND IDENTITY (VBI)

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Abstract

If I see a bad visual identity for a brand, I don't focus on it... it's like meeting a person. If they don't have a personality, they're a forgetful face. [Robert]

What makes Adidas' ad style different from the ad style of Nike? Why can one identify a television commercial for Target within a few seconds without seeing the brand name? What are the elements that distinguish an Apple ad from a Microsoft ad, apart from the logo? In this paper, we suggest that it is the visual brand identity that identifies, promotes, and distinguishes one brand from another. Surprisingly, little attention has been paid to the visual style or "face" of the brand in academic research. Therefore, this paper begins to explore the concept of visual brand identity in advertising by examining the individuals who create this identity in the real world, such as Robert, the art director quoted above. The research question for this exploratory study is: *How do the creators of ads understand and extract visual brand identity from previous campaigns and how do they express it in new campaigns with different visual elements?* The answer to this question provides the first step to building a theory of visual brand identity in advertising.

This study uses 15 interviews with practicing art directors to examine the concept of Visual Brand Identity. These informants define VBI as the holistic look and feel of the brand arising from a set of key visual elements in the brand's advertising which are ownable and consistent. A model is proposed for the process by which art directors extract VBI from previous ad campaigns and carry it forward into new advertisements. The outcomes of this process depend on whether the existing VBI is perceived as strong or weak, and whether the client mandates many or few visual elements. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

THE IMPACT OF COMPARATIVE VALENCE FRAME ON BRAND EXTENSION ACCEPTANCE

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Abstract

This research examines how comparative valence frame influences brand extension acceptance when parent-extension fit matters. The results of this research show that a positive comparison-framed ad message elicits more favorable extension evaluations and greater purchase intentions than a negative comparison-framed ad message under the similar extension condition, while both positive and negative comparison-framed ad messages contribute equally to brand extension evaluations and purchase intentions under the dissimilar extension condition. Furthermore, the findings suggest that perceived extension risk serves as a critical mediator between parent-extension fit and consumer evaluations of brand extensions.

MOTIVATIONS FOR FOLLOWING BRANDS AND ATTITUDES TOWARD BRAND COMMUNICATIONS ON TWITTER

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Abstract

The importance of consumer-brand relationships on social networking sites (SNSs) has received increasing attention from both academia and industry. By surveying a sample of 400 college students following commercial brands on Twitter, this study provides a baseline understanding of the motivations to follow brands on Twitter, and the relationships between the identified motivations and consumer-brand relationship variables. In addition, the current study employs the consumer socialization framework to examine attitudes toward brand communications on Twitter. Findings suggest that consumers have five primary motivations for engaging with brands on Twitter: social interaction seeking, incentive seeking, entertainment seeking, information seeking, and brand likeability. In addition, social interaction seeking, information seeking and brand likeability motivations were found to be significant predictors of consumer-brand relationship variables (i.e., brand identification, brand commitment, relationship continuance intention, and recommendation intention) examined in this study. Our findings also reveal that individuals who communicate frequently with peers about commercial brands and hold more favorable attitudes toward advertising in general are more likely to have positive attitudes toward brand communications via Twitter. Implications for advertisers and brand managers are discussed.

EFFECT OF 3D TV ADVERTISING ON BRAND ATTITUDES: ROLES OF HUMAN FACTORS, INVOLVEMENT, PRESENCE, AND FLOW

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Abstract

This exploratory study examines hierarchical relationships of conceptual constructs in 3D TV advertising processing. The findings contain: involvement is influenced by human factors including both physical fatigue and inconvenience of wearing 3D glasses; this involvement is linked to attitudes toward brand, presence, and flow; and presence subsequently affects attitudes toward brand. Unexpectedly, we found that the human factor of glasses related consumers' inconvenience influences attitudes toward brand directly. These findings provide several significant implications to both academicians and practitioners.

MEANINGFUL RESEARCH THROUGH NON-TRADITIONAL METHODOLOGIES

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Andrew T Duchowski, Clemson University, Clemson, SC
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It has become commonplace to see advertising and marketing research rely on methodologies that, while tested, tend to produce a line of two-dimensional thinking that often fails to get to the underlying questions involved. For example, survey research certainly has its place but in almost every case the method is unlikely to provide answers to the hidden motivations or actions of consumers. Content analyses have been widely used to compare advertising content across cultures and media, but here again it does not speak to the human involvement in the decisions. Experimental research methods are commonly used in advertising research and are very useful, but the method certainly has its limitations, such as focusing on convenient—but not always appropriate—student samples. Additionally, academic researchers have worked extensively with self-report variables that are questionable at best in many circumstances.

In all of Volume 39 (2010) of the *Journal of Advertising*, there were a total of 35 research articles published. Fifteen of those articles were based on experimental data. Five of the studies were based on survey data and another five were based on content analysis. These three common methodologies were used in more than 70% of the published research last year in what many consider to be a premier journal in advertising. While these articles offer many important ideas, we argue that, as a whole, the academy is missing some important insights that can be generated by more innovative methods.

This session identified and discussed newer creative methods to investigate our world and engage the academic and professional worlds with less widely known strategies to produce meaningful research.

CODDLING OUR KIDS: CAN PARENTING STYLE AFFECT ATTITUDES TOWARD ADVERGAMES?

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Abstract

Limited research has attempted to understand parental perceptions of and attitudes toward advergaming directed at children. Through the utilization of parental socialization theory, this study sought to determine the relationship between parenting styles and parental attitudes toward children's advergaming. The results indicate significant differences between two parenting styles. Authoritarian parents held more negative perceptions toward advergaming compared to indulgent parents. It was also found that authoritarians, authoritatives, indulgents, and neglecting parents all exhibited negative leanings toward advergaming as a practice. These findings indicate the effectiveness of parental socialization theory in explaining parents' perceptions and attitudes toward advergaming.

AD BREAKS FOR ONLINE ADVERGAMES: FORMAT, CONTENT, AND CHARACTERISTICS

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Abstract

Advergaming, blending advertising messages with interactive games, are aggressively targeting young children online. Due to the immersive and embedded nature of commercial messages in advergaming, it is important to provide a cue to trigger children's persuasion knowledge of the marketplace and advertising. The purpose of this study is to analyze the format, content, and characteristics of online ad breaks. Based on the analysis of a total of 164 food brand websites, less than 20 percent of the websites provided ad breaks. Furthermore, the content and characteristics of ad breaks displayed problems of low visibility, readability, and deficiency in terms of stating the commercial intent of advergaming.

THE EFFECTS OF IN-GAME PRODUCT PERFORMANCE ON RECALL OF AND ATTITUDES TOWARD THE REAL-WORLD BRAND

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Abstract

As brand placement into videogames becomes an increasingly popular marketing strategy, little research has examined the role that in-game experiences with branded products play in affecting recall of and attitudes toward the real-world brands. The current experiment employed the manipulation of in-game performance features of a branded product to determine if players' experience in an auto-racing game would translate into differences in real-world, brand-related outcomes.

The limited-capacity model of motivated mediated message processing (LC4MP) predicts that memory of stimuli will be affected by the amount of cognitive resource allocation that an individual can give to a particular message: Higher (lower) task distraction will lead to a lower (higher) allocation of cognitive resources when the stimulus is displayed, resulting in lower (higher) memory of the message. Therefore, it was predicted that individuals playing an easier game would recall in-game brand messages more than players of a difficult game (H1). Regarding attitudinal effects toward real-world brands, extant research indicates that: 1) Effects of prominent in-game brand placements are stronger than those for peripheral placements, and 2) The attitudes generated by virtual brand experiences can transfer to the real-world brand. Thus, a favorable experience with a branded product (due to better in-game product performance) should elicit higher brand attitude (H2) and purchase intention (H3) toward the real-world brand compared to an unfavorable experience.

Eighty-five participants played the Forza 2 auto-racing videogame in which they all drove the same car, a Volkswagen Golf, for 10 minutes. Unbeknownst to players, the key independent variable of difficulty was manipulated through the adjustment of several game settings related to the car (braking and traction control, on-screen guides, etc.). All participants were assigned randomly to either the easy ($n = 44$) or difficult ($n = 41$) condition. In addition to the central/prominent brand being used to play the game (Volkswagen), messages for three other auto brands (Chevrolet, Audi, Suzuki) appeared as peripheral ads surrounding the racetrack. Attitudes toward and purchase intentions of each auto brand were measured before and after game play.

Results indicated that players who had the easier in-game experience with Volkswagen (or players who performed better with the brand) exhibited greater brand recall than did those who played the more difficult version of the game, thereby supporting H1. Further, this effect was unique to Volkswagen and did not manifest with any of the peripheral brands. Also, better in-game product performance led to a significant increase in attitude toward the Volkswagen brand, supporting H2. Purchase intent (H3) was not affected by game play.

Taken as a whole, findings indicate that the in-game performance of branded products can influence the recall of and attitude toward the real-world brand. These effects also seem to be unique to central or prominent brand placements, as opposed to all in-game advertising in general. Results also provide a caveat to marketers looking to simply place their brand names into any videogame context. If brand messages are not placed prominently or, to a greater extent, if branded in-game products do not perform well for whatever reason, the investment might lead to outcomes that are actually contradictory to marketing goals.

PATHS TO PERSUASION WHEN ADVERTISING TO YOUNG CHILDREN

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Abstract

This study examines the utility of the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) to explain preschool children's processing of advertisements. Petty and Cacioppo's (1981) ELM proposes two routes to persuasion, including the central route (where persuasion occurs via information provided or strong "arguments") and the peripheral route (where persuasion occurs via factors that are appealing to the recipient, such as visual cues, attractive actors, and other source characteristics). The ELM has received extensive support when tested with adults (e.g., Andrews and Shimp 1990; Petty and Cacioppo 1986, 1984). Little is known, however, about children's use of either of the information processing routes. To date only one study (Te'eni-Harari, Lampert, and Lehman-Wilzig 2007) has examined the ELM as it applies to preschoolers.

Much of the literature on children and advertising persuasion was established in the 1970s and early 1980s (e.g., Robertson and Rossiter 1974; Ward, Wackman, and Wartella 1977). These early studies concluded that children younger than eight years of age have little if any ability to detect persuasion in advertising. There is also a general consensus in the literature that young children are "perceptually bound" and tend to focus solely on production features (color, characters, etc) rather than processing information elements (see John 1999 for review). From these conclusions, it would seem that a dual-processing model of information processing would not apply to children. Recently, however, marketing researchers and policymakers have called for a reconsideration of these conclusions in light of modern insights from developmental psychology, which suggest that children's responses to advertising may be more complex than previously thought (McAlister and Cornwell 2009; Moses and Baldwin 2005; Nairn and Fine 2008). The present research responds to this call and contributes to the literature by assessing the ELM with children aged three to five years. Incorporated in the research are developmental measures that have never before been addressed in ELM studies with children.

The ELM rests on two assumptions. It assumes that recipients of a persuasive communication are both motivated and able to process the message. With adults, information processing ability is often assumed. With children, however, it is possible to directly assess individual variations in ability, given that natural variation is present among preschoolers whose skills in many areas are still developing. Are young children motivated and able to engage in information processing? Certainly young preschoolers will not have the ability to read print ads. What about television or radio ads? Does a child have the requisite capacity to see, hear, and process a TV ad? Even if motivation and ability exist, will the ELM explain children's responses to persuasive ads or will their responses be entirely dissimilar to those of adults. These questions are the focus of the present research.

Consistent with the traditional ELM, the following predictions were derived from Andrews and Shimp (1990) and Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983):

(1) Children's attitude toward the advertised product will be affected by a significant interaction between involvement level and argument strength. High-involvement participants will respond more favorably to advertisements that are high in argument strength than those that are low in argument strength. The attitude response of low-involvement participants will not be affected by argument strength.

(2) Children's attitude toward the advertised product will be affected by a significant interaction between involvement level and source attractiveness. Low-involvement participants will respond more favorably to advertisements that are high in source attractiveness than those that are low in source attractiveness. The attitude response of high-involvement participants will not be affected by source attractiveness.

In addition to these traditional ELM predictions, the present study tests the impact of individual differences in executive functioning, as a measure of ability:

(3) The number of argument-oriented thoughts generated will be impacted by a significant interaction between executive functioning and involvement. Children in the high involvement condition will remember more arguments than children in the low involvement condition, but only when executive functioning is high.

Participants were 84 children (41 boys, 43 girls) aged 3 years 11 months to 5 years, 8 months ($M = 4.54$, $SD = .31$). The experiment was conducted using a 2 (involvement) $\times$ 2 (argument strength) $\times$ 2 (source attractiveness) design. In addition to these categorical variables, a continuous measure of executive functioning was included to estimate children's information processing ability. Language ability was measured as a covariate. The two DVs were attitude and thought generation.

Stimuli included mock television advertisements for a new cereal. To test the ELM, it was necessary to create ads that differed with respect to peripheral features (attractive vs. unattractive) as well as central arguments (strong vs. weak arguments). This 2 $\times$ 2 manipulation required four different ads for the same product. A "child-friendly" response scale was used in the measurement of attitudes. The picture response card included five faces from big frown to big smile. The mid-point was a face with a straight mouth to indicate an indifferent attitude.

Participants were randomly assigned to two groups: high vs. low involvement. Within each of these groups, participants were randomly assigned to one of four advertisement conditions. Children were seen individually for two sessions each (to avoid fatigue). The first session involved advertisement viewing and responses to DV questions, as well as the executive functioning tests. The second testing session (completed on a separate day, but within the same week), was used to administer the language task.

The advertisement viewing commenced with each child being told that they were going to watch some TV. In the high involvement condition, children were told that it was important to pay close attention to the TV. To increase their involvement, the experimenter told these children that they would later be asked questions about what they had seen and heard and that the child who answered the most questions correctly would win a prize. These high-involvement children were shown prizes (books and toys) to engage them in the "competition." The experimenter verified the potency of the manipulation by asking the child what they needed to do to win the competition. Children in the low involvement condition received no such instructions regarding a competition and prize. Children then responded to a series of questions designed to measure the dependent variables.

Three tasks were employed to measure executive functions including attention flexibility, inhibitory control, behavior planning, and working memory. Similar to McAlister and Cornwell (2010), these included the child version of Luria's Hand Game, a Resisting Instructions task, and an adapted version of the Card Sort task. Receptive vocabulary was assessed using the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test 4 (Dunn and Dunn 2007).

Hypothesis 1 predicted an interaction between involvement and argument strength in the explanation of attitude. It was expected that high-involvement participants would respond more favorably to ads featuring strong arguments. To test this hypothesis, we used a 2 (involvement) $\times$ 2 (argument strength) between subjects ANOVA, with attitude as the DV. The interaction between involvement and argument strength was significant. Hypothesis 1 was therefore supported. High-involvement participants responded more favorably to ads featuring strong arguments than those with weak arguments.

Hypothesis 2 predicted an interaction between involvement and source attractiveness in the explanation of attitude. It was expected that low-involvement participants would respond more favorably to attractive ads than unattractive ads. To test this hypothesis, we used a 2 (involvement) $\times$ 2 (source attractiveness) between subjects ANOVA, with attitude as the DV. The interaction between involvement and source attractiveness was. Surprisingly, this interaction was in the opposite direction to what had been hypothesized. Whereas we had predicted that low-involvement participants would be influenced by source attractiveness, we instead found that high-participants were the ones who were influenced. High-involvement participants had a better attitude toward the advertised cereal, when peripheral features were attractive than when they were unattractive.

Hypothesis 3 focused on the prediction of a child's ability to generate argument-related thoughts about the ad. We had predicted that children in the high involvement condition would generate more arguments than children in the low involvement condition, but only when executive functioning is high. A hierarchical regression was run with number of argument-related thoughts as the dependent variable. Language ability was entered as a covariate at step one. Executive functioning and personal involvement were assessed at step two, and the interaction between these predictors was assessed at step three. At step two, children with higher executive functioning scores generated a greater number of argument-related thoughts than children with lower executive functioning. High-involvement participants generated only a marginally greater number of responses. Addition of the interaction term at step three provided no significant increase in explained variance. Hence marginal support is found for hypothesis 3. While the predicted interaction was not significant, we found that executive functioning was a significant correlate of the ability to recall argument-related features of an advertisement.

Consistent with the ELM, high-involvement participants were responsive to the arguments presented in an advertisement, whereas low-involvement participants were not. The direction of the effect was also consistent with ELM predictions. That is, high-involvement participants had a more positive attitude toward the cereal under the condition of strong versus weak arguments. The surprising finding - when we look carefully at the data - is that the

effect does not indicate that strong arguments persuaded high-involvement participants to view the product more favorably. A more appropriate interpretation might be that weak arguments *dissuaded* children from thinking positively about the cereal. Counter to the typical findings in ELM research with adults, all low-involvement participants reported highly favorable attitudes toward the advertised product.

The findings appear to suggest that children have a predisposition to feel favorably about an advertised product. Moreover, it seems that children only become critical of the product (i.e., give lower attitude ratings) when they are highly involved with the ad and weak arguments are present. The graph in Figure 2 shows attitude (not attitude change) scores as the dependent variable, therefore, this interpretation is tentative. Additional research is underway to assess a baseline attitude toward the product and then calculate attitude changes scores after children had viewed an advertisement for the product. From the results available, though, it seems that children feel very positively toward the product in the absence of weak arguments. Hence, it is important to interpret these findings with caution and acknowledge that children's attitude ratings may naturally be overstated. Note, though, that this is not a ceiling effect in the data.

The present research contributes to the field by providing the first study of the ELM with preschool children that uses an age-appropriate attitude measure. Further, it is the only ELM study conducted with children that incorporates measures of individual differences in developmental variables.

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WHEN NUMBERS COUNT: FRAMING, SUBJECTIVE NUMERACY, AND THE EFFECTS OF MESSAGE QUANTIFICATION IN DIRECT-TO-CONSUMER PRESCRIPTION DRUG ADVERTISEMENTS

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Abstract

Although the literature suggests that direct-to-consumer (DTC) prescription drug advertising affects individual health beliefs and decisions, there has been little research attributing such effects to specific message appeals strategically placed in prescription drug ads. In the current study, two experiments are designed to programmatically examine the persuasive effects of message quantification. Experiment 1 showed that subjects with a low level of numeracy responded more favorably to a DTC ad presenting a quantified description of the benefits and risks of a drug than to an ad using broad language, while responses to the two ad types did not significantly differ among those with high numeracy. Experiment 2 revealed that when a DTC ad emphasized the positive consequences of taking the medicine, a quantified message was more effective than using broad statements. In contrast, when an ad focused on the negative consequences of not taking the medicine, the effects of message quantification were minimal. The two experiments also showed that perceived message effectiveness mediated the effects of message quantification on attitudes toward the ad. Theoretical and practical implications of research are discussed, with focus on insights into developing effective DTC ad messages and tailoring them to prescription medicine market segments.

MESSAGE FRAMING IN THE ADS FOR HEALTH-RELATED PRODUCTS: VERBAL AND VISUAL INFORMATION FOR PREVENTION VERSUS PROMOTION PRODUCTS

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Theoretical Background

Positive and Negative Message Framing in Health-Related Topics

One of the most intriguing issues in the research into health promotion is the effectiveness of positive versus negative message framing. Levin, Schneider and Gaeth (1998) distinguish three different kinds of valence framing effects: risky choice framing, attribute framing, and goal framing. In our studies we consider 'goal framing' which affects the persuasiveness of a communication. Message framing can be categorized as: (1) positive messages emphasizing the advantages or benefits the product can bring to the consumers; and (2) negative messages emphasizing the losses or disadvantages consumers may suffer for not using the product (Maheswaran and Meyers-Levy 1990). Past studies show that positive message framing produces the best advertising effect and is more persuasive (Eagly and Chaiken 1993; Levin and Gaeth 1988). However, although positive message framing gets the expected reaction more easily, the outcome may still differ depending on the *situation* (Gaeth et al. 1990; Levin and Gaeth 1988).

On the other hand, in health-related topics, there still exists some unresolved issues in the research stream regarding the persuasive effects of positive or negative framing. Research has shown that people are more accustomed to seeing arguments framed in positive rather than negative terms. Moreover, positive frames are more effective than negative frames for communications on health when consumers are not motivated to process the message (Block and Keller 1995; Maheswaran and Meyers-Levy 1990). Tsai and Tsai (2006) found that negatively framed messages were more effective than positively framed messages under high involvement conditions. Thus, products that consumers perceive as risky and important for their health and safety are most effectively promoted with negatively framed messages. According to Cox, Cox and Zimet (2006), negatively framed messages make consumers more likely to adopt high-risk products, whereas positively framed messages increase the attractiveness of low-risk products. These results suggest that the effectiveness of message framing for health-related products is determined by *situational factors* and *involvement*. We propose involvement to be considered in terms of prevention versus promotion motivation: we develop this approach in the following paragraphs. One may expect that the effectiveness of message framing is also determined by verbal versus pictorial information presented in ads (regarding information processing and persuasiveness) and by the (situational) conspicuous effects of using versus not using the product. To our knowledge, these topics have not been explored in the context of message framing in ads and seem to be conclusive in explaining the effectiveness of positive versus negative message framing.

We solve this problem in the light of network models in which relationships between emotion and cognition are considered (see: Bower 1992; Pessoa 2008). First of all we assume that one of the correlates of the effectiveness of advertisements is *sensitivity* to the ad. This sensitivity is investigated in cause-effect relationships between cognitive and emotional responses to the advertisement and is interpreted as a result of activation of particular areas of cognitive and emotional network. This activation causes that an advertisement is processed deeper, more thoroughly. Thus, its effectiveness is analyzed at the level of cognitive and emotional reactions which influence consumers' choices. According to Burke and Edell (1989), emotional and cognitive aspects of persuasion are *intertwined* rather than separate and it is worth to explore the nature of the relationship between consumers' emotional and cognitive reactions to advertisements. The link between cognition and affect in an advertising setting has been shown for example by Park and Young (1986), Burke and Edell (1989), Homer and Yoon (1992), Phillips (2000), or Falkowski and Grochowska (2009).

In our studies we examine two elements determining the effectiveness of positive versus negative message framing in ads for health-related products: (1) presenting in ads the conspicuous effects of using versus not using the product, and (2) applying verbal versus pictorial information. However, some of the healthcare products are directly related to the effect of conspicuousness (e.g. face-care pharmaceuticals, weight-reducing pharmaceuticals), and some indirectly (e.g. pain relievers or fever reducers). Furthermore, motivation to using healthcare products may differ depending on the prevention versus promotion focus. Thus, the effectiveness of ads may differ for healthcare products categorized in terms of prevention versus promotion.

Prevention versus Promotion Motivation in Message Framing for Healthcare Products

According to regulatory focus theory, people differently process information when they strive for achieving gains (promotion focus) or avoiding losses (prevention focus) (Higgins 1997).

Although any specific goal may be pursued with either a promotion or prevention focus, some goals are more compatible with a particular self-regulatory strategy, resulting in a higher (or lower) level of 'fit'. Some researchers prove that regulatory fit can increase persuasive message effectiveness (see: Kees, Burton and Tangari 2010). Aaker and Lee (2001; Lee and Aaker 2004) found that when the persuasive appeal is *compatible* with self-regulatory focus, individuals demonstrate greater recall of the message content and are more discerning regarding argument strength. According to Aaker and Lee, a regulatory fit results in more favorable attitudes toward persuasive appeals. Ramanathan and Dhar (2010) claim that regulatory compatibility may become a heuristic that allows selective attention to information that addresses people's regulatory concerns. Data from lexical decision task showed an increased accessibility to words consistent with the regulatory orientation. However, the effects of compatibility were observed only for brands that were consistent with the orientation, which implies that the effects cannot be generalized.

On the other hand, several studies suggest that *incompatibility* is more effective. Incompatibility between emotions or cognitions may enhance persuasiveness of messages. For example, Keller, Lipkus and Rimer (2003) found that individuals in a positive mood manifest an increased attention to negative information (when stakes are high): they are thinking about losses because they have more to lose. Thus, incompatibility between emotional states and message framing results in a greater effectiveness of the message. According to Agrawal and Duhachek (2010), studies on negative emotion suggests that compatible message frames are less persuasive than incompatible message frames - compatibility results in an overload of negative emotions that drives people to shut down and avoid processing the message. The effects of incompatibility can also be observed at the cognitive level. Compared with positive information, negative information is more attention-grabbing and persuasive because losses are experienced more strongly than gains of the equivalent magnitude (Chang and Lee 2010). Buda and Zhang (2000) showed that when information in a message *violates expectations* it is processed more thoroughly. Hence, it can be expected that negatively framed messages are analyzed more extensively only when people expect the message to be positively framed. When people expect the message to be framed negatively, the positively framed message will be processed more thoroughly because the positively framed message conflicted with the individuals' expectations. Message framing expectations in advertising are mostly positive but in some instances they are negative (e.g. medical or health advertisements) (Buda and Zhang 2000).

Thus, *compatibility* between promotion (prevention) products and positive (negative) message framing results in an increased *accessibility* to compatible information. On the other hand, *incompatibility* results in a greater *sensitivity* to incompatible stimuli. As we have emphasized, one of the correlates of the effectiveness of advertisements is *sensitivity* to the ad. This sensitivity is interpreted as a result of activation of a particular area of cognitive and emotional network. Therefore, it seems that the better fit between regulatory focus and the message framing, the lower sensitivity to the content of the message, and the worse fit—the higher sensitivity to the content of the message. In our studies messages refer to the Self.

We propose healthcare products to be considered in terms of prevention versus promotion motivation (see: Zhou and Pham 2004). Promotion products allow us to gain something, for example a beautiful complexion, a slim figure; prevention products allow us to avoid losses, for example, to avoid pain, fever, or illnesses.

On the basis of the assumptions presented above, it seems that in ads for prevention products consumers are more sensitive to positively than negatively framed messages, whereas in ads for promotion products consumers are more sensitive to negatively than positively framed messages.

Effect of Conspicuousness—Defining the Concept

Researchers have usually examined the effects of conspicuousness by identifying products that vary in their conspicuousness (e.g. private or public products) (Bearden and Etzel 1982; Childers and Rao 1992). Graeff (1997) proposed that *not products* but rather *consumption situations* vary in their conspicuousness. However, we argue that some products can be consumed in private situations but the *effects* of the consumption are observed in public situations. In our research healthcare products are considered in this context. Healthcare products belong to the products which are consumed mostly in private situations, but their effect is public. Therefore the ads for such products can be created in a way appealing to *public situation*, for example: 'My appearance while having a cold (or having spots) leaves an unfavorable impression on others' (negative message framing), or 'My appearance while I am healthy leaves a good impression on others' (positive message framing).

Verbal and Pictorial Information in the Advertisement

The effects of a higher sensitivity to positive than negative message framing for prevention products, and higher sensitivity to negative than positive message framing for promotion products, can be modified by the

form of the message: pictorial or verbal. Effects of verbal versus pictorial information on the persuasiveness of messages have been investigated in several empirical studies but the results are inconclusive.

Some psychological studies provide evidence that pictorial material is more effective than verbal (Nelson, Reed and Walling 1976; Kosslyn and Rosenberg 2006). Greater effectiveness of pictorial as compared to verbal material has also been shown in several studies into consumer behavior and advertising (Smith 1991; Hirschman 1986).

On the other hand, there is a stream of research proving the opposite effects of processing verbal versus pictorial information than presented above. According to Craik and Lockart's (1972) level of processing approach, the level of processing semantic information (verbal code) is deeper than the level of processing graphemic information (pictorial code), which results in better memory for verbal one. In a classic investigation of reconstructive memory processes it has been found that the verbal label biased the way the pictorial object was encoded and later reconstructed in the memory. When participants were given verbal labels for the presented unambiguous pictorial objects, pictures were reconstructed in the memory according to verbal label (Carmichael, Hogan and Walter, 1932; Neisser 1967). An image can be a device for picking out bits of schemes from memory, and increases the chances of variability in the reconstruction of a past event. When people recount past experiences, they often begin by pictorializing perceptual details and embellishing based on those details (Braun-LaTour et al. 2004).

Similarly, studies in the area of consumer behavior and advertising showed that verbal information is more effective than pictorial and results in ad's likeability (Phillips 2000; Chang 2006), better recall (Stafford 1996) and stronger inferences (Smith 1991). Verbal ads are analyzed more thoroughly than pictorial. For example, studies on memory distortion in the advertisement showed that the verbal-only condition resulted in the fewest false memories versus quite substantial false memories in the pictorial only condition or both (Braun-LaTour et al. 2004). Thus, it is easier to detect false or incompatible information in a verbal than pictorial advertisement.

Therefore, verbal information is processed deeper and more thoroughly than pictorial one. Furthermore, it is worth noting that *in ambiguous or incongruent situations people rely on verbal rather than pictorial information*. On the basis of the assumptions presented above, we can expect that conflicting messages enhance sensitivity rather to verbal than pictorial information. On the other hand, *compatible* messages are processed less thoroughly and demand less cognitive effort than incompatible. Furthermore, pictorial information is processed more easily than verbal. Thus, one can expect that in the conditions of compatibility between positive (negative) message framing and promotion (prevention) products, *pictorial* information is more efficient: in the conditions of compatibility verbal information (which is processed at deeper levels) is not analyzed, whereas pictorial information (which is processed at superficial levels) is easily analyzed. In our studies we investigate effects of incompatibility between positive (negative) message framing and prevention (promotion) products. We examine sensitivity to verbal versus pictorial information. One can expect that sensitivity to verbal versus pictorial ads, positively versus negatively framed, differs for promotion versus prevention products. Thus, we can expect that:

Hypothesis 1: In ads for health-related products categorized in terms of prevention: Consumers are more sensitive to positively than negatively framed verbal messages, and to negatively than positively framed pictorial messages.

Hypothesis 2: In ads for health-related products categorized in terms of promotion: Consumers are more sensitive to negatively than positively framed verbal messages, and to positively than negatively framed pictorial messages.

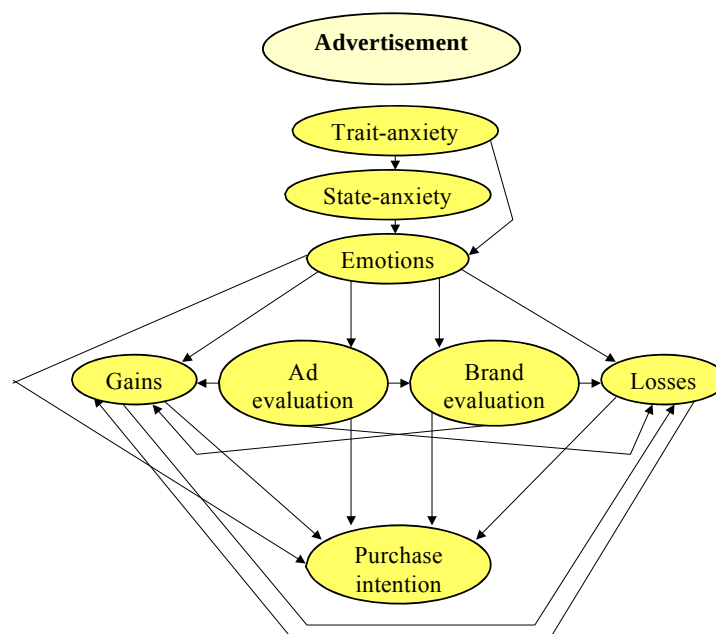
In our studies the effectiveness of verbal versus pictorial messages in ads is considered in the context of situations in which the effects of product consumption are conspicuous. These conspicuous effects can refer to gains or losses, thus we use positive versus negative framing of verbal versus pictorial messages in ads of health-related products. The effectiveness of ads of health-related products is moderated by the level of anxiety. Prevention versus promotion products are considered in study 1 and study 2, respectively.

Theoretical Model

To test our hypotheses we propose a theoretical model for print advertisement (figure 1). The fit of the empirical data to the theoretical model can be a measure of sensitivity to the advertisement (i.e. cognitive and emotional effectiveness of the ad, see page 3). Our model is based on Burke and Edell's (1989) research which examined relationships between emotions elicited by advertisement and evaluation of the ad and brand. Sensitivity to the ads for healthcare products can be determined by state-trait anxiety and feeling of gains of purchasing the product and losses of not purchasing the product (Eastin and Guinsler 2006; Keller 1999). Thus, in our studies, these elements have been included in the model. In our model, trait-anxiety and state-anxiety are considered as an individual characteristic. Anxiety acts as a filter in the perception of objects. And further advertisement for healthcare products, as an emotional stimulus, activates nodes in the emotional network. Emotions elicited by the advertisement influence ad and brand evaluation, purchase intention, and feeling of gains of purchasing the product and losses of not purchasing the product. Furthermore, purchase intention is

influenced by ad and brand evaluation, and the feeling of gains and losses. Our model can be interpreted as the emotional-cognitive network, sensitive to the content of the ad.

Figure 1. Theoretical Model: Anxiety and Emotion in Ad and Brand Evaluation, and the Perception of Gains and Losses in the Advertisement



METHOD

Participants, Materials, and Procedure: Study 1

Participants

One hundred and twenty-seven undergraduate students, volunteers, age 18–28 ($M = 23.36$), took part in study 1.

Materials

Stimuli. In study 1 ads for products categorized in terms of prevention were used. Products were selected in pretests. Twenty undergraduate students were asked to generate names of healthcare products they usually use or would like to use, in order that they came to their minds. Then other fourteen students were asked to classify these products to a category of prevention products or promotion products. The pain reliever Apap was selected as a prevention product. Four print advertisements of Apap were designed for the purpose of the experiment: containing a positively framed verbal message, positively framed pictorial message, negatively framed verbal message, and negatively framed pictorial message. All ads included the same packaging of Apap, brand name, and brand claims. In a positively framed verbal ad the text was: ‘*Imagine how fantastic you look when you feel good and healthy. With Apap you can return to a perfect image and appearance to others*’; and in a negatively framed verbal ad: ‘*Imagine how bad you look when you suffer from fever and a running nose. With Apap you avoid having a bad image and appearance to others*’. Positively framed pictorial ad presented a healthy and good-looking man and woman, and the headline: ‘*With Apap you can return to a perfect image and appearance to others*’. Negatively framed pictorial ad included a sneezing man and woman, looking ill, and the headline was: ‘*With Apap you avoid having a bad image and appearance to others*’.

The *State-Trait Anxiety Inventory* by Spielberger, Gorsuch and Lushene (1970) was used as a measure of the anxiety. The STAI is a 40-item self-report instrument: 20 items are designed to assess current experience of anxiety, and 20 items to assess trait anxiety. STAI has been found to have good reliability and validity. Participants answered each STAI item on a four-point Likert-type scale. Responses for each item of S-Anxiety and T-Anxiety were summed up separately; anxiety-absent items were scored in reverse.

The Emotional Network Scale was used to measure emotions elicited by the advertisement. The construction of the scale was inspired by Burke and Edell's (1989) 'The Feelings Scale'. The categorical and network structure of emotions constituted the theoretical background for the Emotional Network Scale. Multidimensional scaling methods were applied to establish the network structure of emotions. There were 13 and 8 items for positive and negative emotions, respectively. Psychometric properties of the scale were published by the authors of this paper (Falkowski and Grochowska, 2009). Participants marked their answers on the seven-point Likert scale. The index of emotions elicited by the ad was the difference between positive and negative emotions (net-affect).

Ad Evaluation was measured on four seven-point semantic differential scales (e.g. good-bad, interesting-uninteresting). The four measures were averaged to form overall measures of ad, Cronbach-alpha was .91.

Brand Evaluation was assessed on four seven-point semantic differential scales (e.g. favorable-unfavorable, good quality-bad quality). Cronbach-alpha for overall measure of brand was .85.

The Feeling of Gains was measured on seven-point scale, with 1-no satisfaction, and 7-high satisfaction. The participants were to answer the question: 'What is your subjective satisfaction of purchasing the product?'

To measure *the Feeling of Losses* the participants were asked the question 'What is your subjective feeling of losses of not purchasing the product?'. Answers were marked on seven-point scale, with 1-no losses, and 7-high losses.

The Purchase Intention Scale: participants marked answers to the question 'Would you like to buy this product?' on seven-point Likert scale, with 1-definitely NO, and 7-definitely YES.

Procedure and Methods of Statistical Analysis

The study was conducted in quasi-laboratory conditions in four groups of participants. Each participant viewed one of the four ads: positively or negatively framed x including verbal or pictorial information. At first the STAI was implemented. Then, after the instruction eliciting participants' involvement to the ad, one minute was given to view an advertisement. Further, the participants were asked to fill The Emotional Network Scale, Ad Evaluation Scale and Brand Evaluation Scale. Then scales of gains, losses, and purchase intention were filled.

Cause-effect relationships between state-trait anxiety, emotions elicited by the ad (net-affect) and the processes of evaluation for four ads were examined in structural equation modeling. The system was tested by translating the variables presented in a theoretical model into a system of structural equations, for each ad. In this way, the four models were tested, and the three measures of fit: chi-square (χ^2), GFI, and RMSEA were used to estimate the fit of the empirical data to them.

Participants, Materials, and Procedure: Study 2

Participants

One hundred and twenty-four undergraduate students, volunteers, age 18–26 ($M = 19.94$), took part in study 2.

Stimuli

Ads for products categorized in terms of promotion were used in study 2. Products of Vichy Laboratoires were selected in pretests as a health-related promotion product (see procedure of selection in the study 1): Aqualia Thermal and Homme Hydra Mag C – products for women and men were presented in the same advertisement. Vichy products are sold strictly in pharmaceutical stores, and not in general shops. Four print advertisements for Vichy products were designed for the purpose of the experiment. Advertisements were constructed similarly to the ads in study 1. All ads included the same packaging of Vichy products, brand name, and brand claims. In the positively framed verbal ad the text was: 'Imagine how fantastic you look when you have a beautiful complexion. With Vichy you return to a perfect image and appearance to others'; and in the negatively framed verbal ad: 'Imagine how bad you look when you have an ugly complexion. With Vichy you avoid having a bad image and appearance to others'. Positively framed pictorial ad presented a healthy and good-looking man and woman and the headline: 'With Vichy you can return to a perfect image and appearance to others'. Negatively framed pictorial ad included a spotty man and woman, and the headline was: 'With Vichy you avoid having a bad image and appearance to others'.

Materials and Procedure

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, The Emotional Network Scale, Ad Evaluation Scale, Brand Evaluation Scale, Feeling of Gains Scale, Feeling of Losses Scale, The Purchase Intention Scale as well as procedure and methods of statistical analysis were the same as in study 1.

RESULTS

The proposed model of effects of anxiety and emotion on ad and brand evaluation, and on the perception of gains and losses in the advertisement, was tested in structural equation modeling. The system was tested by translating the variables presented in figure 1 into a system of structural equations, for the four ads for prevention products and the four ads for promotion products: referring to positive or negative message framing and including verbal or pictorial information. In this way, the eight empirical models were tested. Indices of fit and paths coefficients for the eight tested models are shown in table 1.

Although emotions elicited by the ad, ad evaluation, and brand evaluation had no direct influence on gains and losses, the fit of the model to the empirical data was worse after removing the paths between emotions, ad evaluation, brand evaluation and gains and losses. This means that cause-effect relationships presented in the model are significant for the entire model. Thus, the presented model (figure 1) turned out to be the best one for testing our hypotheses. The fit of the empirical data to the theoretical model was a measure of sensitivity to the advertisement: the better fit, the higher sensitivity to the advertisement.

Table 1. Indices of Fit and Paths Coefficients for the Eight Tested Models

Model:	1a	2a	3a	4a	1b	2b	3b	4b
Product	Prevention product				Promotion product			
Advertisement	Pictorial Ad		Verbal Ad		Pictorial Ad		Verbal Ad	
Message framing	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
χ^2 (Df=10)	15.84	13.33	5.54	9.44	19.61	19.68	16.79	8.65
p (of χ^2)	.10	.21	.85	.49	.03	.03	.08	.57
GFI	.90	.91	.96	.93	.89	.88	.90	.94
RMSEA	.11	.07	.00	.00	.13	.14	.11	.00
Path								
1 T-Anxiety → Emotions	- a)	-	-	.33	-	-	-	-
2 T-Anxiety → S-Anxiety	.45	-	-	.37	.70	.35	.69	.77
3 S-Anxiety → Emotions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4 Emotions → Purchase intention	-	-	-	-	-	-	.58	-
5 Emotions → Gains	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 Emotions → Losses	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 Emotions → Ad evaluation	.76	.48	.62	.59	.56	-	.55	.81
8 Emotions → Brand evaluation	-	-	.59	.62	.36	-	.74	-
9 Gains → Purchase intention	.41	.26	-	.47	.28	.27	.27	.53
10 Gains → Losses	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11 Losses → Gains	-	-	-	-	-	.61	-	-
12 Losses → Purchase intention	-.37	-	-	.25	.30	-	.21	.33
13 Ad evaluation → Gains	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14 Ad evaluation → Losses	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15 Ad evaluation → Brand evaluation	.39	-	.31	-	-	.38	-	.55
16 Ad evaluation → Purchase intention	.30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17 Brand evaluation → Gains	-	-	-	-	-	-	.49	.49
18 Brand evaluation → Losses	-	-	-	-	-	.62	-	-
19 Brand evaluation → Purchase intention	.39	.58	.54	.25	.30	.58	-	-

a) statistically not significant ($p > 0,05$)

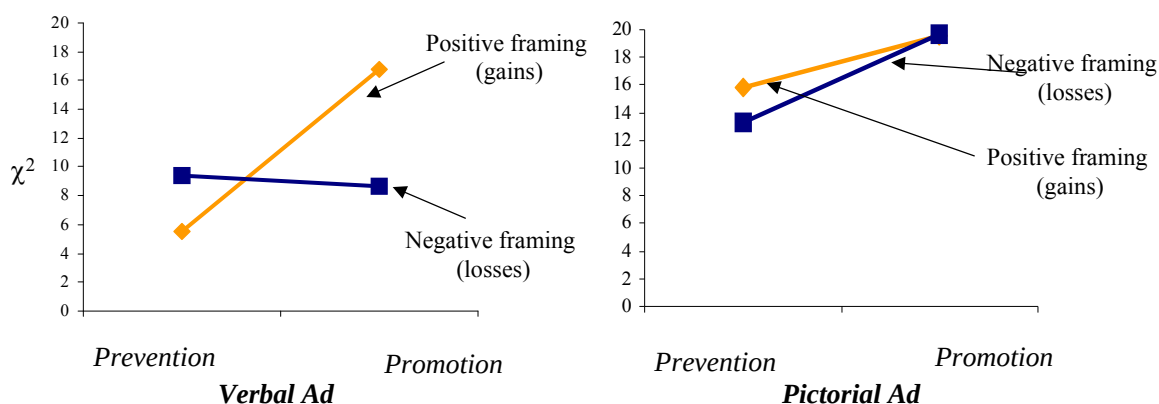
We used three measures of fit: chi-square (χ^2), GFI, and RMSEA (table 1). The chi-square is a fundamental measure of fit. The smaller the chi-square, the better the model fit, and the higher the probability level (p value) associated with chi-square, the better the fit. Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) is a measure of the relative amount of

variances and covariances jointly accounted for by the model, and unlike chi-square, is independent of the sample size and relatively robust against departures of normality (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1993). A value of 1 indicates a perfect fit. GFI > 0.95 indicates good fit. The RMSEA – Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation – is a standardized measure of error of approximation. RMSEA value of .05 or less indicates a close approximation, values of up to .08 suggests a reasonable fit of the model in the population. As we can see in table 1, measures of fit differed between particular models. These differences are analyzed in relation to research problems.

Sensitivity to the Ads for Prevention versus Promotion Products in the Context of Positive versus Negative Message Framing

In the first part of analyses the theoretical model was tested for the data obtained for positively or negatively framed ads, for the two product categories: prevention or promotion. Results for verbal ads and pictorial ads were analyzed separately. Thus, the structure of relationships between anxiety, emotions elicited by the ad, evaluations of the ad and brand, and the feeling of gains of purchasing the product and losses of not purchasing the product were tested for the eight empirical models. In figure 2, the chi-square tests were used to present the fit of the empirical data to eight theoretical models.

Figure 2. Values of Fits (χ^2) for Models of Advertisements for Prevention versus Promotion Products



Comparing measures of fit for the eight models (χ^2 , GFI, RMSEA in table 1) one may say that: In verbal ads for prevention products consumers are more sensitive to a positively ($\chi^2 = 5.54$, $p = .85$, RMSEA = .00; GFI = .96) than negatively framed message ($\chi^2 = 9.44$, $p = .49$, RMSEA = .00; GFI = .93), whereas in ads for promotion products consumers are more sensitive to a negatively ($\chi^2 = 8.65$, $p = .57$, RMSEA = .00; GFI = .94) than positively framed message ($\chi^2 = 16.79$, $p = .08$, RMSEA = .11; GFI = .90). This means that in the case of verbal ads, consumers are sensitive to messages which violate their expectancies (for promotion products positively rather than negatively framed messages are expected, and for prevention products—negatively than positively framed). Messages which are framed inconsistently with consumers' expectations grab their attention and are processed more thoroughly. We can also observe that consumers are more sensitive to the ads for prevention products ($\chi^2 = 8.22$, $p = .61$, RMSEA = .00; GFI = .98) than to the ads for promotion products ($\chi^2 = 22.19$, $p = .01$, RMSEA = .09; GFI = .96). This result is in accordance with regulatory focus theory (Higgins 1997), prevention motivation elicits a state of vigilance (that causes attention, systematic information processing, and elicits high sensitivity to the perceived ad, so messages in the advertisement are processed more thoroughly), whereas promotion motivation elicits a state of eagerness (which is accompanied with processing a wide area of the cognitive network, and facilitates creative cognition). This result is also in accordance with the prospect theory by Kahneman and Tversky (1979)—'losses loom larger than gains'. The same product presented in the perspective of gains versus losses was evaluated differently.

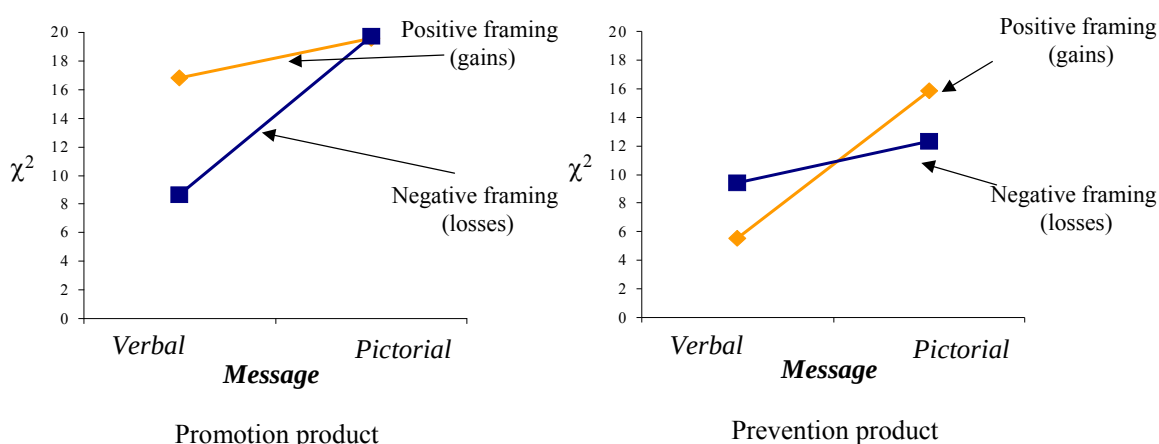
As we can see in table 1, there is a direct effect of feeling of gains (.25) and feeling of losses (.47) on purchase intention, in negatively framed verbal ads for prevention products. In positively framed verbal ads these effects have not occurred. This means that people are vigilant to gains and losses in the case of prevention motivation. On the other hand, for promotion products, in positively framed verbal ads, the effect of emotions (net-affect) on purchase intention (.58) has been observed. Thus, emotions are more effective in promotion motivation. These results suggest that advertisers can control the form of persuasive messages to enhance the effectiveness of ads: for prevention products in negatively framed verbal ads, appealing to gains and losses is more effective, whereas for promotion products in positively framed ads, it is better to appeal to emotions. In the

case of pictorial ads effects of higher sensitivity to positively (negatively) framed ads for prevention (promotion) products have not occurred. This suggests that verbal and pictorial information is processed in two different ways. We discuss this problem in relation to hypotheses 1 and 2. One can also observe that consumers are more sensitive to verbal ($\chi^2 = 14.64$, $p = .15$, RMSEA = .06; GFI = .97) than pictorial advertisements ($\chi^2 = 17.01$, $p = .07$, RMSEA = .07; GFI = .97).

Sensitivity to Verbal versus Pictorial Information in Ads

It was hypothesized that the structure of relationships estimated for the theoretical model was modified not only by the message framing and the product category (prevention vs. promotion) but also by the verbal versus pictorial information in the ad. In subsequent analyses the theoretical model was tested for the data obtained for prevention and promotion products for positively or negatively framed ads, including verbal or pictorial information. The chi-square, GFI, and RMSEA tests were used to estimate the fit of the empirical data to the eight theoretical models (table 1). Measures of fit for these models show that in ads for prevention products consumers are more sensitive to a positively ($\chi^2 = 5.54$, $p = .85$, RMSEA = .00; GFI = .96) than negatively framed verbal message ($\chi^2 = 9.44$, $p = .49$, RMSEA = .00; GFI = .93), and to a negatively ($\chi^2 = 13.33$, $p = .21$, RMSEA = .07; GFI = .91) than positively framed pictorial message ($\chi^2 = 15.84$, $p = .10$, RMSEA = .11; GFI = .90). Whereas in ads for promotion products consumers are more sensitive to a negatively ($\chi^2 = 8.65$, $p = .57$, RMSEA = .00; GFI = .94) than positively framed verbal message ($\chi^2 = 16.79$, $p = .08$, RMSEA = .11; GFI = .90), and to a positively ($\chi^2 = 19.61$, $p = .03$, RMSEA = .13; GFI = .89) than negatively framed pictorial message ($\chi^2 = 19.68$, $p = .03$, RMSEA = .14; GFI = .88; the last difference is very slight and fits are not good). Figure 3 shows the chi-square values illustrating the fit of the empirical data to eight theoretical models.

Figure 3. Values of Fits (χ^2) for Models of Verbal versus Pictorial Advertisements for Prevention versus Promotion Products



As we can see in figure 3, in ads for health-related products categorized in terms of promotion, consumers are more sensitive to a negatively than positively framed verbal message, and to a positively than negatively framed pictorial message. However, in ads for prevention products, consumers are more sensitive to a positively than negatively framed verbal message, and to a negatively than positively framed pictorial message. Thus, hypotheses 1 and 2 have been supported.

These results can be explained by the two mechanisms. (1) Consumers are more sensitive to messages which are incompatible with their expectancies (Buda and Zhang 2000). In positively framed ads for prevention products and negatively framed ads for promotion products there was inconsistency between the intention of the ad and its content. Furthermore, messages were incoherent with the schema of typical messages in ads: positive for prevention products, and negative for promotion products; thus, the ad was incompatible with consumers' expectancies. (2) There are different effects of using verbal versus pictorial information in ads (Chang 2006; Keller and Block 1997). It is easier to detect false or incompatible information in verbal than pictorial advertisement. Pictorial ads are more persuasive than verbal (e.g. a pictorial ad resulted in more false memories of Bugs Bunny in Disneyland as compared to verbal: Braun-LaTour et al. 2004). In ambiguous or incongruent situations people rely on verbal rather than pictorial information (Carmichael, Hogan and Walter 1932). Thus, in the case of pictorial information consumers are less sensitive to false or incompatible information as compared to verbal information.

Furthermore, a regularity may be seen in figure 3: in models for ads including pictorial information the fit of the model to the empirical data was much worse than in models for ads including verbal information. This means that consumers were more sensitive to verbal than to pictorial messages showing conspicuous effects of using or not using the product. Indeed, verbal ads are analyzed more thoroughly than pictorial (Chang 2006; Keller and Block 1997).

CONCLUSIONS

Our research showed that in ads for prevention products, a higher sensitivity to a positively than negatively framed message has been observed, whereas in ads for promotion products, to a negatively than positively framed message. This means that consumers are sensitive to messages which violate their expectancies. Messages which are framed inconsistently with consumers' expectations draw their attention and are processed more thoroughly. This effect may have several practical implications. For example, positively, as compared to negatively, framed public service advertisements appealing to health-related problems could be more effective. The results also showed a higher sensitivity to the ads for prevention than promotion products. Furthermore, a higher sensitivity to verbal than pictorial messages showing conspicuous effects of using or not using the product has been found. Verbal information is processed more thoroughly than pictorial. The most interesting result concerns the asymmetrical effects of using verbal or pictorial messages in positively or negatively framed advertisements for prevention versus promotion products: When the advertisement refers to the Self and shows public benefits of using the healthcare product, in ads for prevention products consumers are more sensitive to a positively than negatively framed *verbal* message, and to a negatively than positively framed *pictorial* message. Whereas in ads for promotion products consumers are more sensitive to a negatively than positively framed *verbal* message, and to a positively than negatively framed *pictorial* message. This result adds a new dimension to the research stream into positive and negative message framing in the persuasive messages.

Taking into consideration the context in which the ad is presented, we claim that if many other ads are also presented, e.g. in a pharmacy, a negatively framed pictorial ad, which draws attention, is more effective. But a positively framed verbal message is more effective in the context of other verbal messages, e.g. in leaflets containing information about other pharmaceutical products. Furthermore, considering different media, we suggest that a positively framed verbal message about healthcare products is effective not only in magazines or leaflets but even more if consumers can hear it on the radio or TV.

The issue of the conspicuous effects of using products in private situations also refers to such healthcare products as those to fight obesity, smoking, stress and other public health-related problems.

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THE EFFECTS ON HETEROSEXUALS OF ADVERTISING TARGETING HOMOSEXUALS: THE MODERATE EFFECTS OF GENDER, CULTURE AND PERSONALITY TRAITS

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Introduction

Previous studies have examined the impact of advertisement targeting homosexuals, with different levels of gay imagery explicitly, comparing the same image for the mainstream and gay windows, and also considering the participants' gender and the gender of the actors presented in the advertising (ad) (Oakenfull, McCarthy, and Greenlee 2008; Puntoni, Vanhamme, and Visscher 2011). From what we could find, it seems that little or no attention has been paid to factors such as the participants' culture, their personality traits, or mediating variables such as emotions generated towards the homosexual advertising stimuli that influence the reaction of the participant in terms of their attitude towards the ad and their intention to purchase the advertised brand.

Homosexual consumers are usually referred to as an attractive business opportunity for companies, and there are several arguments in the literature that justify the increasing desirability of this market segment. Several studies refer to its increasing dimension (Kinsey, Pomeroy, and Martin 2003; Mercer *et al.* 2007; Sharp 2002). Some surveys reveal that individuals are having more sexual relations with partners of the same sex or that they are increasingly willing to declare it. This evidence is illustrated, for instance, by a national survey carried out in Great Britain in 1990, according to which 8.4% of men living in Central London reported having had sexual experiences with persons of the same sex; this number increased to 10.5% when the survey was repeated in 2000 (Johnson *et al.* 2001). Studies applied in Portugal indicate that 3% to 6% of the young population is homosexual (Frazão and Rosario 2008, p. 39). An enquiry conducted by *Coordenação Nacional para a Infecção do VIH/SIDA* revealed that 5% of respondents admitted having had contact with people from the same sex without involving genital areas (kisses, touch) and 3.2% report having had sexual relations with someone of the same sex (Gomes 2008).

The group of homosexual consumers seems to have a higher disposable income than heterosexuals (Arabsheibani, Marin, and Wadsworth 2005), although some studies refute this idea and argue that this evidence might be explained by the concentration of homosexuals in large metropolitan areas, where the average salaries are higher, where there is a higher probability of both members of the homosexual couples being in active employment and a lower probability of homosexual couples having children (Miller and Washington 2009).

Homosexual consumers behave as trend spotters and early adopters, i.e., they are more attentive to the introduction of new products to the market, as they are more likely to buy them, due to their greater desire to acquire unique products, and as they tend to buy and possess rare and innovative products (Witeck-Combs Communication Inc. and Harris Interactive 2008). Therefore, they are usually acknowledged as being trend setters, opinion leaders, and as defining cultural, fashion and design trends (Vandecasteele and Geuens 2009).

Homosexual consumers are more loyal to brands than heterosexuals (Gardyn 2001). They tend to patronize regularly gay-owned or gay-friendly establishments such as bars, restaurants, health clubs and hair salons (Rosenbaum 2005). A study by Witeck-Combs Communication Inc. and Harris Interactive (2006) found that 21% of homosexuals acknowledge they were more interested in buying and knowing more about brands advertised in magazines and on television, compared with only 16% of heterosexuals. This study also reveals that homosexuals declare themselves to be less concerned with advertising than heterosexuals (46% and 55%, respectively), which probably denotes a higher efficacy of advertisement targeting homosexuals than heterosexuals.

Homosexuals are referred to as a desirable market segment, yet they are not targeted using mainstream media (with the rare exceptions of fashion and beauty brands), because managers expect a negative reaction to homosexual advertising messages from heterosexuals, and are afraid of losing their actual or potential heterosexual consumers (Oakenfull, McCarthy, and Greenlee 2008).

Advertising targeting homosexuals is only prevalent in homosexual publications, as the American magazines *The Advocate* and *OUT*, or the Portuguese magazine *Com'Out*. Advertising targeting homosexuals through the online media is also limited, venturing no further than websites targeting homosexuals, such as the *PortugalGay* web portal that, in January 2011 reported 160,000 visitors and 1,000,000 *banner views* per month.

Paradoxically, it is estimated that more than half of the North American homosexual population does not read any kind of media targeting homosexuals and that more than 90% of gays and 82% of lesbians say that they read generic magazines as *Newsweek* or *Time* (Oakenfull, McCarthy, and Greenlee 2008).

Another inconsistency is that studies conclude that homosexual consumers appreciate the inclusion in Mass Media of advertisement targeting homosexuals, becoming loyal to brands and companies associated with this advertisement seen as a support to homosexual social movements (Oakenfull, McCarthy, and Greenlee 2008). The fact that consumers acquire products for their symbolic meanings is ingrained in the general marketing literature; indeed, homosexuals respond positively to gay-friendly retailers who display symbols (Rosenbaum 2005). A study from Witeck-Combs Communication Inc. and Harris Interactive (2007) found that 32% of gays changed their preferred brand to another that supports the gay social movement, and that 75% of the homosexuals remain loyal to brands that support this movement, even when products from other less supportive companies have lower prices or are more convenient.

Despite knowing about these advantages, brands still seem afraid to communicate with homosexual targets, especially in mainstream media. Important brands like IKEA, Calvin Klein or Benetton use this kind of advertising in the mass media, without visible negative effects on the brand; however, companies seem to be afraid that a connection to the gay social movement would cause a very negative reaction from the majority of their costumers, the heterosexual individuals (Oakenfull, McCarthy, and Greenlee 2008).

Some studies indicate that many heterosexuals are not prepared to accept homosexuals as their equals in society. A study carried out by the advertising agency EURO RSCG and Time/CNN, reported that between 42% and 48% of individuals believe that homosexual relations are wrong; another study in 2006, found that 24% of heterosexuals would be less willing to buy a product from a company that would use homosexual celebrities to promote their products (Oakenfull, McCarthy, and Greenlee 2008).

Based on the considerations above, we identify arguments in favor of and against advertisement targeting homosexuals in the mainstream media, finding more advantages than disadvantages in developing additional studies on this topic. This study intends to go further in this research area, therefore proposing a framework which follows the S-O-R Model and intends to examine the heterosexual responses to advertisement targeting homosexuals, focusing also on advertising evaluation, measured by attitudes towards the ad and intentions towards the brand, presenting three moderating variables: the participants' gender, culture, and personality traits.

Research Questions

The general research question is how can brands communicate with homosexual consumers in the mainstream media, without alienating their current and potential heterosexual customers?

The specific question is whether there are relevant differences across cultures that justify the differentiation of advertisement techniques and messages based on location. This study intends, therefore, to shed light on the reaction of heterosexuals to homosexual cues presented in advertising imagery.

Literature Review

In order to draft the proposed framework, we conducted a literature review focused on several keyword (e.g., homosexual, advertising, S-O-R, stimuli, brand, Big-Five personality, consumer behavior), we searched several journal database (e.g., Elsevier, Emerald, Springer, Wiley InterScience) and top international journals of marketing, psychology and consumer research (*Advances in Consumer Research*, *Journal of Marketing Research*, *Journal of Consumer Research*, *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *Journal of Marketing Management*, *Journal of Advertising*, *Journal of Marketing*, *Psychology and Marketing*, and many others). In addition to these top journals, we have analyzed national and international web sites and books and we also considered related Portuguese journal articles and books as well as documents presenting survey results.

S-O-R Model

This study will consider the Stimulus-Organism-Response paradigm (S-O-R Model) to explain the different effects of advertising targeting homosexuals on the heterosexual public. Donovan and Rossiter (1982) define the requisites for an adequate S-O-R model: "An adequate S-O-R model has the following requisite: stimulus taxonomy, a set of intervening or mediating variables, and taxonomy of responses. Stimulus, intervening, and response variables should be conceptually clear, comprehensive yet parsimonious, and

operationally measurable. There should be a well-specified expression of the relationship between stimuli and responses via the intervening variables.” (p. 36)

In this vein, the S-O-R model will be applied to the advertising environment, establishing a relationship between an advertisement stimulus and statements of behavioral intention and attitudes towards that stimulus, mediated by emotional states. Therefore, the advertising stimuli are manipulated with different levels of explicitness of the homosexual targeting intention and the gender of the actors, influencing the responses to that stimuli (the intention to buy the advertised product and the attitude towards the ad), mediated by the observer’s emotions (arousal and pleasure). These connections are contextualized according to moderating variables such as the gender of the observer, the culture in which he/she is integrated and his/her personality traits.

In this study, in order to create levels of homosexual appeal, different techniques will be used, as explicit images of gay couples’ intimacy, inclusion of gay icons, verbal cues, or celebrities that support the LGBT movement.

In this study, *attitude towards the ad* is defined as the degree to which an individual has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of his/her reaction to an advertisement. This variable intends to measure the degree of acceptance/rejection of the advertising stimuli by the observer. For this variable, there are two product components that can affect attitude towards the ad: a hedonist component versus a utilitarian component (Batra and Holbrook 1987). These authors list several studies that have already documented the way attitude towards the ad plays a mediating role, as a variable that intervenes between advertising content (stimuli) and purchasing intention. Researchers had shown that “positive attitude has a positive impact on an individual’s intention to exhibit a specific behavior” (Picazo-Vela *et al.* 2010, p. 687). This study hypothesizes that individuals with a positive attitude towards a gay imagery will have a favorable intention to purchase the advertised product.

In this study, *intention* refers to the individual’s willingness to purchase an advertised product. As Picazo-Vela *et al.* (2010) stated: “It is important to study intentions towards a behavior because the stronger the intention, the more likely the performance of the behavior.” (p. 687).

The Role of Emotions

There are numerous studies about the role of emotions as mediators of consumer responses to advertising (Batra and Holbrook 1987). In this proposal, we will use Mehrabian and Russel’s environmental psychology model which would be applied to advertising situations. This model posits that any environment will produce an emotional state in an individual that can be categorized in terms of the three basic emotional states that mediate approach-avoidance behaviors, known by the acronym PAD: Pleasure - Displeasure; Arousal - Nonarousal; Dominance - Submissiveness (Donovan and Rossiter 1982).

Pleasure-Displeasure refers to the degree to which the person feels good, joyful, happy, or satisfied with the imagery that has been observed (Donovan and Rossiter 1982; Russell, Weiss, and Mendelsohn 1989). We expect that the discomfort felt by evaluating an advertisement with a homosexual message can cause strong negative emotions like anger, rage or fear, similar to what is described by Hatzithomas, Zotos, and Boutsouki (2011) about responses to humor stimuli on different cultures. It is also expected that these negative emotions will affect the intention to purchase the advertised brand (Liu, Cheng, and Li 2009). Arousal-Boredom is the degree to which the person feels excited, stimulated, alert, or active with the imagery that has been observed. Dominance-Submissiveness refers to the extent to which the individual feels in control of, or free to act in, the situation (Donovan and Rossiter 1982). In their 1980 study, Russel and Pratt propose a modification of the Mehrabian-Russel theory, removing the dominance variable, due to the tenuous evidence of the dominance dimension, arguing that dominance requires a cognitive interpretation by the person and is therefore not purely applicable in situations calling for affective responses (Donovan and Rossiter 1982). Therefore, we will not include the variable dominance in our study.

Russel, Weiss and Mendelsohn (1989) propose a single-item scale, the Affect-Grid, designed as a quick means of assessing affect along the dimensions of pleasure-displeasure and arousal-boredom. According to the authors, this instrument is not only potentially suitable for any study that requires judgments about affect of either a subjective or a descriptive kind, but also is short and easy to fill out and, therefore, suitable to be applied rapidly and repeatedly.

Cultural and Human Values

Mooij and Hofstede (2010) stated that “cultural models help to analyze culture’s consequences for the self and personality, mental and social processes, and how these influence global advertising strategy” (p. 87). There are several models for the analysis of cultural values, but the most well-known and used seems to be Hofstede’s and Schwartz’s models.

Values are defined as ideas of the desirable that guide the way social actors select actions, evaluate people and events, and explain their actions and evaluations, in which goals ordered by importance, serve as guiding principles in life (Schwartz 1999). According to this author, values represent shared abstract ideas about what is good, right, and desirable in a society. The value priorities that we establish influence our specific

capacities, how we choose our friends, colleagues, work and travel opportunities, and even whether we adopt certain political, economic and religious systems; these choices are based on values that create life circumstances to which we adapt our values (Schwartz 2006).

Gouveia and Ros (2000) explain that Hofstede “describes at the cultural level one of the first theoretical orientations towards the structure of values” (p. 26). Hofstede first identified four factors as sufficient to distinguish cultures (Power Distance, Avoiding Uncertainty, Masculinity/Femininity, and Individualism/Collectivism) and later added an additional dimension (Long-term versus Short-term orientation).

Schwartz develops an alternative theory behind the structure of cultural values to the structure developed by Hofstede (Gouveia and Ros 2000). Schwartz model can be illustrated by a diagram, which identifies ten motivationally distinct value orientations that people in all cultures recognize, and it specifies the dynamics of conflict and congruence among the values (Schwartz 2006). According to the conflicts and congruities among all ten basic values, these values are structured along two polar dimensions: self-enhancement versus self-transcendence; and openness to change versus conservation (Schwartz 2006). Based on their cultural value priorities, countries can be arrayed in a two-dimensional space, revealing meaningful grouping of culturally related nations (Schwartz 1999): this idea will be the starting point for our study and the second reason for including values in the model (cross-cultural comparison).

Although Hofstede’s classification of culture is based on a large number of countries measured and his dimensions considered simple (Mooij and Hofstede 2010), literature refers to several potential advantages of Schwartz’s value dimensions compared to Hofstede’s dimensions. A first advantage is that the “Hofstede’s model is better explained by macro-economic variables while the Schwartz’s model is better accounted for by macro-social variables” (Gouveia and Ros 2000, p. 25); as we are dealing with social variables, we have adopted Schwartz’s model as a more complete and adequate approach to the study. A second advantage in adopting Schwartz’s instead of Hofstede’s model is that although culture was originally conceptualized at an aggregate level, several researchers have noted that there are different layers of culture, and that Schwartz’s model can be applied at an individual level of analysis; Hofstede’s instrument was not designed to measure culture at a more micro level (Blodgett, Bakir, and Rose 2008). There are other reasons to adopt Schwartz’s model, as the fact of being a more comprehensive set of value dimensions, having been tested with more recent data with two matched samples, and that the samples were obtained from more diverse regions, including Eastern Europe countries (Ng, Lee, and Soutar 2006).

Personality Traits

Personality is defined as “unique and cross-situationally consistent and is usually described in terms of traits” (Mooij and Hofstede 2010, p. 91). The views of many personality psychologists have converged regarding the structure and concepts of personality, and generally researchers agree that there are five robust factors of personality which can serve as a meaningful taxonomy for classifying personality attributes and studying individual differences (Barrick and Mount 1991; Picazo-Vela *et al.* 2010). These five basic factors of personality have been obtained in different cultures, with different languages, using different instruments and with different theoretical frameworks. (Mount and Barrick 1998),

Although there are different theoretical frameworks, Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann Jr. (2003) argue that “the Big-Five framework enjoys considerable support and has become the most widely used and extensively researched model of personality” (p. 506), suggesting that most individual differences in human personality can be classified into five broad, empirically derived domains; this framework “is a hierarchical model of personality traits with five broad factors, which represent personality at the broadest level of abstraction”. (p. 506)

For this study, we have adopted the definitions and terms similar to those used by Digman (1990). The first dimension is Extraversion and the traits frequently associated with it include being sociable, gregarious, assertive, talkative, active (Barrick and Mount 1991), outgoing, enthusiastic (Picazo-Vela *et al.* 2010), and NOT reserved, or shy (Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann Jr. 2003). The second dimension is Emotional Stability and represents individual differences in the tendency to experience distress (Mohammed, Unher, and Sugawara 2009); the traits associated with this dimension include being self-confident, resistant to frustration (Picazo-Vela *et al.* 2010), relaxed, NOT anxious, moody, easily upset, or easily stressed (Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann Jr. 2003). The third factor is Agreeableness, which describes the human aspect of people, such as altruism, nurturance, caring, and emotional support at one end, and hostility, indifference to others, self-centeredness, spitefulness, and jealous at the other end (Mohammed, Unher, and Sugawara 2009); the behavioral tendencies typically associated with this factor include being courteous, flexible, trusting, good-natured, cooperative, forgiving, soft-hearted, tolerant (Barrick and Mount 1991), and NOT aggressive, or cold (Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann Jr. 2003). Conscientiousness is the fourth dimension, which reflects dependability, that is being careful, thorough, responsible, and planning carefully, and the typical behaviors associated with this dimension include being hardworking, achievement-oriented, persevering, self-disciplined, organized, self-motivated and task-oriented (Barrick and Mount 1991), NOT careless, or impulsive (Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann Jr. 2003).

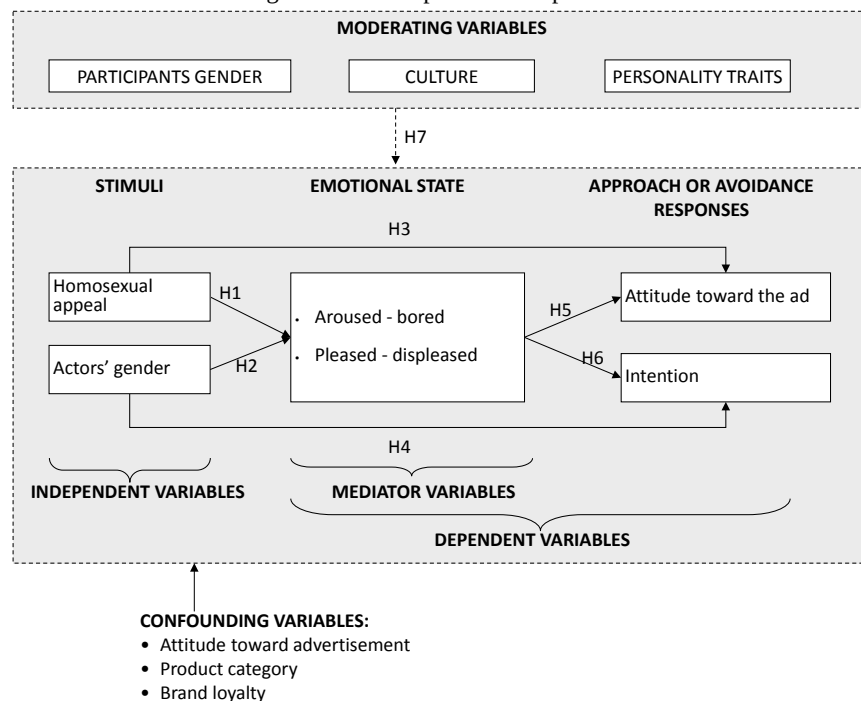
Low conscientious people may find it more acceptable to hide in the crowd and not contribute as much when the potential for behavioral evaluation is low (Picazo-Vela *et al.* 2010). The fifth factor is Openness to Experience and is related to scientific and artistic creativity, divergent thinking, and political liberalism; at the core of this dimension is openness to feelings and new ideas, flexibility of thought, and a readiness to indulge in fantasy (Mohammed, Unher, and Sugawara 2009); traits commonly associated with this dimension include being imaginative, cultured, curious, original, broad-minded, intelligent, and artistically sensitive (Barrick and Mount 1991), reflective, creative, deep, open-minded, NOT conventional (Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann Jr. 2003).

It is important to notice that “personality research in East Asia suggests a “Big Six” structure, including a factor ‘dependence on others’ (Mooij and Hofstede 2010, p. 92).

Conceptual Framework

The proposed conceptual framework is an attempt to explain the effects and relations between different types of variables: independent, dependent, moderators, mediators and confounding variables.

Figure 1: The Proposed Conceptual Framework



The conceptual framework proposes two independent variables - homosexual appeal and actors' gender, which are stimuli that can be controlled by managers in advertising environments (Buckley 1991). The attributes of homosexual appeal will be determined by an exploratory study, which will permit the identification and confirmation of the homosexual subculture elements that can be identified by homosexuals and that could be included in the manipulated advertising ads. These attributes could be, for instance, the more or less explicit presence of gay or lesbian couples, or the presence of verbal or nonverbal cues, such as symbols, icons, images, music or colors. Consumer response to homosexual advertising content is affected by the type of homosexual imagery used in the advertisement, i.e., the reaction of heterosexuals to advertising that includes homosexual subculture elements depends on the explicitness of these elements (Oakenfull, McCarthy, and Greenlee 2008). These authors posit that homosexual subculture has developed identity elements that have meaning to gays and lesbians, but that are not interpreted by heterosexuals. The study conducted by Puntoni, Vanhamme, and Visscher (2011) also confirms that the reaction to an advertising stimulus depends on the explicitness of the homosexual message. The literature provides evidence of different reactions from heterosexuals to advertising that include elements from the homosexual subculture, and that those reactions are influenced by the gender of the actors presented in the ads: heterosexual men have a more negative response to imagery that contains a gay couple than a lesbian couple (Oakenfull, McCarthy, and Greenlee 2008).

Applying the Mehrabian-Russel model to the situation of advertising evaluation, we can consider that behavior while evaluating the ad can be classified as either approach or avoidance behavior (Donovan and Rossiter 1982). Approach behavior refers to a positive attitude towards the ad and consideration of purchasing the product/brand advertised; avoidance behavior refers to the opposite behavior, i.e., negative attitude towards the ad and low intention of buying the product.

Mediator variables are defined based on the Mehrabian-Russel theory, known by the PAD acronym, as aforementioned.

In our conceptual framework we also propose three moderating variables: the participant's gender, his/her cultural values and personality traits.

Gender is one of the characteristics that largely determine the life circumstances to which people are exposed, such as their socialization and learning experiences, the social role they play, the expectations and sanctions they encounter, and the abilities they develop (Schwartz 2006). Thus, differences in gender represent dissimilarities in the life circumstances that affect value priorities, and therefore we can expect these conditions to influence the response to advertising with homosexual messages. According to this author, these differences in men's and women's motives and orientations are likely to find expression as different value priorities, and for that reason, it is expected that the gender of the participant will have an impact on the reaction to the ad stimuli. Oakenfull, McCarthy, and Greenlee (2008) reinforce this argument, once they found that consumers' response to homosexual advertising content was affected by the gender of the consumer viewing the advertisement: heterosexual men tend to have a more negative reaction to homosexual imagery than heterosexual women. This view is also strengthened by academic research that has discovered important differences in cognitive processes and behavior between male and female consumers, where these differences are reflected in the use of gender as a segmentation variable in marketing practice (Melnik, van Osselaer, and Bijmolt 2009).

Regarding cultural values, the literature indicates that this variable can have an important influence on the conceptual model. It is generally accepted that cultural differences affect consumer behavior (Blodgett, Bakir, and Rose 2008), therefore cultural values can be expected to act as a moderator variable in the relation between advertising stimuli and the consequent response. Culture can be one of the most important factors that affect responses to ads involving sexual appeal; cultural dimensions can help to examine differences between cultures concerning advertisement with a sexual appeal (Liu, Cheng, and Li 2009). In this sense, culture can also be expected to affect the reaction to stimulus with homosexual messages.

The European Social Survey in 2006-2007 (ESS) concluded that the acceptability of homosexuality varies considerably according to one's country, therefore attitude towards the ad targeting homosexuals and also the intention of purchasing the advertised brand is likely to be affected by the culture of the participant. Schwartz's explanation on how values relate to a controversial social attitude, namely attitudes towards gay people, also emphasizes the importance of including this variable in the model as a moderator variable (Schwartz 2006).

Liu, Cheng, and Li (2009) provide another reason to consider culture and country of location in the study: these authors argue that country of location has a significant effect on consumer attitudes towards the ad and the brand in nearly all of the four types of ads involving sex appeal presented in their study. These findings support the argument that in international advertising, localization or standardization should be carefully considered. Therefore, countries or culture should be included in this study.

One of the research objectives is to identify the impact of personality on attitude towards the ad and on individual purchasing intention; hence the third moderating variable is personality traits. These authors argue that we do not have sufficient empirical evidence to conclude that, in an advertising context, personality traits will affect consumer response to ads including sex appeal to a larger degree than cultural values. They further suggest that future studies could be conducted to examine the effects of other factors on consumer evaluation of ads relying on sex appeal, or any other techniques, rather than merely focusing on cultural dimensions.

Confounding Variables

Extraneous variables (or confounding variables) can confound the results by playing the role of an independent variable and influencing the dependent variable, posing a serious threat to the internal and external validity of the experiment, and, therefore, they have to be controlled (Malhotra and Birks 2007, p. 310). In this study, three possible confounding variables are identified: product category, attitude towards advertising and brand loyalty.

Product characteristics are stimuli related to the image towards which the behavior is to be directed, and contribute directly to situational involvement (Arora 1982). This confounding variable must therefore be controlled. We understand that it is difficult to differentiate between products which can be suitably advertised using sex appeal and which cannot, but the literature states that the product involvement has a significant relationship with consumers' attitudes to different ads including sex appeal (Liu, Cheng, and Li 2009). The efficacy of sexual appeal in advertising depends on its adequacy to the advertised product (Liu, Cheng, and Li 2009). Applying this idea to advertisement with homosexual messages, we can expect different reactions

depending on the product category advertised. In the mainstream media we can easily see imagery with homosexual features when beauty or fashion products are being advertised. In this kind of product category, a higher tolerance towards the ad is expected. To eliminate this possible effect, imageries of different product categories will be selected and presented to the individuals in the samples.

The second confounding variable identified during literature review is the attitude towards advertising. People might dislike the manipulative character of advertising but, at the same time, believe that advertising is good for the economy and is informative; the difference in attitude towards advertising is important as consumers with more favorable attitudes towards advertising are persuaded more by advertisements (Defever, Pandelaere and Roe 2011). These authors suggest that the extent of advertising effects depend on one's attitude towards advertising; individuals that see advertising as informative or enjoyable are less likely to consider advertisement as manipulation than individuals who have a previous negative attitude towards advertising.

The third confounding variable is brand loyalty. Previous research has shown that an individual's past behavior has an impact on his/her intention to perform the behavior again (Picazo-Vela *et al.* 2010). In this study, brand loyalty refers to past experiences with the brand that the individual might have had. An individual confronting a relatively new situation (low user) can be expected to have a low enduring involvement (Arora 1982). A consumer who knows and has experienced the brand might feasibly have a prior idea of the brand and this might have an impact on their reaction to the advertising stimuli. In this sense, brand loyalty can be considered a confounding variable in the model. Therefore, to control this effect, ads will be manipulated including fictitious brands.

Hypotheses

An unconventional ad will affect the emotional state of the target. Heterosexuals should experience less positive emotions and more negative emotions in the case of gay window compared with mainstream ads (Puntoni, Vanhamme, and Visscher 2011). Based on the literature reviewed, dealing with the effect of independent variables on emotional state, we hypothesize the following:

H1: The higher the degree of homosexuality explicitness presented in the ad, the more aroused (less bored) and the less pleased (more displeased) the participant will be.

H2: The gender of the actors in the ad will have a significant effect on emotional states: the participant will be more aroused (less bored) and less pleased (more displeased) by the presence of a gay couple than by the presence of a lesbian couple.

Concerning the impact of the independent variables on the dependent variables, we hypothesize the following:

H3: The level of homosexuality explicitness presented in the ad will determine the negative impact on the attitude towards the ad and the negative impact on the intention to purchase.

H4: The gender of the actors in the ad will have a significant impact on the attitude towards the ad and in purchasing intention: the participant will have a more negative attitude towards the ad and a lower intention to purchase when viewing an ad with a gay couple, compared to an ad with a lesbian couple.

Based on Mehrabian and Russel's theory, we expect that pleasure and arousal will determine approach-avoidance reaction, where the responses described are the attitude towards the ad and the intention to buy the product. We hypothesize the following:

H5: Arousal will have a significant effect on the response to the ad stimulus: an individual with a higher level of arousal will have a more negative attitude towards the ad and a lower intention to purchase.

Liu, Cheng, and Li (2009) report the direct relationship between the positive arousal evoked by sex appeal, whether in the form of pictures, stories or sounds, and the positive evaluations of the brand.

H6: Pleasure will have a significant effect on the response to the ad stimulus: an individual with a higher level of pleasure will have a more positive attitude towards the ad and a higher intention to purchase.

H5+6: Arousal will amplify the positive attitude towards the ad and the higher intention to purchase in pleasure environments.

This theory states that pleasure and arousal interact in such a way that arousal amplifies approach behavior in pleasant environments and avoidance behaviors in unpleasant environments (Donovan and Rossiter 1982). In a neutral (neither pleasing nor displeasing) environment, an aroused individual will have a positive purchasing intention or a positive attitude towards the ad. An individual who feels pleasure by looking at the imagery, can be expected that the greater his arousal, the greater will be the positive attitude towards the ad and the intention to purchase the product.

Based on the reviewed literature, regarding the effect of moderating variables on emotional state caused by the stimuli and their effect on responses, we hypothesize the following:

H7a: The gender of the participant will have a significant effect on responses to the different ads with different stimuli regarding arousal and pleasure emotions (**H7a-1**), and also concerning attitude towards the ad and purchasing intention (**H7a-2**).

Liu, Cheng, and Li (2009) highlight the gender differences in processing sex appeal, creating uncertainty about the use of sex appeal and justifying these differences based on the diverse perceptions about what is sexually attractive and on the biological and psychological needs of men and women. While evaluating the same ad, a female participant is expected to have a lower level of arousal and a higher level of pleasure than a male participant. Being more tolerant, we expect that a female will have a more positive attitude towards the ad than a male participant evaluating the same ad.

H7b: When exposed to ads with different stimuli, the consumers from two different cultures will have significantly diverse responses regarding arousal and pleasure emotions (**H7b-1**), and will have significantly different attitudes towards the ad and purchasing intention (**H7b-2**).

A participant from a more open culture will probably have lower level of arousal, higher level of pleasure, a more positive attitude and a higher purchase intention than a participant from a less open culture. Open-minded individuals are creative, broad-minded, and willing to experiment or try new things; consequently, it is expected that these individuals will have a tendency to have a more tolerant attitude towards homosexuality, having less aroused emotions (negative effect), more pleasant emotions (positive effect) and a tendency to have a more tolerant attitude towards the ad with homosexual imagery, i.e., towards an unconventional method of advertisement (positive effect).

H7c: Personality traits will have a significant effect on responses to the different homosexual appeal ads regarding arousal and pleasure emotions (**H7c-1**) and regarding attitude towards the ad and purchasing intention (**H7c-2**).

As an example, individuals with low emotional stability (one of the five personality traits dimensions) are often easily frustrated and have a tendency to be hypersensitive to negative events (Picazo-Vela *et al.* 2010); individuals with high emotional stability are self-confident and they are expected to be less upset with explicit erotic advertising than individuals with low emotional stability. Therefore we hypothesize that this personality trait will have a significant effect not only on emotional state (positive impact on arousal and negative impact on pleasure), but also on responses to the stimuli (negative effect on the attitude towards the ad and on the intention to purchase).

Method

In order to test and validate our model we intend to carry out three studies.

The goal of the first study is to obtain insights and to understand the nature of marketing phenomena, namely to identify the verbal and nonverbal elements that are seen by homosexuals consumers as symbols of the homosexual subculture. The second objective is to identify the types of print advertising targeting homosexual consumers, understanding the different levels of imagery explicitly presented in the homosexual and mainstream media. The third goal is to categorize gay-friendly brands, identifying which are explicitly supporting the gay social movement and which use subtle cues to communicate with homosexuals. A fourth purpose is to recognize national and international public figures that support the gay social movement and also the ones that are publicly open about their homosexual orientation, in order to latter introduce their image into advertising as fictitious endorsement figures. In this way, we will use an exploratory approach to examine consumer behaviors in social environments visited mainly by homosexuals, such as specific bars, restaurants and stores; this method will also be applied in social events like gay parades or public demonstrations. Following this method, we expect to acquire an intimate knowledge of the gay communities and the confidence and cooperation of a number of influential contacts within them (Duckitt and Du Toit 1989). Secondary data will also be analyzed, investigating magazines specifically published for homosexual consumers in different countries. We will analyze the content of these media platforms, looking for differences between and characteristics of advertisement in mainstream and homosexual magazines.

Study 2 will adopt an interpretative methodology, in order to describe the elements identified and confirm that the elements identified are seen as symbols of the homosexual subculture by homosexual consumers. Consumers acquire meaning for objects, actions and behaviors through the interpretation of these elements in the social world (Schembri, Merrilees, and Kristiansen 2010). In this interpretative phase of the investigation, the research subject is the homosexual consumer, the research object are the homosexual cues presented in the ads, the research focus is the consumer symbolic interpretation, and the research question asks: Which verbal and nonverbal cues do homosexual consumers identify with homosexual meaning? This phase does not have the objective of generalization, but serves the purpose to verify the signs and symbols that represent the homosexual subculture. It will contribute not only to produce important insights into the definition of "homosexual appeal", but will also allow the effect of different levels of homosexual explicitness in advertising to be verified on samples of participants from different cultures. The elements or figures identified

as homosexual symbols or explicitly associated with homosexuality will be used in manipulated ads to be applied in a subsequent step of the investigation.

In this study, the snowball technique will be used to recruit homosexuals living in metropolitan areas of cities in the three countries for in-depth interviews. Although this method does not guarantee representative samples, it will be sufficient in this phase of the research to get a reasonable broad cross-section of the gay community, concerning factors as age, socioeconomic status, language group, and education (Duckitt and Du Toit 1989). This phase of the research will require a sample of homosexual individuals that will take part in in-depth interviews, in which they will identify which symbols they associate with the gay movement and will be asked to classify the level of symbolism for each element. The interviews will involve broad questions and participants will be encouraged to describe their interpretation. Similar studies show that collecting six to ten interviews is necessary (Schembri, Merrilees, and Kristiansen 2010), hence ten participants will be interviewed. The participants will be asked to rate their degree of homosexual orientation and only persons rating themselves exclusively or predominantly homosexual (a rating of six or seven on Kinsey's seven-point scale) will be used in the study (Duckitt and Du Toit 1989).

Study 3 will involve a quantitative and experimental approach, verifying causal relations between specific concepts and variables that are revealed by an exhaustive literature review. Ads will be created, manipulating images, based on the literature and on the results produced in previous steps of the research. These ads will be presented to heterosexual consumers and the response to the advertising stimulus will be examined. The heterosexual consumers will be students, professors and employees of schools, high schools, universities, and elder universities (above 50 years) in the three countries, EUA, Portugal, and Russia, in order to have a sample across ages. The questionnaire used to evaluate not only the emotions, but also the approach and avoidance responses will be originally designed in English. A back-to-back translation method will be adopted to translate the questionnaire into Portuguese and into Russian.

All participants will be informed that participation is voluntary and that anonymity will be maintained. To guarantee full confidentiality, no names will be recorded and participants will be identified only by a reference number.

Regarding dependent variables, Liu, Cheng, and Li (2009) recommend the use of the two-item scale developed by MacKenzie, Luch and Belch to measure buying intention and the use of a scale with five attitudinal statements for measuring the attitude towards the ad.

Concerning the moderating variables, our research will follow Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann Jr. (2003) recommendation of using a very brief measure of the Big Five personality dimensions due to research constraints: the Ten-Item Personality Inventory (TIPI), using a 7-point Likert scale. These authors explain that "each item consists of two descriptors, separated by a comma, using the common stem, "I see myself as:". Each of the five items is rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (disagree strongly) to 7 (agree strongly)" (p. 516). These authors conclude that although somewhat inferior to the standard Big-Five instruments, TIPI is a brief instrument that can stand reasonable proxies for longer Big-Five instruments, especially when research conditions ask for a very short measure to be used. Other instruments as BFI, NEO-FFI, and TDA have been tested, and estimated that take approximately 5, 15, and 15 minutes to complete, respectively (John and Srivastava 1999); TIPI takes only about 1 minute to complete (Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann Jr. 2003).

Potential research implications and expected outcomes

The proposed conceptual framework will contribute with an original approach to the literature of advertisement and consumer behavior. This knowledge will serve academic research, by illustrating that heterosexuals consumers may have different emotional states, as well as different approach and avoidance responses to the same advertisement stimulus targeting homosexual consumers, depending on consumer gender, different cultural values and personality traits. For brand managers and advertising companies, this research will provide insights into targeting homosexual consumers and understanding the effect that advertising can have on heterosexual minds.

We can identify potential limitations, as the restriction of the analysis to press advertising avoiding loose of focus, and consequently excluding the effect on other media platforms, such as television, radio or the Internet, once the recognition and response of the participant could be different when evaluating a different medium (Liu, Cheng, and Li 2009).

Concerning validity, our study intends to obtain a generalization of results (external validity). The idea is to consider several educational degrees (high schools, universities, and elder universities) in the three countries, in order to obtain a representative sample of the population over 14 years of age and considering also the geographic and gender distribution of the population as indicated by the latest census conducted in each country.

According to Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann Jr. (2003), the Big-Five framework, although enjoying considerable support and being the most widely used and extensively researched model of personality, it has not been accepted universally. Some researchers have restrictions about the Big-Five framework, particular imprecise specifications of its dimensions, suggesting that more than five dimensions are needed to understand the domain of personality (Barrick and Mount 1991). Another limitation also related to the analysis of personality traits on an individual's intention to purchase an advertising brand is that we will employ a very short version (10 items) of the Big-Five personality instrument, which is been criticized for being less reliable, correlating less strongly with other variables, and presenting inability to measure individual facets of multifaceted constructs as the Big-Five dimensions; future research may consider using a longer version of the Big-Five personality measure.

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POLITICAL ADVERTISING AND THE HIERARCHY OF POLITICAL SOCIALIZATION IN TEENS

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Abstract

While there is considerable study of impacts of news media and other influences on teens, less attention has been paid to political advertising or direct persuasive messages from candidates to citizens. This study examines the impact of political advertising and news on the political socialization of young people. Here, political advertising and news are conceived of as constituting three types of “voices”: Authoritative, Opinionated, and Advertising. The Media Choice Model suggests that the voice in which a message is delivered will have a significant effect on the development of all political responses in teens, from political interest to participation in politics either in traditional modes or in the digital world.

Results in a survey administered nationally to 12-17 year olds show that advertising voice has direct effects on nearly all levels of political response: political interest, political knowledge, traditional participation, online participation, political talk and school participation. Advertising voice also has indirect effects on political interest and knowledge through political talk and political school programs and on online participation through political talk.

These results suggest that political advertising provides a stimulus to every aspect of youth response to politics, from being interested in it to being knowledgeable and even to behavior—both online and real world participation in politics. It also has strong indirect effects, through stimulating more political talk and more active participation in school based political activity. While advertising voice had the strongest effects on youth, it should be noted that exposure to all three voices was highly inter-correlated. Further, the results suggest that school programs and political discussions are even more crucial to developing political socialization sophistication and interest.

SPECIAL TOPICS SESSION: ACCOUNT PLANNING IN ACADEMIA AND PRACTICE: THE NEED TO BRIDGE THE DIVIDE

Moderator: Luis Lopez-Preciado, The University of Texas at Arlington, Arlington, TX

Christie Abshire Butcher, Brand Strategy Consultant, Dallas, TX

Isaac Muñoz, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX

Padmini Patwardhan, Winthrop University, Rock Hill, SC

Cristina Sánchez Blanco, Universidad de Navarra, Barcelona, Spain

Account Planning as a discipline has slowly but steadily grown with marketing communications firms the world over. Borne out of the need for advertising strategy to focus more on consumers and less on the “hunch” of creative teams, it has been generally recognized to be a ‘best practice’ by practitioners. Presently, account planning has been systematically adopted by the industries of most mature advertising markets throughout the world. However, the academic literature has not kept pace with these developments. In fact, a content analysis of four top advertising journals (Journal of Advertising, Journal of Advertising Education, Advertising & Society Review, and The International Journal of Advertising) showed that from 2000 to the present only seven articles focusing solely on account planning were published. Further, there are very few academic institutions that have developed account planning curricula. This panel seeks discussed how to bridge the divide between industry practitioners and academics, both in terms of research and education.

WHEN THE GOOD FACE A CRISIS? THE EFFECTS OF PRIOR CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY CAMPAIGNS IN PRODUCT-FAILURE AND MORAL CRISES

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Abstract

This study uncovers the potential role of previous CSR engagement when a company is faced with a corporate crisis, and examines its impact on a consumer's evaluation of the company. The results of this experimental study suggest that prior CSR initiatives can more effectively protect consumer evaluation of the company when the company is faced with a competence-related negative event than a morality-related negative event. In addition, when the cause of CSR is directly congruent with the issue of the negative event, consumer responses were more negative than when there is no issue congruence between CSR and the negative event. The most interesting is that the effect of issue congruence is greater for the moral crisis versus competence crisis. That is, when a firm's moral crisis is associated with a cause in a previously involved a CSR initiative, consumers perceive that the firm's intention of CSR initiative involvement was more insincere and selfish than a firm's competence-related crisis.

COMMUNICATING SUSTAINABILITY: DO PEOPLE REALLY CARE HOW GREEN PRODUCTS BENEFIT ENVIRONMENT?

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Sukki Yoon, Bryant University, Smithfield, RI

Patrick Vargas, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Champaign, IL

The premise on which the present research proceeds is that the persuasive impact of an environmental message depends on both regulatory focus and construal level. Research indicates that people often focus more on information that is relevant to them. Hence they will attend more on information that fits with their self-regulatory orientations. When one's regulatory orientation is sustained during goal pursuit, participants are more persuaded (Cesario, Grant, & Higgins, 2004), express higher brand affinity (Aaker & Lee, 2001), and engaged more in advertisement (Wang & Lee, 2006). Results of four studies show that 1) regulatory fit between regulatory focus and construal level of benefits can be induced 2) more favorable sustainable product evaluations and persuasion are likely to occur when people's self-regulatory orientations and their construal level of benefits fit with one another 3) the effect of self-regulatory goal depend on construal level of benefits 4) involvement mediates the effect of fit between regulatory focus and construal level on evaluations. The overall pattern of findings, which is consistent across multiple operationalizations of regulatory focus (picture prime and advertisement message frame) converges to demonstrate that more favorable product evaluations and persuasion occurs when the level of construal fits one's accessible regulatory focus, however, these effects are prominent only when individuals construe sustainable products' benefits closely.

SOFT SKILLS: THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEADING AND LEAVING THE ADVERTISING INDUSTRY

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Sheri J. Broyles, University of North Texas, Denton, TX

Abstract

There is agreement among educators that foundations, creativity, media strategy, research, and campaigns form the core of knowledge for an advertising education, what is referred to as the hard skills. But there has been little research into the soft skills needed to succeed in a career in advertising, especially as one progresses up the career ladder. This quasi-ethnography based on data from six advertising agencies explores the specific soft skills needed in the field. Findings suggest problem solving, oral communication, persuasion, presentation, professionalism, a strong work ethic and teamwork are among the most vital soft skills in the industry. Implications for educators and practitioners are discussed.

THE EFFECTS OF CRISIS TYPE AND EVALUATIVE TONE OF NEWS COVERAGE ON CONSUMER RESPONSE TOWARD POST-CRISIS CORPORATE ADVERTISING

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Abstract

The present study examines how consumers respond to corporate advertising during a corporate crisis. In particular, it examines what impact two factors - crisis type and the evaluative tone of a news story - have on consumer responses to corporate advertising. Results of the experimental study suggest that the crisis type - an accident or a transgression crisis - is a critical factor affecting ad credibility and changes in perceptions of and attitudes toward the corporation between pre- and post-tests. In addition, the results reveal that while the effect of the evaluative tone of the news story is not statistically significant on each of the dependent variables, the marginally significant effect on the set of dependent variables calls for more careful attention to this issue in future research.

TOP BRANDS' CREATIVE STRATEGIES IN SOCIAL MEDIA

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Abstract

Brand marketers are also spending time and money to develop branded internal and external social networks. These branded efforts provide additional touch-points to encourage ongoing interaction between the consumer and the brand story throughout the day, which can deepen consumer-brand relationships, help marketers uncover common themes in consumer feedback, and persuade consumers to engage with online content (Murdough 2009).

Although there is a high potential for positive outcomes from branded social media efforts, the risks may overwhelm brand marketers. In fact, social media has been compared to the Wild West because there is limited direction on how brand marketers should navigate the largely unexplored, social terrain (e.g. Greenberg 2009). For example, social media gives greater control of the brand story to consumers, who can extend the brand's reach and credibility by engaging in eWOM (Trusov, Bucklin and Pauwels 2009). However, consumers may engage in the brand story in a way that hurts the brand's image or results in confusion about the brand message.

To address this gap in the literature, this study employed a content analysis of the social media efforts of top brands that were recognized for their social media efforts. The results provide insights regarding (1) which social media channels are being used, (2) which creative strategies/appeals are being used, and (3) how these tools and strategies relate to consumer engagement in branded social media from the top brands.

The findings suggest that top brands go where the consumers are, such that favored tools are the channels that reach the most consumers (e.g. Facebook). The findings also suggest that brands are using multiple appeals as they share content with target audiences in social media. However, the most frequently used appeals (functional) were not related to consumer engagement metrics. On the other hand, consumer engagement metrics showed positive relationships with the use of experiential, user image and exclusivity appeals; incentives to share; and frequent contacts designed to increase engagement.

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**CULTURE, SOCIAL MEDIA INTENSITY, AND MATERIALISM:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SOCIAL NETWORKING,
MICROBLOGGING, AND VIDEO SHARING IN CHINA AND THE
UNITED STATES**

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Abstract

This study investigated whether the intensity of social media usage was related to materialism in China and the United States—two countries with the highest advertising expenditures and Internet population. Drawing from the social comparison theory (SCT) and the cultural framework of interdependent and independent self-construal, results indicated that Chinese users tend to have higher levels of intensity of microblogging site and video sharing site usage than their American counterparts. In addition, a positive, significant relationship between the overall materialism and respective intensity of social networking site and video sharing site usage was found in the both samples. These results suggest that while social media have emerged as an important advertising outlet in both China and the United States, their social media patterns and materialism values have evolved quite differently due to different cultural and social settings. Theoretical and managerial implications for international advertising strategies are discussed.

WHY ARE SOCIAL MEDIA USERS WILLING TO SHARE INFORMATION ON SOCIAL NETWORKING SITES? APPLYING THE KNOWLEDGE SHARING MODEL TO SOCIAL NETWORKING SITES

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Abstract

Drawing upon the knowledge sharing model derived from the social cognitive theory, the present study examines the motivational antecedents to information sharing behavior among social networking site users. We identified two personal factors (self-efficacy and expected outcomes) and two environmental factors (perceived strength of social ties and size of network) as potential determinants to knowledge sharing behaviors. In an online survey with a 308 college student sample, we found that knowledge self-efficacy, social outcome expectation and self-evaluative motivations were significant predictors of voluntary knowledge sharing activities on social networking sites. Perceived strength of social network ties was found to have a negative influence on knowledge sharing activities.

THE ANTECEDENTS OF ATTITUDE TOWARD MARKETING MESSAGE IN SOCIAL MEDIA: ELECTRONIC WORD-OF-MOUTH (EWOM) PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

As a one of the fastest growing areas for online marketing, social media, specifically Twitter, a social networking site, could provide prominent opportunities for marketers. However, little scholarship has empirically investigated why consumers use Twitter and how to utilize Twitter as a brand information exchanging tool.

In this study, 4 independent variables—perceived similarity, perceived credibility, product category (utilitarian and hedonic), and perceived fit (utilitarian and hedonic) —which might affect consumer attitude toward marketing messages in Twitter, were examined.

The results showed that perceived similarity, perceived credibility, product category of hedonic dimension, and perceived fit of hedonic product dimensions affected consumers' evaluation of brand attitudes. In addition, perceived credibility, perceived fit of utilitarian dimension, and perceived fit of hedonic dimension affected consumers' eWOM-spreading intention.

**SPECIAL TOPICS SESSION:
ADVERTISING SPRUNG FROM THE ARAB SPRING:
MESSAGES, STRATEGIES, AND IMPLICATIONS RESULTING FROM
2011 REVOLUTIONS AND ACTIVITIES IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND
NORTH AFRICA**

*Kevin Keenan, American University in Cairo, Cairo, Egypt
Ashraf Foda, Advantage Marketing and Advertising, Cairo, Egypt
James Pokrywczynski, Marquette University, Milwaukee, WI
Marilyn Roberts, Zayed University, United Arab Emirates*

**OVERVIEW OF ADVERTISING TOPICS RELATED TO REVOLUTION
AND POST-REVOLUTION CONDITIONS IN THE ARAB WORLD**

Kevin Keenan, American University in Cairo, Cairo, Egypt

The social movements, political activism, and uprisings of 2011 have changed most all aspects of life in the Arab world. Business environments in countries across North Africa and the Middle East are in the midst of chaos and decline as formerly authoritarian governments are replaced with uncertainty about economic and market alternatives. Media systems are being torn down and reconceptualized throughout the region, with more open news and entertainment options flourishing and new communication technologies spreading. Elections are planned and ongoing in countries formerly unfamiliar with such practices.

In the midst of these and other changes, advertising has taken on new roles in many Arab nations. Message content and campaign themes have reflected different aspects of recent revolutions, with some advertisers embracing the spirits and ideas brought about by the overthrow of old regimes and others more cautious about addressing such issues. Ad industry contributions to societal change have increased. New and transitional governments are themselves making use of advertising for purposes not previously existent in the region. The regulation of advertising practices is being reevaluated and it is no exaggeration to say that advertising in the Middle East has changed more during the past year than it had in the past 30 years combined.

The special topics session described here offered some perspective to how 2011's events in the Arab world have changed advertising there, how advertising influenced what has become known as the Arab Spring, and what the future is likely to hold for advertising in the region and beyond. Based on short presentations by four panelists, the session shared television, print, and on-line advertisements, anecdotal information from inside the region and the advertising industry, case study examples of consumer and political campaigns, and other matters related to advertising and recent developments in the Middle East.

Topics included in this session also have classroom value for those who teach advertising, not only in the Middle East, but also in the U.S. and other parts of the world. Presentations, discussion, and examples provided by panelists should be useful for incorporation into courses including Advertising and Society, International Advertising, Creative Strategy, and others.

Circumstances and activities surrounding the Arab Spring have resulted in unique and exciting developments in advertising. At a time in history when much is changing for all realms of life in the Middle East and North Africa, the contribution of advertising and the integration of new messages and media into systems of commerce and societies in the new Arab world are truly monumental. The authors included here are uniquely qualified to provide perspectives on the subject and evidence offered gives a richer understanding of the state of things related to advertising in the region.

ADVERTISING (PEOPLE) SPRUNG FROM THE ARAB SPRING

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Egypt is the biggest market in the Middle East with population of almost 85 million. There are over 20 million internet users, and the advertising industry is the most developed in the region. In January 2011 the Arab spring started swiping over the region, it started over social media and mobiles and expanded to the street, dropping a regime after the other and with it bringing more than just political change.

Despite all the futile attempts to take credit for this revolution, treating it as a brand and trying to profit out of it. By examining the people behind the revolution, we will discover that it was made by young common people, not affiliated by a certain party, company or agency; they are consumers. They are a new breed of consumers, who are energetic, creative and highly critical. The Egyptian revolution is in fact a Consumer Generated Revolution.

As advertising people we are trained to look at consumers as the “others”, we study them and archetype them, try to find creative ways to force messages down their throats. But the truth is, advertising people are consumers too. With the revolution changing a lot of things, many advertising people in Egypt started to act like consumers; and rebelled too!

While agencies and clients are concerned about how to deal with a new changing market. The personnel in the agencies were already out there, doing what they do best, expressing their new freedom. Art directors, Copywriters, Account Managers and Producers; all took to the streets and embraced their new identities as protesters. Bringing in their skills and talents to play, learning new tricks, and eventually producing revolutionary work.

The Oath TV Spot by Hesham El Labban, Ex. Creative Director, Leo Burnett and Founder of Kairo advertising agency. Started out as a personal project, written in Tahrir Square during the revolution. Pitched later to a client, and was produced, most of the cast in the TV spot are advertising people. It became a popular piece of writing cited on TV and printed on the cover of school books.

Stone From Tahrir Square by Ashraf Foda, Associate Creative Director at Advantage Marketing and Advertising, also started out as a personal project, a collection of stones collected from Tahrir Square as souvenirs. The idea was pitched later to art galleries and is now touring Europe as a charity show with all proceeds of sales going to revolution victims' charities. The show is being featured in national and international media creating a public awareness campaign about the victims of the revolution.

Almost every agency in Egypt had people who were taking part in the revolution, and bringing in a piece of the square into their work. Film, music, art, writing and social media are all being shaped by the new spirit of the revolution.

ARAB SPRING: U.S. & HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

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In the third presentation, Pokrywczynski begins by showing a quote from a Sudanese national describing the plight of young Muslims and their vision of a new dawn that results in the uprisings for more freedom and opportunities in the activities surrounding the Arab Spring. The exhilaration and excitement that surrounds any revolution is what attracts advertisers to using the symbols and cues associated with such events. The associations advertisers can make between their products and these feelings are the objective when connecting to the Arab Spring.

Advertisers in the U.S. have so far been slow to connect their products to images of the Arab Spring. Subtle references, such as a Prius auto ad showing the Egyptian pyramids in the background as a reference to the revolution in technology that Prius brings to automobiles with its fuel efficiency, are one of the few current uses of revolutionary imagery. Historically, the use of revolutionary themes is more widespread in U.S. advertising. References to the social revolution in the U.S. in the 1960s were demonstrated with clothing ads for Levi Strauss

and Macy's. Coca-Cola's ads in the post-Vietnam 1970s featuring the music "I'd like to buy the world a Coke" became an anthem for peace that was used for many years and was ingrained in the memories of markets worldwide.

The fall of the Berlin Wall in the late 1980s became a theme for Pepsi and AT&T to connect to in television ads. The Pepsi ad, "The gift of freedom in the greatest gift of all" in 1989 showed a montage of images of the wall falling and people experiencing the freedom of crossing the border between the two Germanys. The ad closed by making the connection that enjoying a Pepsi was a gift worth enjoying as well. The AT&T commercial featured interviews with Germans crossing the border, talking to relatives and friends they had not heard from or seen for years. The ad makes a close link to the product, showing people talking on the phone making arrangements to meet across the border.

More current references to the Berlin Wall occurred on the 20th anniversary in 2009. Print ads for Microsoft software showed images of hammers breaking walls to associate with how Microsoft breaks down barriers in processing and delivering information with its software. DHL delivery service featured images of sledge hammers being delivered in DHL packages in a somewhat humorous demonstration that DHL delivers important items no matter what shape, weight or size.

The presentation concluded with an example of how references to revolution and uprising can be perceived negatively. The example shown was an ad for Pakistan in the U.S. on the 10th anniversary of the 9/11 event in the U.S. that discussed the role Pakistan plays in defeating terrorism and keeping the world safe. An international news report was played that showed the ad as well as discussed the challenges to claims made in the ad, especially in light of the fact that Osama bin Laden was eventually found and killed while being sheltered in a bustling city in Pakistan.

A final ad ended this section on a humorous note by showing how references to revolution can go back a long way. A Dodge auto ad currently running in the U.S. depicts a Revolutionary War scene dating back to the 1700s with the British army preparing a line of defense in an open field in anticipation of an oncoming battle with American colonists. In the closing scene, emerging from the dust of the enemy advance, a Dodge auto appears, driven by a George Washington look alike. The British retreat in haste, as a voiceover refers to the Dodge as a revolution in automobiles.

THE SECOND FEDERAL NATIONAL COUNCIL ELECTION: EVOLVING POLITICAL ADVERTISING AND CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN THE UNITED ARAB EMIRATES

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On September 24th, 2011, the United Arab Emirates (U.A.E.) held an historic Federal National Council (FNC) election. This was the second time in the nation's 40-year history that an electoral college of Emirati citizens exercised their rights to directly elect half (20 of 40 members) to the FNC, a consulting body to the nation's leadership. The FNC is the fourth federal authority after the Supreme Council, President, Vice President and Cabinet, as per the U.A.E. Constitution. Under Article 110 of the Constitution, the FNC receives and reviews draft laws from the Council of Ministers. The body can reject, amend or insert provisions in draft laws before they are submitted to the President of the U.A.E. by the Council of Ministers. Under the nation's first President, Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, the FNC held its first session in 1972, following the formation of the U.A.E. on December 2, 1971.

Following the founding President's death in 2004, his successor Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan first outlined plans to reform the FNC during his second National Day address as President in December 2005. The President's remarks launched the process of participation, a part of the bigger social plan called 'Al Tamkeen,' Arabic for 'To Empower' (Ahmad, 2011). The first FNC election followed in 2006 with half of the previously wholly-appointed 40-member council directly elected by an electoral college of 6,700 Emirates, chosen at random by the rulers of the seven emirates. The initial election had approximately 438 candidates (including 63 women). Voter turnout was high with 70% of those randomly selected to vote ("Federal National Council," *Gulf News*, 2011).

For the historic second FNC election, there were 130,000 Emirati eligible voters randomly selected by rulers of the seven emirates. This is approximately one third of the 430,000 citizens over the voting age of 21. Approximately 46% of the eligible voters were women. The 2011 election drew 468 candidates, including 85 females. The actual voting process was powered by advanced e-voting machines in which citizens inserted their

national Emirates ID card and candidates' pictures and numbers were shown so that voters could either vote by name or number. Voters then unplugged their ID card from the e-reader, took the printed ballot from the machine and placed it in the ballot box.

Remarks now focus on campaign regulations, political advertising, ad spend, election turnout, and insights. The 2011 FNC election regulations allowed 17 days of campaigning. Candidates were required to declare their source of funding. Spending by candidates totaled 54,725,062 dhiraams or US\$14.6 million dollars. A spending cap of two million dhiraams per candidate was set, which translates into approximately US\$ 543,500. The campaign's highest spending candidate spent US \$429,000, while the lowest amount reported was US \$275. The National Electoral Commission oversaw the campaign with committees established in each of the emirates (Salem, 2012a).

Candidates were restricted from using official state symbols in their advertising. In devising the campaign regulations, the National Election Commission sought to ensure that the campaigns did not disturb the civil and particular image of UAE cities or disturb residents. Candidates could announce their campaign agendas during the campaign period based on the code of conduct that prohibited campaigning on religious, sectarian or tribal lines (Salama, 2011). Advertising predominately appeared in Arabic language newspapers, radio and posters. Several candidates used various forms of social media to gain young voters. However, the overall voter turnout was disappointing with an overall 28% turnout (Salem, 2012b). An editorial in *The National*, March 7, 2012, stated "Last year's Federal National Council elections were certainly well advertised . . . Unfortunately, it seems that much of that advertising was at best targeting the wrong audience, and at worst wasted." Dr. Anwar Gargash, Minister of State for FNC Affairs, stated, . . . "we are on the right track and we should keep continuing this dynamic process and developing it" (Salem and Hassan, 2011). The 2011 FNC election was an evolution. New insights were gained both in terms of increasing citizen engagement and effective message creation by FNC candidates.

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USE AND EVALUATION OF ONLINE ADVERTISING SOURCES VS. NON-ADVERTISING SOURCES FOR PRESCRIPTION DRUG INFORMATION: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN KOREAN AND WHITE AMERICANS

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Abstract

In this paper, we report a comparative study on the use and evaluation of online prescription drug information sources between Korean Americans, a relatively recent U.S. immigrant group, and White Americans, the U.S. population majority. Specifically, the study was conducted to compare how the two sub-cultural groups evaluate and use two types of online prescription drug information sources: (1) advertising sources (i.e., Internet DTC ads and DTC brand websites) and (2) non-advertising sources (i.e., health information websites and online communities/social networking sites).

A mail survey was conducted with a disproportionate stratified sample of 600 adults (300 general population and 300 Korean Americans) who have ever taken or are currently taking prescription drugs regularly and reside in a metropolitan area in the Midwestern United States.

Both Whites and Korean Americans were found to evaluate online non-advertising sources of prescription drug information significantly more positively than online advertising sources. There was no significant difference in the evaluation of online ad sources and non-ad sources between the two groups. When it comes to actual use of the two online sources, 16.2% of the respondents reported using online ad sources for prescription drug information search whereas 24.3% used online non-ad sources. Whites used more online ad sources than Korean Americans, but both groups were equally likely to use online non-ad sources for prescription drug information.

Whites who perceived higher ease in finding prescription drug information were likely to exhibit more positive online ad source evaluations. Younger Whites who perceived higher prescription drug information importance were likely to have more positive online non-ad source evaluations. Korean Americans' evaluations of both online source types were rather uniform and unassociated with any consumer characteristics.

Analysis predicting online ad source use identified two significant predictors for Korean Americans, but none for Whites. Koreans with lower information importance and higher ease of finding information were more likely to use online ad sources. Both Whites and Korean Americans' use of online non-ad sources were significantly and positively associated with education.

The finding that online non-ad source evaluation is significantly more positive than online ad source evaluation regardless of sub-group differences, offers evidence for the proposition that even within the same medium (i.e., Internet) advertising and non-advertising sources are perceived differently. This finding indicates not all prescription drug information sources are evaluated equally, even within the same medium.

Contrary to expectation, actual use of the two online advertising sources was not significantly different. This finding may be due to the small statistical power in our dataset. Or, the finding may reflect the reality that differential source evaluation might not translate directly to differential use of the sources. Future research should reexamine actual use using a larger sample and different measures of source use.

Key demographic variables identified by previous studies to be significant predictors of online source use for drug information search were not predictive in our study. Rather, perceived importance of prescription drug information and perceived ease in finding information were found to be significant predictors, but only for Whites. These findings indicate: (1) influencing factors of evaluation of different online sources for prescription drug information search likely differ by consumer sub-groups and source types and (2) demographic factors may not function as a direct influence on source evaluation and use, but instead may operate indirectly through other predispositional and situational factors. Particularly interesting are our findings that while Korean Americans' evaluation of online sources was rather uniform, their use of online ad and non-ad sources was significantly

influenced by perceptions of information importance and ease in finding information. Also noteworthy is that education was the only significant predictor of online non-ad source use for both groups, which seems to indicate a digital divide along educational level.

This study's findings of online prescription drug information search differences among Korean Americans compared to Whites, and between the two source types, advance knowledge on consumer evaluation and use of online DTCA sources of prescription drug information. The findings also enhance understanding of online health information-seeking behaviors among racial/ethnic minorities in the specific context of prescription drugs. We found similarities in perceptions and use of online ad and non-ad sources between the two sub-cultural groups, as well as differences. Regardless of the possible cultural value differences, both Korean and White Americans appear to value online non-ad sources as more useful than online ad sources, and their evaluations do not seem to vary. In addition, while use of online non-ad sources was not different between the two groups, Whites were more likely to use online ad sources.

Our findings suggesting racial/ethnic group perception and use differences for online advertising sources have two key implications for the targeting of diverse racial/ethnic segments. For pharmaceutical marketers, the findings indicate: (1) the importance of continued use of the Internet to disseminate prescription drug information to both Korean and White Americans and (2) the importance of careful scrutiny of racial/ethnic group differences in evaluation and use of advertising source types in both online and offline environments, recognizing that differences exist within each medium (e.g., Internet).

Because research on online advertising and non-advertising sources of prescription drug information among different racial/ethnic groups is limited, additional investigations are needed. Deserving pursuit are studies that: (1) test factors (e.g., message content, format, style) that may influence online source evaluation and use, (2) more closely examine and compare different online information forms (e.g., websites, banner ads, chat rooms, articles in electronic newspapers, etc.), (3) investigate other consumer factors and predispositions (e.g., motivations, technological sophistication), (4) explore the chronology of online source use (e.g., which online sources are turned to first?), and (5) track evaluation and use of online sources over time and possible associations with changes in attitudes toward the Internet and DTCA. More research is also needed on the criteria (e.g., comprehensibility, credibility) that consumers use to evaluate and select different online sources at various stages of the prescription drug information search process.

Understanding online information search behaviors for prescription drugs is important for pharmaceutical marketers, policy officials, and health communication researchers. Our findings provide insight into the suitability of online prescription drug information dissemination strategies for two ethnic sub-cultural segments and provide a foundation for future investigations.

REFINING THE INFORMATIONAL SCALE FOR OVER-THE-COUNTER (OTC) DRUG COMMERCIALS

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Abstract

With over 100,000 types of medications that are easily available and presumably safe to consume (Lamiraud, Von Bremen, and Donaldson 2009), over-the-counter (OTC) drugs are increasingly becoming the popular go-to medication for millions of consumers in America (Hong, Spadaro, West, & Tak, 2005). However, legislators and health authorities expressed concerns with the state of misinformation with regards to OTC drug consumption (Ferner & Beard, 2008; Gough, 2003). Although studies have provided evidence for the wanting state of educational information on OTC drugs and information (Ajuoga, Sansgiry, Ngo, & Yeh, 2008; Casner & Neville, 2010; Crentsil, Ricks, Xue, & Fried, 2010), studies promoting a better understanding of the informational content in OTC drugs for consumers is still lacking.

The present study aims to fill this gap in research by refining the informational scale developed by Zheng and Phelps (2008) in categorizing the pertinent information characteristics in OTC drug commercials.

Informational scale for OTC drug commercials

Possibly the most comprehensive scale in classifying the pertinent informational characteristics in OTC commercials was compiled by Zheng and Phelps (2008). By integrating the various coding frameworks utilized in prior studies (see Höög, 1995; Rallapalli & Smith, 1994; Resnik & Stern, 1977; Tsao, 1997), Zheng and Phelps (2008) developed a comprehensive list of the different informational characteristics prevalent in OTC drug commercials. The integrated information scale consisted of 19 educational cues - *symptoms, side effects, drug interaction, drug form, medical rationale, safety, duration of treatment, duration of effect, who should not use the drug, who should use the drug, type of drug, product ingredients/substance, use-as-directed, dosage frequency, dosage size, warning signs, indication, frequency of the indication, and doctor consultation*. The scale includes 19 promotional cues - *monetary incentives, superiority claim, comparative claim, quality, quick-acting, therapeutic results, flavors, taste, availability/place of purchase, user's satisfaction/loyalty, convenience in use, packaging, other sensory information, improved/new product features, improved/new packaging features, non-product consumer endorser, real "typical consumer" endorser, real healthcare professional endorser, and product sales*.

The scale was tested as a coding scheme in a content analysis of 79 distinct TV commercials of a product-specific OTC drug and the analysis found an average of 34 different informational cues shown per OTC drug commercial. Of these cues, 36.43% was educational and 58.89% was promotional. The findings provided a clearer picture of the state of televised OTC drug commercials, which unfortunately suggested that consumers were not well informed through OTC drug commercials for making careful and educated decisions when purchasing OTC products.

Although the studies above had provided useful categories and tools for analyzing the various types of informational content in OTC commercials, the validity and reliability of these informational frameworks have yet to be tested. This crucial step, by providing a clearer and more accurate tool to help identify the different informational content in OTC drug commercials, may possibly help invigorate research in this area and bridge the gap between practice and research relating to OTC advertisements. To achieve such a goal, the present study seeks to obtain inputs from experts in healthcare, advertising, as well as health communication in order to refine the OTC scale developed by Zheng and Phelps (2008).

The research questions are - 1) what are the inter-expert agreements on the grouping of the different items into the two categories - *educational* and *promotional*? and 2) what do experts and scholars in healthcare, advertising, and marketing think of the clarity and accuracy of the description of the various informational items in the OTC scale?

Method

Informed by prior studies in healthcare and pharmacy which had combined expert insights with the methodological rigor of interviews and surveys in developing reliable scale measurements (Charnock, Shepperd, Needham, & Gann, 1999; DISCERN, 1998; McBride, Pates, Ramadan, & McGowan, 2003), a two-step process of in-depth interviews followed by survey questionnaires involving experts aimed to be carried out. The present paper presents the first part of this process involving in-depth expert interviews.

Face-to-face interviews with seventeen experts from the fields of advertising and marketing with interests in pharmaceuticals and health communication, as well as experts in the healthcare field were carried out. Respondents were first asked to place the different informational items into the two categories, educational or promotional, in order to assess inter-rater agreement reliability. Secondly, respondents were asked about their thoughts on the distinctness in the descriptions of the different items and whether they accurately reflect the information as seen in OTC commercials. The interviews also elicited any other informational items which respondents felt should be included in the scale.

Results

Findings from the interviews resulted in refinements of the description, condensation, and re-categorization of some items in the original scale. Inter-expert agreement showed that the 38 informational items identified in the OTC scale developed by Zheng and Phelps (2008) fit reliably into categories, *educational* and *promotional*. A qualitative analysis of expert comments was done to further refine the description and categorization of the different items. A refined OTC scale consisting of 19 educational cues and 16 promotional cues was presented.

Items which were condensed include *comparative claim* and *superiority claim* reduced to one item *product comparisons*, and items *non-product consumer endorser*, *real “typical consumer” endorser*, and *real health care professional endorser* collapsed into one item ‘*product endorsers*’. Improvements of the description of items include the omission of examples initially used such as “*available at a pharmacy*” for availability/place of purchase, and “*about 20% of kids experience such allergy in spring*” for duration of effect. Items *drug form* and *therapeutic results* were re-classified as promotional and educational cue, respectively.

The current deficient state of OTC drug advertisements (Wolfe, 2002) indicates the need for educational information to be integrated into the main content of OTC drug commercials in a more objective, straightforward and realistic manner that benefits both consumers and marketers. The improved OTC drug commercial scale presented here seeks to provide an impetus for invigorating future efforts to enhance OTC advertising. For example, the enhanced clarity and accuracy in the descriptions of the different informational cues may prove useful to both advertising researchers and professionals when they analyze the distribution of educational and promotional content in OTC drug commercial. With a clearer distinction between different informational content, efforts can then be directed to increasing, or at the least balancing the educational value of the commercial with promotional elements in the commercial. Future studies may also utilize the scale to examine the state of OTC advertisements across various media channels, potentially promoting policies dedicated to improving the safety and effectiveness of OTC product consumption for current and future consumers.

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DIRECT-TO-CONSUMER ADVERTISING OF PREDICTIVE GENETIC TESTS: A HEALTH BELIEF MODEL BASED EXAMINATION OF CONSUMER RESPONSE

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Introduction

Recently, just as pharmaceutical companies have with prescription medications, increasing numbers of biotech companies have begun using direct-to-consumer (DTC) promotional strategies for their predictive genetic tests (PGTs), a test of one's DNA profile used to predict the likelihood of having future disease (Tracy 2007, Lachance et al. 2010, McBride, Wade and Kaphingst 2010). This is further evidenced by the 64% increase in the number of companies advertising PGTs between 2003 and 2008 (Hogarth, Javitt and Melzer 2008). Myriad Genetics (www.myriad.com), a molecular diagnostic company, launched the first DTC advertising campaign for a predictive genetic test (PGT) for breast cancer (BRCA I & BRCA II genes) to a broad consumer audience in October 2003 (Tsao 2004) and has continued this strategy, including a recent television heavy campaign in specific markets. Although Myriad's ads resulted in controversy over the appropriateness of PGT advertising, other laboratories quickly followed suit and advertised their tests directly to consumers as well. Except for the Myriad ads appearing in traditional media (television, magazines, and radio), most companies use the internet as their primary channel to reach consumers. Given the increasing use of the internet for health information needs, genetic testing companies have discovered this to be the quickest way to reach the target consumers (Sewak et al. 2005).

Ideally, DTC advertisements for PGTs would educate and make consumers aware of their genetic healthcare options and the associated risks. However, this advertising practice does not come without controversy, as the issue of genetics and health care has spurred continual debate. Proponents of PGTs DTC advertising¹ claim increased awareness of these tests can encourage consumers to consult with physicians or genetic counselors to make well informed decisions about their genetic healthcare needs (Liu and Pearson 2008). Proponents also argue that learning about the tests can help consumers take steps to minimize their disease risks, thereby optimizing their health (Krasner 2003).

In contrast, opponents fear the risks of advertising PGTs outweigh any possible benefits and may create unnecessary demand, especially when most currently available tests lack sufficient evidence establishing the tests' clinical validity or utility (Bloss, Schork and Topol 2011, McBride, Wade and Kaphingst 2010, Kutz 2010, Hunter, Khoury and Drazen 2008, Javitt and Hudson 2006, Krasner 2003, Gollust, Hull and Wilfond 2002). Critics perceive PGT ads to be of limited educational value, especially due to the complexity of genetic information and the fact not everyone will develop the disease(s) (McBride, Wade and Kaphingst 2010, Lachance et al. 2010, Taylor 2004, Lenzer 2007, Javitt and Hudson 2006). Opponents also report negative physician attitudes towards marketing of PGTs, increased financial burden and the potential for insurance discrimination for patients taking a PGT (Bloss et al. 2010, McBride, Wade and Kaphingst 2010, Berg and Fryer-Edwards 2008, Tracy 2007, Vadaparampil et al. 2007, Vadaparampil et al. 2005).

Theoretical Framework

Since its development in the late 1950s, the Health Belief Model (HBM) has been used as a framework to explain and understand various health behaviors. The model predicts health behavioral intentions based on four main components (in addition to demographics and cues to action – e.g. the advertisement) unique to the individual: 1) perceived severity of disease 2) perceived susceptibility to disease 3) perceived barriers and 4) perceived benefits. The HBM conceptualizes that, because of one's personality or demographic characteristics, some individuals perceive greater threat from a disease (a product of their perceived severity of the disease and perceived

susceptibility to contracting the disease) compared to others. This self-perceived threat influences a person's behavioral intentions and then, subsequently, their actual behavior. For example, in order to have a person change an unhealthy behavior, such as smoking, to a healthy one (i.e. not smoking), they must perceive the threats from smoking to be significant enough to cause a behavioral change.

The genetic testing literature suggests those with a long family history represent the best candidates for the test because the results are more relevant and accurate for that population (Berg and Fryer-Edwards 2008, Lacour et al. 2008, Liu and Pearson 2008). Thus, using this background information in addition to the Health Belief Model, theoretically individuals with a family history of the advertised health condition(s) may perceive greater threat than those without a family history of the disease. The greater the perceived threat of the disease, the greater the likelihood an individual should take recommended preventive action. Similarly, the inverse should also be true based on the model in that one without a family history of disease should be less likely to exhibit the recommended preventative behavior.

Therefore, given the increasing potential for the advertising and use of predictive genetic tests and their associated risks, it is important to understand the impact of DTC advertisements of PGTs on consumer behavior. Using the HBM framework, this research sought to investigate consumer behavioral intentions in response to a PGT-DTC ad. This should help marketers and policy makers evaluate the extent of the influence of PGT-DTC ads on general consumers. Past literature has documented expert opinions on the appropriateness of genetic tests and their offering (i.e. ability to purchase without a prescription) directly to consumers (McBride, Wade and Kaphingst 2010, Berg and Fryer-Edwards 2008). However, the only empirical research examining consumer response to DTC advertising of PGTs was conducted based on Myriad's DTC ad campaign described above, which showed a majority of survey participantsⁱⁱ recalled seeing the ads but little action was taken to obtain a test (Lowery et. al 2008, Mouchawar et. al 2005). As a start toward filling this void, this study observationally investigated the impact of PGT-DTC ads on consumers' response and behavioral intentions based on the Health Belief Model constructs. The specific research questions are presented below:

- 1) In response to viewing a PGT-DTC ad, do consumer behavioral intentions to either talk to their physician, search for more information or take the test:
 - a) Increase with increased perceived threat of disease?
 - b) Increase with an increased family history of disease?
 - c) Change based on age, gender, race, income or overall health status?
- 2) In response to viewing a PGT-DTC ad, how do consumer perceptions, behavioral intentions, family history, overall health status and demographics affect a pre-defined behavioral measure?

Methods

A quantitative, observational cross-sectional survey was conducted to evaluate consumer perceptions, intentions and behavior associated with predictive genetic test advertising. Qualtrics online survey software (www.qualtrics.com) and consumer panel, all above 18 years of age, were used to administer the survey. The panel was recruited via Qualtrics with the stipulation of being at least 18 years of age and a relatively equal distribution of ages. Qualtrics maintains their own panel and ensures reliable data. Respondents are incentivized via a rewards points system for each survey completed, which can then in turn be redeemed for retail gift cards, etc.

A fictitious genetic test (RTF®) for multiple health conditions (Alzheimer's disease, rheumatoid arthritis, colon, lung and pancreatic cancer) was chosen for this study to ensure sufficient respondents with a family history of disease. Further, these conditions have genetic tests currently available in the marketplace. Given the lack of guidelines for PGT DTC ads, the ad stimulus (**Appendix I**) mirrored existing PGT print ads in the marketplace and was based off Myriad's BRCA PGT print advertisement. The subjects were asked three introductory demographic questions and then viewed the ad stimulus. Next, subjects were given a description of the research, examples of how to complete the survey and then responded to the pre-tested, self-administered questionnaire. Further, during the questionnaire, respondent were allowed to click a link to view the ad again with each question.

The operational definitions of the variables examined in this study include:

Perceived susceptibility (Psu): the consumer's perceived risk of inheriting a disease. Measured using a three-item, seven-point semantic differential scale (1 = "Low" 7 = "High") adapted from Everett's perceived risk scale and Manne's perceived susceptibility scale (Manne et al. 2003, Everett 1989) asking respondents to rate 1 –

their risk of developing the disease, 2 – their fear level of developing and 3 – the likelihood of developing the disease.

Perceived severity (Pse): the consumer's perception of the impact of inheriting the disease. Measured using a three-item, seven-point semantic differential scale (1 = Low and 7 = High) adapted from Everett's perceived risk scale and Manne's perceived susceptibility scale (Manne et al. 2003, Everett 1989) asking respondents to rate 1 – how severely developing the disease would disrupt their physical health, 2 – how severely developing the disease would disrupt their emotional health and 3 – how dangerous the disease would be if contracted. Both perceived severity and perceived susceptibility were individually measured for the previously identified health conditions.

Perceived threat (PT): measured as a product of perceived susceptibility of disease (Pse) and perceived severity of disease (Pse).

Test Inquiry Intent (TII): the likelihood the consumer will inquire about the advertised test during their next physician visit.

Information Search Intent (ISI): the likelihood the consumer will seek more information about the advertised test during the next week.

Intention to take the test (ITT): the likelihood the consumer will take the advertised test within the next three months.

The preceding three behavioral intention constructs (*TII*, *ISI* and *ITT*) were measured using a three-item, seven-point semantic differential scale (e.g., 1 = "Unlikely," 7 = "Likely") adapted to the specific construct from the scale developed by Mackenzie, Lutz and Belch (1986) (**Appendix II**). Information Search Intent (*ISI*) and a composite mean of the three intention measures (*TII*, *ISI* & *ITT*) were also subdivided into those respondents with high (mean > four on the 7-point scale) and low behavioral intentions for chi-square tabulation analysis purposes.

Family History (FH): consumer was classified as having a family history of the disease if any of the individual's first or second line relatives have or had any of the advertised health conditions. Family history was assessed with a three choice single item measure for each of the diseases (1 = Yes, 2 = No and 3 = Don't Know)

Health Status (HS): Health status was defined as the patient's perception of their current overall health status. A one- item, seven- point semantic differential scale (1 = "Bad," 7 = "Good") measured the consumer's self-perceived overall health status.

Information Search Behavior (ISB): the respondents' actual search for information by clicking on a provided link at the end of the survey. It was assessed with a one-item, dichotomous choice option (yes/no) coded as 1 = "look for more information now" and 2 = "do not look for more information now". This single item ISB measurement has been used in prior DTC research and demonstrated equivalence to multiple item measures (Bergkvist and Rossiter 2007, Rollins 2010).

SAS Version 9.1 was used for data analysis. Descriptive statistics, regression and chi-square techniques were used to assess the research objectives. A minimum sample size of 160 was determined with power set at 0.8, an a priori alpha level of 0.05 and, based on lack of previous research examining this phenomenon, a medium effect size ($f = 0.10$) (Cohen 1988).

Results

Four hundred and ten surveys were completed within 24 hours of deployment to 680 possible respondents identified by Qualtrics and included in the analyses (response rate = $410/680 = 60.3\%$). Only 11.2 % of the respondents had ever seen an advertisement for a predictive genetic test. The majority of respondents were female (64.9%) and Caucasian (76.3%), while 42% of participants had completed at least a four year college degree. Comparison with the US census data (2000) showed the age, race and income breakdown of the participants were representative of the US population. However, the current study participants' education level was higher than the general US population. (US Census Bureau 2000 = 24%; respondent group = 42%). Further, the various scale reliabilities (coefficient alpha) ranged from 0.76 (perceived severity) to 0.93 (intent to look for information).

Perceived Threat & Behavioral Intentions

Consumers had moderate overall levels of perceived threat from the aforementioned disease states. Means (a product of perceived susceptibility and perceived threat with a range of one to 49 with a midpoint of 16) for the various disease states ranged from perceived threat of arthritis ($M = 17.3 \pm 0.50$) to that of colon cancer ($M = 20.78 \pm 0.52$).

The response frequencies of the three consumer behavioral intentions (TII, ISI and ITT) measures are listed in Table 1. The responses for the three question scales were averaged together to obtain a composite/overall behavioral intention mean for the specific question set. Of the 410 respondents, 235 (57%, $M > 4.0$) exhibited test inquiry intent (TII), defined as a composite mean response greater than the scale's neutral value (95% CI = 52.84 - 61.16, $M = 4.64 \pm 1.70$). Fifty percent (204 of 410, $M > 4.0$) of respondents were interested in seeking more information (ISI) about the advertised genetic test (95% CI = 45.15 - 54.85, $M = 4.32 \pm 1.86$). However, only 132 consumers (32%, $M > 4.0$) exhibited intentions to take the test (95% CI = 27.48 - 36.52, $M = 3.57 \pm 1.86$).

Examining research question one, prediction of consumer behavioral intentions, **test inquiry intent** (TII) was significantly predicted by perceived threat ($p < 0.019$), gender ($p < 0.006$) and race ($p < 0.002$). Information search intent (ISI) was only significantly predicted by consumers' perceived threat of disease ($p < 0.002$), while intentions to take the test (ITT) were significantly predicted by overall health status ($p < 0.03$) and gender ($p < 0.001$). Further correlation examination showed overall perceived threat and overall behavioral intentions significantly (at the 0.01 level) positively correlated (Pearson correlation = 0.263), while overall health status was significantly (at the 0.01 level) negatively correlated to overall perceived threat. In all other cases, the above-mentioned variables, including age and income levels, were non-significant predictors or not correlated to consumer behavioral intentions.

Behavior Measure

Next, for the behavior measure, 55 of 410 (13.4%) respondents performed the pre-defined information search behavior (95% CI = 5.0 - 21.8). This behavioral measure was then further analyzed based on respondent's demographic, family history, overall health status, perceived threat and behavioral intention measures.

In terms of the behavioral intention measures, information search intent (ISI) and a composite mean of the three behavioral intention measures (TII, ISI and ITT) was computed and respondents subdivided into high and low behavioral intentions based on the scale's neutral value. These two groups were then individually compared to the behavior measure using a 2 x 2 cross-tabulation and chi-square analysis. In both cases (ISI and composite mean), those with higher behavioral intentions performed the behavior significantly greater (ISI chi-square = 20.53, $p < 0.001$ and Overall Behavioral Intention chi-square = 11.24, $p = 0.001$). Cross tabulations are presented in Tables 2 (ISI) and 3 (Overall Behavior Intentions).

Secondly, perceived threat, subdivided into high and low based on mean values, significantly changed the pre-defined behavior measure (chi-square = 4.010, $p = 0.045$) in that those with higher perceptions of the threat of disease performed the information search behavior significantly greater. In terms of the other studied variables (family history, overall health status, age, gender, race and income), only Race had a significant influence on the pre-defined behavior measure. For Race, the comparison was made between whites (76.3% of respondents) and non-whites, with whites performing the behavior measure significantly greater (chi-square = 13.33, $p < 0.001$).

Discussion

Following the previously described Health Belief Model (HBM), this research suggests a direct relationship between a predictive genetic test advertisement exposure and consumer intentions and behavior. Consumers were exposed to the PGT ad and then developed behavioral intentions and exhibited measurable behavior related to the advertisement. This simplistic result is significant considering a majority of consumers in the study were seeing an advertisement for a PGT for the first time (11.2%). Though these advertisements are relatively new, consumers were able to process and react to these ads. The consistent exposure to prescription DTC ads over the last few decades is one possible explanation for this effect with another being the sample's average education greater than the general population.

In examining the individual HBM constructs (Perceived Threat as a product of Perceived Severity and Perceived Susceptibility in addition to Demographics); consumers who perceived a greater threat from the advertised disease(s) followed HBM theory by exhibiting greater overall behavioral intentions to talk to their doctor and search for more information about the test. However, it did not affect consumers' intentions to take the test. Unlike medications, genetic tests cannot cure the disease. These results suggest that while consumers may not have seen a direct benefit to taking the test, they at least perceived enough threat to search for more information about the test as well as speak to their physician at their next office visit.

Also, consumers who did not have a family history of the advertised health conditions were equally interested in talking to their physicians, searching for more information and taking the test. Further, the advertisement clearly indicated the test was only for those with a family history of disease. This deviated from expectations and could be potentially problematic given genetic tests are targeted for those who have a family history of disease.

If PGTs and PGT-DTC follow the exponential growth path of prescription medications, it may be argued consumers will increasingly seek information from their doctors to help them decide whether the test is appropriate for them. However, studies show physicians have little formal education in genetics and are less confident about discussing genetic tests with their patients (Freedman et al. 2003, Acton et al. 2000). The current study demonstrated consumers might expect physicians to inform and guide them on issues related to PGTs. Hence, to meet this responsibility adequately, medical practitioners (and/or medical associations, patient advocacy groups, etc.) should evaluate the development of guidelines to recommend or help patients reach an informed decision. It is also essential for medical education to evaluate the incorporation of genetics as a part of physicians' formal education and, thus, ultimately their practice. This could increase physicians' confidence in evaluating the validity of these tests and discuss the benefits and risks of PGTs with their patients.

For the pre-defined behavior measure, even though respondents had positive intentions to seek more information regarding the PGT, only a small percentage (13.4%) actually performed the information search behavior. One possible explanation is the newness (only 11.2% of the sample had previously viewed a PGT DTC ad) and nature of predictive genetic testing. Another is the limited time frame between the behavioral intention questions and the pre-defined behavior measure within the single setting of the survey. Respondents were not given extra time to decide if they wanted to access the information (e.g., a week later). As these tests are not currently commonplace within the healthcare industry, consumers may not see these tests as anything they should spend their personal time researching, but possibly leave the discussion to their next physician visit. However, as noted above, those with high behavioral intentions performed the information search behavior significantly more. While these results are consistent with behavioral theory, they may also imply that it will take some time for consumers to begin to embrace DTC for PGTs.

This study was limited by use of a forced exposure to the ad stimulus. Hence, the ecological validity of the study findings should be interpreted in light of the fact that experimental settings deviated from natural ad exposure and could have influenced consumers to respond differently than usual. Further, the price variable or level of insurance coverage was not a part of this observational examination. Perceived benefits and perceived barriers were not evaluated given most tests do not require a prescription and there is great debate as to whether or not these tests provide any benefit. In addition, the current sample had an education level much higher than the general consumer and the number of ad views was not included due to budgetary constraints. Although we measured consumer information seeking behavior, this measurement was made just based on one binary response question within a limited time frame. In the future, researchers could direct consumers to websites that provide more information about PGTs and use more advanced tracking methods to provide increased validity to conclusions about behavior. More research is also needed to uncover the specific information that consumers would like to see in the ads to make informed decisions. A promising line of research may be to understand what information consumers seek in advertisements of genetic tests and individual characteristics or factors that influence them to search for more information.

Conclusion

Consumers reported moderate intentions to talk with their doctor and seek more information about PGTs after DTC advertisement exposure. At this point in the evolution of PGTs, consumers did not seem ready to engage in active information search. However, those with greater behavioral intentions performed the pre-defined behavior significantly more. As per the Health Belief Model, those who perceived greater threat from the disease had significant greater behavioral intentions and performed the pre-defined behavior significantly more.

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Table 1 – Consumer Intentions – Descriptive Results

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Composite Mean
Test Inquiry Intent								4.64 ± 1.70
A – Unlikely....Likely	51	42	26	83	70	57	81	
B – Improbable....Probable	40	38	31	76	76	63	86	
C – Impossible....Possible	16	19	27	103	82	72	91	
Information Search Intent								4.32 ± 1.86
A – Unlikely....Likely	77	40	34	65	64	53	77	
B – Improbable....Probable	60	42	33	87	55	63	70	
C – Impossible....Possible	30	30	31	111	69	61	78	
Intention to Take the Test								3.57 ± 1.86
A – Unlikely....Likely	128	51	32	77	46	32	44	
B – Improbable....Probable	106	47	46	82	48	35	46	
C – Impossible....Possible	63	39	47	116	66	34	45	

**Table 2 – Cross-Tabulations
Information Search Intent (ISI) vs. Behavior**

		Behavior		
		Yes	No	Total
ISI	Low	12	194	206
	High	43	161	204
	Total	55	355	410

- Pearson Chi-Square = 20.53, p < 0.001

**Table 3 – Cross-Tabulations
Overall Behavioral Intentions vs. Behavior**

		<u>Behavior</u>		
		Yes	No	Total
<u>Overall Behavioral Intentions</u>	Low	15	182	197
	High	40	171	211
	Total	55	353	408

- Pearson Chi-Square = 11.24, p = 0.001

Appendix I



“ RTF[®] test helped us live with more confidence and less fear ”

Are You Ready To Fight Disease Before It Starts?

If any of your family members have had:

- Alzheimer's Disease
- Rheumatoid Arthritis
- Cancer (Breast Cancer, Colon Cancer, Lung Cancer, Pancreatic Cancer)

then you may be at increased risk too.

*Medical science has shown that we inherit many diseases from our ancestors. If someone in your family has been diagnosed with one of the above hereditary medical conditions, you too may be at increased risk. **Early detection, along with proactive medical care, is proven to help reduce risk and save lives.***

*Ask your doctor about RTF[®] genetic testing because understanding your risk is the first step to reducing it. RTF[®] analysis - a test that uses a simple painless cotton swab from your cheek - can help you understand your personal risk for developing any of these serious medical conditions. **Proper risk assessment, along with a discussion of testing and medical options, is your chance to begin fighting a serious disease before it starts.** After RTF[®] analysis, you and your doctor can discuss effective choices and steps you can take to ensure your own health.*

Are You Ready To Fight Disease Before It Starts?

Talk to your doctor or call today for a free educational brochure.

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Appendix II – Individual Questionnaire Items

1. Test Inquiry Intent: Based on your assessment of the RTF[®] test, please indicate your opinion by clicking the appropriate box that best describes how likely you are to talk to your doctor about RTF[®] genetic test during your next office visit.

1 – Likely to 7 – Unlikely

1 – Improbable to 7 – Probable

1 – Possible to 7 – Impossible

2. Information Search Intent: Based on your assessment of the RTF® test, please indicate your opinion by clicking the appropriate box that best describes how likely you are to look for more information about RTF® genetic test within the next couple of weeks.

1 – Likely to 7 – Unlikely

1 – Improbable to 7 – Probable

1 – Possible to 7 – Impossible

3. Intention to Take the Test: Based on your assessment of the RTF® test, please indicate your opinion by clicking the appropriate box that best describes how likely you are to take the RTF® genetic test within the next 3 months.

1 – Likely to 7 – Unlikely

1 – Improbable to 7 – Probable

1 – Possible to 7 – Impossible

ⁱ In the predictive genetic test (PGT) market, most do not require a prescription. Therefore, in addition to the advertising of these products directly to consumers, these products are also for purchase directly by consumers since they do not require a prescription. For the purposes of this research, the focus is placed on those PGTs advertised directly-to-consumers as opposed to PGTs direct-to-consumer availability.

ⁱⁱ Only females were surveyed in this research given they were the target market of the ad campaign.

DIRECT-TO-CONSUMER (DTC) ANTIDEPRESSANT ADVERTISING AND CONSUMER MISPERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE CHEMICAL IMBALANCE THEORY OF DEPRESSION: THE MODERATING ROLE OF SKEPTICISM

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Abstract

Although exposure to direct-to-consumer (DTC) prescription drug advertising is reported to influence the public's beliefs about diseases, no research has investigated how DTC advertising may affect consumer misperceptions about health issues.

Based on a survey with members of an online consumer panel ($N = 699$), the current study revealed that: (a) a substantial percentage of consumers held misperceptions about the chemical imbalance theory of depression (b) overall, exposure to DTC antidepressant advertising was not significantly associated with consumer misperceptions; and (c) DTC exposure acted to magnify misperceptions when consumers were highly trustful of DTC advertising. When consumers were highly skeptical, DTC exposure tended to dilute such misbeliefs.

Theoretical and practical implications of the research are discussed, especially in light of the social responsibility of DTC advertising and the importance of enhancing consumer health literacy.

GET REAL: HOW CURRENT BEHAVIOR INFLUENCES PERCEPTIONS OF REALISM AND BEHAVIORAL INTENT FOR PUBLIC SERVICE ANNOUNCEMENTS

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Abstract

This research tested the effectiveness of public service announcements designed to help parents with meal planning. Findings from in-depth interviews revealed that the perceived realism in the message influenced message interpretation. Results of an online survey with mothers show that realism matters more for those individuals who already engage in the featured behavior. In line with theory on information processing and consumer knowledge, “experts” (meal-planners) show increased behavioral intent of the featured behaviors when viewing the more realistic PSA. As expected, planners’ cognitive evaluation of the PSA is positively related to behavioral intent, whereas non-planners’ affective evaluation is positively related to intent.

ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BRAND ADVERTISING AND MOST LOVED BRANDS BY CHILDREN

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Extended Abstract

Even though advertising targets adults and stimulates purchases, many fortuitous consequences arise and are highly controversial when they concern children and adolescents. Childhood obesity in the United States is an escalating public health issue, and the role of advertising as a contributor and influencer is of particular interest to researchers, public policy makers, and public health advocates. The prevalence of overweight children and adolescents in the U.S. has more than doubled in the last thirty years. Due to children's inexperience with persuasive methods, young children experience difficulty when interpreting and understanding advertisements.

The Federal Trade Commission report (FTC) report highlighted that the 44 reporting companies annually spent more than \$1.6 billion on food and beverages promotion for children and adolescents in the U.S. They spent 54% of their total expenditure on food marketing directed toward children under 12 and over \$1 billion to adolescents, ages 12 to 17, with about \$300 million of these expenditures addressed to both age groups. Because of growing concerns regarding the effects of food and beverage advertising on children and parents, the aim of this research is to examine the relationship between advertising expenditures and children/mother perceptions of popular brands in the U.S. to provide an important contribution to this controversial issue. Also, since previous research has shown differences in the amount of time that minority children spend with media, that minority children are a common intended target audience for advertising by food and beverage companies, and that obesity levels have generally increased more steeply among minority children compared to Whites, this research also analyzes advertising expenditures on media platforms and devices targeted toward minority populations.

The analysis focuses on the correlation between advertising expenditures and the most popular food and beverage brands of children and mothers to determine the importance that advertising might have on how children and mothers rank the brands in terms of what we might call "likeability." A marketing research firm, Smarty Pants, conducts an annual online survey of brand "likeability" by children and mothers, which includes all brands, not just food and beverage brands. For this research we analyzed the results of the Smarty Pants survey for 2009 and 2010. The survey polled a representative sample of 4,500 U.S. families with children ages 6 to 12. The study evaluated more than 270 consumer brands in 20 categories, resulting in the "Top 100 Kids' Most Loved Brands" list. In addition to these "most loved" brands, we also purchased annual advertising expenditure data for these brands from a commercial source, Kantar Media. The advertising expenditures were spent on various media such as spot TV, network TV, Spanish Language Network TV, cable TV, syndicated media, national radio, Internet, business-to-business media, newspapers, magazines, and Sunday magazines. To reduce error in the analysis, three categories of media expenditures were created from these 11 media—Electronic advertising, magazine advertising, and other print advertising.

The statistical analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between advertising expenditures and perception of popular brands by children in the U.S. This research found that magazine advertising exhibited a positive and significant relationship with brand affinity scores to kids while other advertising, such as electronic advertising and other print advertising, had either a negative or insignificant relationship with brand affinity scores. This research also examined the correlation between exposure times through product/brand placement and brand affinity scores, and the results were very similar to advertising expenditure analysis. Product placement did not present any positive and significant relationship with brand affinity scores of kids.

After the statistical analysis was completed, this research also analyzed the data from a more qualitative perspective, focusing on just the top ranked brands. This additional analysis highlighted that the

higher ranked “most loved” brands generally have greater advertising expenditures, e.g., brands such as McDonald’s and M&Ms. Also, those brands budgeted more for media to reach Hispanic and African American markets than other brands over the time period, 2009 and 2010.

This research has been conducted to investigate the degree to which food and beverage brands “most loved” by kids are correlated with advertising expenditures for those brands. However, this study only examined advertising expenditure levels and exposure time of product placement. This analysis did not consider creative appeals or consumer psychological variables, even though those factors play a critical role by interacting with expenditure levels to result in “effective” advertising that can be highly influential in creating brand preference by kids. Furthermore, the Kantar advertising media expenditure data used in this analysis does not take into consideration expenditures targeted toward children, such as the specific expenditures reported in the FTC report. It includes all media expenditures for the specified brands, regardless of whether or not it was in adult or children oriented media. Also, it is important to note that the relationships observed in this research are correlational, not necessarily causal. Further research is needed to provide a more in depth understanding of the relationship of advertising/promotion to the formation of youths’ attitudes and perceptions of preferred brands. For example, using children exposure data, instead of media expenditure data, for each “most loved” brand might be a next step in advancing our understanding of this relationship.

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RESPONSES TO GRAPHIC SEXUAL APPEALS IN ADVERTISING: EXAMINING THE INTEACTION OF SEXUL SELF SCHEMA AND GENDER

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Abstract

The current research manipulated four levels of female-nudity in fragrance ads while assessing the impact of respondents' gender and Sexual Self-Schema (SSS) on several important variables. Findings indicate that, as nudity increased, male respondents overall experienced higher levels of arousal and pleasure toward the ads, judged them as more ethical, and experienced more positive attitude toward the ad than female respondents. Furthermore, high-SSS respondents exhibited similar tendencies compared to low-SSS respondents within each gender. These interaction effects show that not only gender but SSS also plays an important role in emotional and evaluative responses to graphic sexual appeals in advertising.

READ RESPONSIBLY: THE PROCESSING OF WARNING MESSAGES BY YOUNG ADULTS IN DIFFERING MESSAGE CONDITIONS

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Abstract

This study investigates the impact of warning labels in various conditions. Two experiments, via a two-way mixed-repeated design, were conducted and found that warning labels perform differently based on message formats (advertisements vs. public service announcements, PSAs), message mood structures (positive vs. negative) and product categories (drinking, smoking, and texting). The overall findings suggest that warning labels were more memorable in the ad format; however, warnings placed in PSAs, particularly in negative mood-inducing PSAs, were more favorably evaluated than those in ads. Interestingly, warning labels are not associated with intention of behavioral changes. Interaction effects were also examined.

SPECIAL TOPICS SESSION: A CREATIVE BRIEF THAT BREATHES: SEPARATING THE LIVING FROM THE DEAD

*Moderator: Glenn Griffin, The University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL
Isabelle Albanese, Consumer Truth, Ltd., Chicago, IL
Regina Lewis, The University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL
Jim Mountjoy, Loeffler Ketchum Mountjoy, Charlotte, NC*

Abstract

Although most academics understand the function of a creative brief within the process of developing advertising, many different formats exist and it can be hard to determine which types of content a good brief should include. As the inspirational platform for creative teams, the brief is crucial for yielding good work. For faculty who teach both research and creative courses, teaching students how to use the right research strategies to collect data that will be most valuable to the creative process is vital. This session detailed how to produce creative briefs that can breathe life into any brand or product and offer case studies that illustrate how important it is to get the brief right.

Techniques for development of best-in-class creative briefs were presented from client, research and creative team perspectives. Central to the panel discussion was defining the term “insight” and distinguishing it from information as content in the brief. Case studies showed how a well-conceived brief unearthed compelling truths and transformed brands.

MEASURING THE ADVERTISING EFFICIENCY OF THE TOP U.S. SPORTS ADVERTISERS

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Abstract

This study uses Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) to analyze the advertising efficiency of 26 companies featured on the *Sports Business Journal's* list of the top 50 sports advertisers from 2009. The input variables included sports media spending and non-sports media spending, as well as the total amount of money each company spent in each of the following media: magazines, national spot radio, network television, cable television, and spot television. The output variables were gross profits and brand value. The results showed that half of all the analyzed companies were operating inefficiently, and they needed to reduce advertising expenditures by an average of 20% while maintaining their current levels of outputs, in order to become efficient. The researchers also include a call for further research in this area.

SKATING ON THIN ICE: HOW NEGATIVE SPORT INCIDENTS AFFECT SPONSOR IMAGE

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Marjolein Moorman, University of Amsterdam, the Netherlands
Edith Smit, University of Amsterdam, the Netherlands

Abstract

Understanding the publicity risks of investing in sport is important, as many circumstances in sport remain outside the scope of an advertiser's control. This study uses five real-life cases of negative sport sponsorship publicity to investigate whether and how negative incidents concerning sport teams impact the image of their sponsors. Based on Associative Network Theory, the authors propose and empirically test a model of negative brand image transfer, and subsequently test for how several factors affect negative brand image transfer (NBIT). Results show that the associations stemming from a negative incident spill over to the sports object's image and are subsequently transferred to the sponsor's brand image. As such, the occurrence of NBIT is demonstrated. The present study also shows that NBIT is stronger at higher levels of perceived fit between the sports object and the sponsoring brand. When consumers perceive the object and the brand as a good fit, the spill over of negative associations increases.

THE PAIRING EFFECTS OF THE PERSONALITY OF SPORTING EVENTS AND BRANDS ON CONSUMER RESPONSES

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Chunsik Lee, University of North Florida, Jacksonville, FL

Jae Park, University of North Florida, Jacksonville, FL

Abstract

Prior research on sporting event sponsorship has suggested that when a brand personality dimension is combined with a certain sporting event personality dimension, the sponsoring brand generates more favorable outcomes compared to other combinations. In an experimental setting, this study examined the matching effects on brand attitudes and investigated the better pairs of brand personality and sporting event personality. The findings of this study suggest that participants' attitudes toward sponsoring brands were influenced by different pairs of brands and sporting events personality dimensions. That is, the pair of *sophistication* brand and *tradition* sporting event yielded the best effect of brand-event personality fit with regard to attitude toward the sponsoring brand, followed by the pair of *sincerity* and *diligence*, and the pair of *excitement* and *uninhibitedness*.

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EVENT MARKETING SPONSORSHIP IMPACT: A TEST OF CONGRUENCY AND ENGAGEMENT IN AN ETHNIC FESTIVAL CONTEXT

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Abstract

Data collected by an intercept survey distributed at a medium-size ethnic festival in the Midwest tests the effects of different event sponsorship tactics on aided and unaided brand recall. Two research questions are tested. First, how do brands with greater ethnic congruence resonate with festival visitors, and what role, if any, does ethnic congruence of visitors with the event have in enhancing the recall (top-of-mind and aided) of such products? Second, does the use of passive or engaging tactics affect recall (top-of-mind and aided)?

More engaging (or interactive) tactics are shown to produce higher recall than passive tactics. Likewise, attendees who identify as Ethnically Congruent are shown to perform significantly better on the aided brand recall instrument than non-identifying respondents.

Congruence between product, attendee, and festival appears to improve recall of sponsors' brands. Ethnically congruent attendees successfully identify event sponsors at a rate (50 percent) exceeding the typical scores reported by past literature on major sponsors of national sports leagues. More engaging tactics also make a substantial difference. These two effects are commonly related, the authors argue, to Petty and Cacioppo's Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM).

According to the ELM, motivation to engage a message is an important factor in whether or not audiences dedicate significant cognitive attention to a communication. While mass media advertisers must constantly innovate and compete to obtain this higher attentiveness, sponsors of festivals can expect attendees to arrive seeking direct personal engagement at the event. Ethnic congruency allows ethnic brands to more readily benefit from this natural engagement from visitors. Likewise, a highly involving tactic is more likely to trigger central cues, while a less involving tactic is likely to trigger only peripheral cues. Both these engagement factors are mechanisms for understanding sponsorship's operational relationship to the central and peripheral routes of the ELM.

Attendees' ratings of six common event marketing tactics confirms that more engaging tactics such as samples and product demonstrations are more liked and are more likely to influence their purchase decisions than less engaging tactics such as signage and ads in event programs.

INTERPLAY OF REGULATORY FOCUS AND BRAND PERSONALITY ON PERSUASION IN ADVERTISING

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Abstract

This research experimentally investigated the interactive effects of regulatory focus and brand personality on persuasion in advertising. Regulatory focus theory (Higgins 1997) suggests that self-regulation toward any specific goal may focus on promotion, the pursuit of gains and aspiration toward ideals, or on prevention, the avoidance of losses or negative outcomes such as responsibility and obligations. Since the principle of self-regulatory focus can provide valuable insight into how consumers' consumption goals and behaviors are formulated and guided by the two opposing self-regulatory goals, numerous studies have investigated its effects in the context of advertising and consumer behavior (e.g., Aaker and Lee 2001; Lee and Aaker 2004; Kim 2006; Sung and Choi 2011). Yet much of the prior regulatory focus theory and research has focused on individual characteristics such as self-construal (e.g., Aaker and Lee 2001; Sung and Choi 2011) and cultural orientation (e.g., Lee, Aaker, and Gardner 2000) as well as consumption situations or tasks (e.g., Mogilner, Aaker, and Pennington 2008). Still, there have been limited attempts to empirically investigate the moderating role of brand (or product) attributes with the effects of regulatory focus-based message framing in advertising.

This research proposes that excitement brand personality relates to promotion focus, whereas competence brand personality relates to prevention focus. The results show that a promotion focused advertising message is more effective for an excitement brand than a prevention focused message whereas a prevention-focused advertising message is more effective for a competence brand compared to a promotion focused advertising message. This moderating role of brand personality can not only offer an opportunity to expand the understanding of regulatory focus effects within the context of advertising theory but also provide managerial implications for increasing the effectiveness of advertising campaigns.

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THE ROLE OF CULTURE IN EVALUATION OF NEGATIVE CELEBRITY INFORMATION: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

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Abstract

This study seeks to answer three questions. First, do different cultural orientations result in individuals making dispositional attribution or situational attribution regarding negative information about a celebrity endorser? Second, do consumers from different cultures evaluate differently dissimilar types of negative celebrity information? Third, do dispositional and situational attributions of the negative information about a celebrity endorser produce different evaluations of the endorser and, subsequently, of the endorsed brand? The study found that cultural orientation affects people's attributional styles and that dispositional attribution more than situational attribution leads to negative impacts on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention. It also found that Korean consumers reacted more negatively to other-oriented negative information than to self-oriented negative orientation.

THE EFFECTS OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (CSR) CAMPAIGNS ON CONSUMER RESPONSES TO BRANDS IN SOCIAL MEDIA

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Hye-Jin Paek, Hanyang University, South Korea

Mira Lee, Chung-Ang University, South Korea

Abstract

Dwelling on impression management theory, the present study explores how marketers could maximize favorable consumer responses to brand pages on social network sites (SNSs) through the strategic use of two types of corporate social responsibility (CSR) - cause-related marketing (CRM) and cause sponsorship (CS). The results show that CRM leads to the greatest intention to join the brand page on SNSs among consumers, followed by CS and the absence of CSR (i.e., the control condition). It is also found that CRM results in the greater consumer intention to invite friends to the brand page compared to either CS or the absence of CSR. Also, the mediation analyses demonstrate that consumer expectancy to look favorable to their friends mediates the effects of CSR on the intention to join the brand page and the intention to invite their friends to the brand page. Furthermore, the effects of CSR on the intention to join the brand page are different depending on the type of brand (symbolic and functional). Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

A WEEK WITHOUT MY BRAND: BRAND DEPRIVATION AND THE EFFECTS OF CONSUMERS' INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP-RELEVANT TRAITS

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Abstract

Consumers' interpersonal relationship-relevant traits, including attachment style and need to belong (NTB), have important effects on consumer-brand relationships. The present study evaluated such traits' roles in the responses of 101 university students who for one week deprived themselves of a brand that until then was part of their daily routine. Brand loyalty, brand engagement in self-consciousness (BESC), and brand attitudes were assessed before and after deprivation. Brand loyalty and BESC declined following deprivation, and the decline in BESC was more pronounced for participants high in NTB. Further findings related to deprivation, attachment avoidance, and use of substitute brands are discussed.

SPECIAL TOPICS SESSION: MEDIUM AND MESSAGE: A 21ST CENTURY APPROACH

Chair: Helen Katz, Starcom Mediavest Group, Chicago IL

Participants: T. Bettina Cornwell, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR

Michelle R. Nelson, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL

Janet S. Rose, Independent scholar / Saatchi & Saatchi X, Kansas City, MO

Moderator: Wei-Na Lee, University of Texas, Austin, TX

Overview

Consumer avoidance of ads in traditional media is high. When people watch television in a time-shifted way, they routinely avoid about half of all the commercial time. Print ads can be readily ignored, and click through rates on Web ads are lower than 1%. Advertisers are increasingly moving dollars to new media platforms in hope of not only finding their targets but also engaging them more fully in the ad experience. This central change to advertising expenditures underlies a number of surface trends including the expansion of online communication, corporate sponsorship of sports, the arts, and charity, gaming, and social media marketing. While each area receives targeted research both academic and practitioner, there is little in the way of an integrated understanding of the development of communication platforms.

The special topics session examined in more detail how advertisers have or can succeed in this dynamic and uncharted environment. The approach was both prescriptive and descriptive, covering the areas of online video, videogames, sponsorship, and social media. The presenters were from both academia and the advertising industry, and therefore able to incorporate both theory and practice.

ONLINE VIDEO: JUMPING INTO THE POOL

Helen Katz, Starcom Mediavest Group

Summary

In 2008, the U.S. online video industry was chaotic. Consumers were changing their media behavior, the industry was not fully monetizing digital content, and the proliferation of new ad models confused everyone. Starcom Mediavest Group created a collaborative research consortium, The Pool, which brings together media companies, advertisers, and the agency to work together to uncover human insights, and create industry alignment for engagement models of the future. A three-stage research process involving qualitative, quantitative, and in-market studies gradually winnowed down potential new online video ad models to a single winner, the ASq. This paper shared highlights of The Pool research to show how the agency created a new global standard for online video advertising.

SPONSORSHIP-LINKED MARKETING: WHAT WORKED BEFORE MAY NO LONGER

T. Bettina Cornwell, University of Oregon

Summary

The last decade of sponsorship research came to the resounding conclusion that fit or match between the sponsored event and the brand was a key to success. This fundamental tenet comes into question as we move forward into a more seasoned and crowded sponsorship marketplace. For future success indirect marketing approaches such as sponsorship need to articulate brand values, develop long-term plans with long-term measurement, build integrated sponsorship portfolios and look for brand alliances within the sponsorship roster. This presentation explored what sponsorship needs to do in order to continue its success and growth in the future.

GAMES GALORE: MAKING SENSE OF METRICS AND MEANING IN ADVER-GAME RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Michelle R. Nelson, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Summary

Cool-Spot 7-Up. Kool-Aid Man. CityVille, FarmVille. Sims3. Nascar. Angry Birds. The content, form, and platform of digital games and their relationship to brands have changed since the earliest commercial games in the 1970s. Yet, the focus on entertainment and branded content has remained. As media habits shift toward digital and gaming gains popularity among all demographics, advertisers increasingly consider games an attractive medium. This paper reviewed the past decade of research related to the use of games and brands as persuasion device. Forms of branded content, from advergames and in-game advertising to virtual goods and reverse product placement were presented, together with a summary of the metrics and meaning of effects and effectiveness in this area.

HAS MEDIA EVER NOT BEEN SOCIAL? HOW SOCIAL IS SOCIAL MEDIA? IS FACEBOOK THE NEW AMAZON MALL OF AMERICA? AND OTHER DEEP PONDERABLES AND IMPONDERABLES ABOUT SOCIAL MEDIA

Janet S. Rose, Saatchi & Saatchi X

Summary

Central to the viability of social media as a marketing tool is the medium's ability to convince users of its inherent intent of sociability. In this trade-off, the labor of interaction falls to the user, perceiving that the 'get' is much bigger than the 'give.' This exchange creates evolving social codes that govern social media's ability to be a forum for personal identity creation, affiliation and an effective marketing lever. This paper looked critically at questions and insights emerging at the intersection of media metrics and social theory. Based on recent data about social media's performance in driving brand awareness, ongoing brand engagement, consideration, retail store strips, purchase intent and more, this paper examined the place of social media in the marketing mix and what it means for the realm of the social.

UNDERSTANDING VIRAL VIDEO MAVENS

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Introduction

The digital revolution has been defined as “rapid advances in technology underlying the production of information products in digital form and their marketing and distribution over the Internet” (Varadarajan and Yadav 2009, p. 11). The past several years have seen a further revolution of internet-enabled marketing through the production and dissemination of online videos. YouTube currently exceeds two billion views per day, which is almost double the primetime audience of the three largest American TV networks combined (Website Monitoring 2010). Over forty-six years worth of video footage is viewed per day on Facebook, which has surpassed 500 million active users, 50% of whom log in daily (Facebook 2010; Website Monitoring 2010). This relatively recent cultural obsession with social networking through video has attracted advertisers; ninety-four of Advertising Age's top hundred advertisers run campaigns on YouTube and YouTube's partner ad revenue more than tripled in 2009 (Website Monitoring 2010).

Research about online videos, particularly to do with determining the characteristics, attitudes, and behaviours of people who share videos on a regular basis, is still in its infancy. Scholars suggest that more research is needed to understand communication and interaction between firms and their customers, as underlying behavioral reasons for differences in consumer responses to such communication are not well understood (Varadarajan and Yadav 2009). This study aims to explore, through qualitative interviews, the attitudes and processes of people who share online videos. The findings will describe these *viral video mavens*: who they are, how they share video content, and whether commercial messages affect their distribution of viral videos.

Literature Review

Marketing Mavens

Viral advertising, as a form of viral marketing, is “unpaid peer-to-peer communication of provocative content originating from an identified sponsor using the Internet to persuade or influence an audience to pass along the content to others” (Porter and Golan 2006). Thus, the use of online videos that “go viral” and spread from consumer to consumer is a type of electronic word of mouth (eWOM) advertising. Electronic word of mouth advertising is perceived as a reliable source of information for helping consumers make good buying decisions; it is viewed as more credible and trustworthy than firm-crafted communications by consumers (Brown, Broderick, and Lee 2007; Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Sun et al. 2006; Vilpponen, Winter, and Sundqvist 2006; Xia and Bechwati 2008). Building on previous research in word of mouth advertising, Ferguson (2008) offers advice for advertisers to follow when developing viral campaigns. One of his key commandments is to target those individuals who talk the most about the product, not those who spend the most on the product. Such ‘talkers’ are known as market mavens. Traditional market mavens are consumers who are actively involved in transmitting marketplace information of all types through face-to-face communication (Clark and Goldsmith 2005). They are different from opinion leaders in that they do not have specialized knowledge in one area, but possess a large amount of general marketplace information, and are often sought out by other consumers for advice. Research on the demographic characteristics of traditional market mavens suggest that, although results are mixed, market mavens tend to be younger women with less education (Walsh, Gwinner, and Swanson 2004). Market mavens are susceptible to normative influence, have high self-esteem, and possess a need for uniqueness (Clark and Goldsmith 2005). These personality characteristics lead market mavens to feel an obligation to help others through WOM communication, and to experience pleasure from helping (Walsh, Gwinner, and Swanson 2004).

Viral Video Mavens

Unfortunately, little research exists on Internet market mavens. Do the characteristics of women who read numerous magazines and shop at many different stores translate to mavenism on the Internet? Phelps et al. (2004) studied viral mavens in the context of email. Based on the frequency of how often respondents forwarded email messages, they were labelled either “viral mavens” or “infrequent senders.” It was found that viral mavens' motives for passing along email messages were based on pleasure (e.g., “because it's fun”) and thoughtfulness (e.g., “to help others”). Thus, the motives of viral mavens mirrored that of traditional market mavens. However, no research on personality characteristics exists for viral mavens, and no research at all has been conducted with viral *video* mavens.

Studies of viral video advertising tend to examine the types of videos that are passed along by consumers (for a review, see Eckler and Bolls [2011]). Golan and Zaidner (2008) conducted a content analysis on 360 viral ads and discovered that 91% used some form humor, while only 28% used sexuality and 14% used violence. In a study where comedy was combined with violence in viral videos, the violence + comedy videos elicited higher pass-along probability, and greater likeability (Brown, Bhadury, and Pope 2010). Eckler and Bolls (2011) recently conducted an experiment to understand the effects of such emotion in viral video; their findings suggest that a pleasant emotional tone elicits the strongest attitude toward the ad, brand, and intention to forward. Beyond emotion, viral videos are also more likely to be forwarded when they lead to thinking about an issue in a new way (Anker, Kappel, and Sandeo 2010). One area of viral video sharing that has not been investigated is consumers' perceptions of forwarding commercial (e.g., advertisement for cat food) versus non-commercial messages (e.g., personal video of own cat), a key concern for advertising managers.

In summary, advertisers who wish to use viral video advertising techniques need to target viral video mavens and encourage them to pass along commercial messages to others. Although research suggests viral mavens share the same motives of pleasure and helping as traditional mavens, at least in terms of e-mail messages, little else is known about viral video mavens. Although previous studies highlight the types of videos that have the best chance of being forwarded, it is not clear whether or not viral video mavens are even willing to share advertiser-created commercial messages with others. The current study was developed to explore these issues.

Method

One-on-one interviews lasting approximately sixty minutes each were conducted with eight viral video mavens. The interviews were conducted at a public place of the participant's choosing. Snowball sampling was used to identify the mavens, first by asking people to identify individuals who share many online videos on a regular basis, and then by asking those mavens to refer other people for the study. Before meeting, the participants were told to think of at least two online videos that they had shared in the past. During the interview, these videos were discussed; the most frequent example was Old Spice's *Man Your Man Could Smell Like* campaign; all of the participants had viewed it. Depending on the direction of the conversation, new videos were viewed on a laptop and discussed in greater detail. For example, some participants were shown Hi-Tec's *Liquid Mountaineering*ⁱⁱ video and asked to respond.

The questions asked in the interviews encompassed four areas: behavioral characteristics, methods of sharing, types of videos shared in the past, and the influence of commercial messages on sharing behavior. In addition to the interview, each participant was asked to complete a series of individual difference measures based on the personality characteristics identified for traditional market mavens and for individuals who like humour and violence. These individual difference measures are based on six established scales: Propensity to Provide Marketplace and Shopping Information (Feick and Price 1987), Consumer Innovativeness (Goldsmith and Hofacker 1991), Exploratory Consumer Buying Behaviour (Baumgartner and Steenkamp 1996), Consumer Need for Uniqueness (Tian, Bearden, and Hunter 2001), Arousal Seeking Tendency (Mehrabian and Russell 1974), and Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence (Bearden, Netemeyer, and Teel 1989). One scale, Consumer Innovativeness, was adapted from record buying to video downloading (Appendix A). The scale items were rated on a scale from one to seven, with one being “strongly disagree” and seven being “strongly agree.”

All of the interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed. The conversations were analyzed using the grounded theory method (Strauss and Corbin 1998) in which important findings are allowed to emerge from the data. Both the researchers independently analyzed the interviews to identify common themes and key insights. The common themes were discussed between researchers, ensuring consistency and allowing non-confirming cases to be

identified. Data saturation was found after seven interviews; all eight interviews were included in the data analysis. Quotes from viral video mavens are provided verbatim.

Results

Identifying Viral Video Mavens

Demographically, there are a few common attributes of the viral video mavens in our study; all are male and range in age from twenty-one to twenty-four years old. This similarity is not surprising given the use of snowball sampling and a small, exploratory study. None of the viral video mavens asked could think of any women who viewed and shared videos to the same extent that they did. Seven out of eight of the mavens mentioned that they enjoyed playing video games, and six out of eight mentioned being involved with sports. In terms of time spent using the Internet and social media, most indicated between two to three hours was normal, and several indicated that this time is mostly split up in smaller chunks from the time they wake up until they go to sleep. So although these mavens spend a lot of time per day watching videos on the Internet, this searching and sharing occurs intermittently throughout the day. In other words, these mavens are not people who spend large blocks of time alone in front of computers – they prefer to watch videos throughout the day, interspersed with offline social interactions and hobbies that go beyond computers.

With social media becoming more ubiquitous and connected across different Internet applications, it is no surprise that the viral video mavens confirm that they have high levels of involvement with social media platforms. All of the mavens were frequent users of Facebook. The average number of Facebook friends that they have is 517; this is 387 more than the average Facebook user in 2010ⁱⁱⁱ. All of the video mavens have YouTube accounts, and seven out of eight have Twitter accounts. In terms of blog-following behaviour, there seems to be a wide variety present: some do not follow any blogs, some follow only the largest social news sites like Reddit, and others follow a large variety of blogs. Beyond Reddit, which was the most mentioned video site other than YouTube, the other sites noted in the interviews included College Humor, Sick Animation, Screw Attack, eBaum's World, Tumblr, TED, Funny or Die, crack.com, Gizmodo, Break, and Today's Big Thing.

With the help of this behavioural information, it becomes easier to picture who viral video mavens are. Broadly generalizing, mavens spend at least three hours per day online; they have strong social media awareness and utilize many of the Internet's most popular video aggregating, microblogging, and social networking sites. Interestingly, while some of these behaviours and characteristics fit the expectations one might have of heavy internet users, others are counter to those stereotypes.

The results of the quantitative measures show little difference between viral video mavens and ordinary consumers. This is not unexpected, given the small number of mavens interviewed. One difference emerged: the mean of interviewees' scores for innovativeness in video downloading (Appendix A) was 6.5 on a 7.0 scale. This high average indicates that these mavens are more involved in video watching, downloading, and sharing than most people. Contrary to typical marketing mavens, however, the online mavens in this study are not more likely to provide marketplace and shopping information, and do not engage in more exploratory buying behaviour. Furthermore, they do not have a strong need for uniqueness, they do not have high arousal seeking tendencies, and they are not extremely susceptible to interpersonal influence (all means near scale mid-point). Consequently, they do not feel the need to stand out through distributing videos, and do not actively seek out videos as a means for arousal or as a way to please others, as was suggested in previous research.

Viral Video Mavens as Retailers

If the process of online video distribution were likened to a physical distribution chain, the viral video mavens interviewed in this study would classify as *retailers*, not manufacturers or wholesalers. This became evident after all of the mavens revealed that they rarely create videos themselves, and that they do not enter online contests or provide feedback to those who create original content. Of the eight people interviewed, only three had created videos and posted them on the Internet; of those three, however, only one had uploaded more than five videos in his lifetime. Thus, the viral video mavens in this study were not generally manufacturers of videos. According to Guosong (2009), the three levels of increasing involvement with user-generated media are (a) consumption, (b) sharing, and (c) production. Common marketing wisdom would suggest that marketers of video campaigns target the most-involved consumers: those that produce user-generated content. Our study suggests that reaching video producers is not the same as reaching viral video mavens who have the most potential to share videos with others.

Similarly, the viral video mavens in this study were not interested in performing the wholesaling function either. There is no shortage of video being uploaded to the Internet every day; these mavens were unwilling to “waste their time” sifting through endless unproven material to separate videos that they (and others) might enjoy from ones that they would not. One interviewee remarked:

I want to get satisfied now, I guess you could say. I don't want to be going to YouTube and looking endlessly for something that's funny... that's why I have the channels and subscribe... to get the recommended ones... Then I'll share it with people that I know who probably haven't seen it because they don't watch as many as I do.

Another interviewee agreed:

That's not my job to find things – I want them to find me.... I have my Reddit set up so that all my videos – everything I want to see immediately – is already there for me.

As these quotes demonstrate, viral video mavens can be compared more appropriately to the retailers of an online video distribution chain than the manufacturers or wholesalers. The mavens do not perceive their role to be creating video content or sorting blindly through unsolicited uploads, but to be taking content that is deemed potentially enjoyable because it has already been sorted and preapproved by preferred Web sites, and then disseminating it further throughout their social networks. Thus, our findings confirm Brown, Broderick, and Lee's (2007) view that individuals can build strong social ties with Web sites as information sources.

The Influence of Viral Video Type

The types of videos shared by viral video mavens in our study confirm previous research done in the field of online video sharing: videos must either be humorous (make people laugh) or interesting (make people think). My main thing – I don't send things over email, I just post them on my wall, which I do all the time... You really want something really interesting or really funny so that people think you're funny in association with you posting that video.

Two other attributes of successful videos, as pointed out by the respondents, include a catchy title and an intriguing video thumbnail. One new concept also emerged from the interviews: the idea that *timeliness* is important. Timeliness refers to how long a video has already been available. In general, mavens noted that they like sharing videos that their friends have not seen before and, if a particular video has already been shared, they do not perceive any added value in sharing it again. One respondent commented:

Over time it [a video] does get stale and I think you lose some of the first impression kind of thing. But the reason why I shared it was it was sort of new and not a lot of people had heard of it.

Another respondent added:

I think a lot of people were forwarding it [Old Spice] around... and I was like, well, I don't want to be one other person.

While content and timeliness are both important decision criteria for whether or not a maven will forward a video, another important factor to consider, especially for advertising managers, is whether or not *commercial* content affects a maven's decision to share a video. Seven out of eight of the interviewees said that they would not care if a video is advertising something, as long as it met the criteria of being funny, informative, and timely. The eighth respondent said that he was not overly worried about commercial messages in online videos, but added the caveat that sometimes he is less likely to forward a video if there is the possibility that it contains a double meaning. He commented:

Sometimes I feel that I don't know if the people are receiving it [the video] are sure why I'm sending it—is it funny? Is it an ad for a product that I'm saying “this is a good product”? So I'd be less likely to send something forward if it was advertising something, but if it was really funny, I still would.

Thus, this respondent had no problem with forwarding commercial messages unless he thought that his motives in sharing the video might be unclear.

The advertisements discussed with the participants to explore the question of commercial messages contained explicit promotional material. For example, the Old Spice video showcases body-wash products alongside the logo, jingle, and tagline inside a thirty second spot. Another type of viral video, apocryphal advertisements, also were discussed with some respondents. Hi-Tec's *Liquid Mountaineering* video, a three minute mockumentary which depicts people who have seemingly uncovered the secret to running on water, was frequently discussed. The video does not include a corporate logo or tagline; instead, it was produced with the feel of a real documentary. Even the visual effects of the actors running on water are extremely believable. The only product placement in the entire video is a quick camera shot of an actor wearing Hi-Tec shoes while he explains that they work well because they are made of water repellent material. Respondents' opinions regarding this advertising subterfuge were generally negative. While several mavens initially enjoyed the video itself (and passed it on), two of the respondents noted that they experienced a negative feeling after finding out that they had been "duped." One respondent said: When you watch it you think "is this real?" and you need to spend some time looking into it. Are these people walking on water? And you find out they aren't ... and you're disappointed and that is linked to the product almost... Just put your brand name above the video – that's good enough for me.

Ultimately, as evidenced both by what the participants had to say about explicit commercial messages (e.g., Old Spice) and hidden commercial messages (e.g., Hi-Tec), viral video mavens do not appear to be dissuaded from sharing videos that include advertising. As long as the content is perceived as humorous or novel, and as long as the video is timely, the maven is likely to share it. Finally, mavens may be less satisfied with advertising appeals that are masked as non-commercial messages.

Discussion

Managerial Implications

Through in-depth interviews with viral video mavens, this study identifies some characteristics of this group of mavens, and outlines both how they find videos to share with others and the video factors that affect such sharing. Although exploratory, the current study provides practical implications for managers to consider when creating viral video campaigns. At the most rudimentary level, our findings help identify video mavens, so advertisers can target the right characteristics. These characteristics varied greatly from traditional market mavens who are likely to be young, female homemakers. Although viral video mavens share traditional mavens' motivations of helping and pleasure, this study found that viral video mavens are likely to be young men who spend an average of three hours per day online. Although they share many off-line activities and hobbies, such as sports, they each have a strong awareness of the Internet's most popular video aggregating, microblogging, and social networking websites. And unlike with traditional market mavens, no specific personality characteristics (of those measured) were associated with viral video mavenism, except innovativeness in video downloading.

Beyond demographics, advertisers can consider typical behaviors of viral video mavens when creating effective online communications. It was found that these mavens are important retailers of videos; they forward videos to many friends but do not regularly upload their own videos. Ergo, advertisers should not try to appeal to these mavens through online contests, or assume that the people with the most uploaded YouTube videos are the right target for a video campaign. More importantly, to reach viral video mavens successfully, advertisers should go beyond dropping their efforts on YouTube and place videos on popular "wholesaler" Web sites, such as those mentioned by our respondents. These are the sources where mavens find a large number of the videos they forward. In terms of video content and advertising strategy, a few important findings emerged from this study. First, timeliness is a key factor in whether or not mavens share a video; thus, advertisers should be sensitive to (a) the lengths of their videos, and (b) the frequency of releases. Many mavens agreed that anything over a minute was too long for a viral video – one in particular mentioned:

Even a minute is pushing it for the most part... I watched a two minute video the other day... and it was too long. It was interesting, kind of, but I lost interest.

The second part of timeliness relates to the finding that mavens do not like to share videos that have already been shared before. The managerial implication for this finding is that advertisers should experiment with releasing a series of short videos in timely intervals rather than releasing one large-scale effort. Many mavens noted that the

Old Spice viral campaigns were enjoyable for this reason. Furthermore, some of the mavens noted that they look forward to new video releases on a favorite Web site. One maven said:

Every Tuesday when I wake up they [The Young Turks] release a video ... the first thing I do when I wake up, just same as this morning, I go to YouTube and I watch the new video they've put out.

This level of weekly anticipation and loyalty is something that advertisers can harness. By releasing enjoyable content on a regular basis, mavens will always have something new to share with their online friends.

A final practical implication to consider when creating online video content is that companies should not feel the need to mask their commercial messages. As noted in the discussion surrounding Hi-Tec's Liquid Mountaineering video, some mavens said that they dislike finding out that they have been deceived. The majority of mavens admitted that they did not mind forwarding commercial-message videos, as long as the content met their other requirements. This is important for advertisers to note, as Porter and Golan (2006) found that only 59% of viral advertisements contained brand identification, suggesting advertisers are still reluctant to identify themselves as the sponsors of viral video advertising.

Limitations and Future Research

As with all exploratory research, studies such as this one are subject to certain limitations. First, a selection of only eight viral video mavens, although sufficient for grounded theory analysis, is not generalizable to all viral video mavens, especially when measuring quantifiable personality characteristics. A survey of a larger sample of video mavens would be an appropriate next step in understanding the specific personality characteristics of this group. In addition, no women could be identified as viral video mavens to include in the interviews. Future research could search more diligently for female video mavens, if they exist, to explore whether women enjoy different types of video content, and whether or not men and women are similar in their viral video behavior.

While a portion of this study addressed the opinions of mavens regarding hidden commercial messages (e.g., Hi-Tec's Liquid Mountaineering video), this topic was only identified during the research process and consequently could not be explored in depth. Not all of the mavens were asked about hidden commercial messages, the video was not shown to all the mavens, and many questions were left unanswered. To obtain more actionable conclusions about this type of "secret" viral video campaign, future researchers can consider sharing videos with participants and gathering their opinions before revealing that the videos are advertiser-generated and have hidden commercial messages. More specific and direct questions can be used to gauge exactly how participants feel before and after they discover the truth about the video.

Conclusion

Viral video campaigns, while not a new concept, are still a relatively nascent form of advertising for many companies. Understanding how to effectively create viral content and share videos through online networks is imperative for advertisers who wish to successfully harness the growing power of social media. This study provides an initial exploratory examination of viral video mavens to gain a greater understanding of who they are, how they share, and what they share. In doing so, it provides a theoretical contribution to knowledge of digital communication and interaction between firms and their customers, as called for by prior research (Varadarajan and Yadav 2009). In addition, this study provides a practical contribution as it identifies key managerial implications regarding viral video mavens that can be considered by advertisers looking to develop online video campaigns.

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Appendix A

Adapted Consumer Innovativeness Scale

Original Questions:

1. In general, I am among the first in my circle of friends to buy a new rock album when it appears.
2. If I heard that a new rock album was available in the store, I would be interested enough to watch it.
3. Compared to my friends I own a lot of rock albums.
4. In general, I am the first in my circle of friends to know the titles of the latest rock albums.
5. I know the names of new rock acts before other people do.

Adapted Questions:

1. In general, I am among the first in my circle of friends to see an online video when it appears.
2. If I heard that an awesome new video was available online, I would be interested enough to watch it.
3. Compared to my friends I have seen a lot of online videos.
4. In general, I am the first in my circle of friends to view online videos.
5. I have watched online videos before other people have.

ⁱ Old Spice: *The Man Your Man Could Smell Like* at: <http://www.oldspice.com/videos/>.

ⁱⁱ Hi-Tec: *Liquid Mountaineering* at: <http://www.hi-tec.com/infinity/uk/liquid-mountaineering/>.

ⁱⁱⁱ Digitalbuzz: *Facebook: Facts and Figures for 2010*, at <http://www.digitalbuzzblog.com/facebook-statistics-facts-figures-for-2010/> states that the average number of Facebook friends is 130.

TO HELP YOU, TO SERVE MYSELF, OR TO PROVE “I AM BETTER”? EXPLORING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL TENDENCIES OF eMAVENS AS WELL AS THE MODERATING EFFECTS

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Abstract

This paper describes a study in the psychology of eMavenism, the consumer tendency to acquire general marketplace information from the Internet and become especially involved in electronic word-of-mouth communication. The first purpose of the study is to investigate empirically the associations between eMavenism and three psychological tendencies, altruism, status seeking, and downward social comparison. The second purpose is to examine the moderating roles of revealing true identity online and physical marketplace involvement. Both theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

SHARE IT ON FACEBOOK: EXAMINING VIRAL MARKETING AND MOTIVES TO PASS ALONG ELECTRONIC CONTENT ON SNS

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Introduction

Over the last two decades Internet has transformed the way we obtain and communicate information. Different from the era when mass media controlled the production and dissemination of news, marketing messages, product reviews and other information, the digital era makes it possible for the public to be a major part of the information process. Words previously used to describe audiences such as “reader”, “viewers”, “listeners” etc. have been gradually replaced by “users”. Moreover, research has shown that user participation comes more through sharing than through contributing to the creation of information themselves (Purcell, Rainie, Mitchell, Rosenstiel and Olmstead 2010). A relatively new phenomenon, social networking sites (SNS) have facilitated and enhanced the diffusion of information by online users. In a recent survey of 2,259 adult Internet users conducted by Pew Research, 75% of participants indicated that, on a typical day, they forwarded news by posting on social networking sites, while 51% of social networking site (e.g. Facebook) users claimed that they learn of news and current events from those posting on such sites. Moreover, people share other electronic content such as sports, music, new technology, product information and health tips.

Social networking sites (SNS) are thus not only conducive to news diffusion; they also create an opportunity for viral marketing. Viral marketing refers to “the process of getting customers to pass along a company’s marketing message to friends, family, and colleagues” (Laudon and Traver 2001). Marketers have been shifting ad spending to viral marketing because the latter is more powerful and more cost-effective (Knight 2007). Although previous studies have examined viral marketing via email (Phelps, Lewis, Mobilio, Perry and Raman 2004), blogs (Hsu and Lin 2006), and Internet in general (Ho and Dempsey 2010), none of these studies have explored how SNSs affect consumer behavior in regards to viral marketing.

In order to help marketers improve the effectiveness of viral marketing communications, it is essential to explore the motivations and behaviors of those who pass along electronic content to others via social networking sites. Accordingly, the purpose of this paper is to address these gaps, and to identify personal motivations to forward electronic content to others through this medium. Through a conceptual model, it also explores the relationship between these motivators and the actual pass-along behavior. In addition, because the consumption of electronic content is an important action one must take preceding forwarding, it is also considered to be a factor that influences viral efforts. Finally, in order to fully explore the pass-along effect on Facebook, this paper also examines the types and formats of online content that are most frequently forwarded by users. For academic research, the goal is to set the bases for pass-along behavior and other marketing communications in SNS settings.

The reasons to examine information forwarding behavior on SNS are threefold - 1) like cell-phone, email and postal mail, Facebook has become a basic tool and common channel for interpersonal communication (Xie, Morris and Zhang 2011), 2) one is able to engage in social interaction with large number of individuals and share information much faster and globally via SNS than channels mentioned above (Hemetsberger 2002; Phelps, et al. 2004), 3) unlike common e-WOM formats, viral marketing contents shared on Facebook such as video, photos and articles are too detailed to be disseminated via a few words or sentences (Phelps, et al. 2004).

To this end, the current paper builds a research model on the basis of three social-psychological theories, social exchange theory, social cognitive theory and the strength of tie, to answer the question, “Why do people spend valuable time and effort forwarding electronic content to others on Facebook?” The tests of this model would also help to extend the knowledge on viral marketing, and to implement effective viral marketing campaigns.

Literature Review

Social Networking Site and Facebook

Social networking sites (SNSs) (e.g. Facebook, MySpace, Twitter, and LinkedIn) are sites that allow users to create and maintain a network of friends, family or business associates for social and/or professional reasons (O'Murchu, Breslin and Decker 2004). These communities facilitate the formation of social ties and enhance direct reciprocity among SNS members (Wasko and Faraj, 2005). In contrast with blogs and other SNSs such as Twitter and MySpace, which contain larger but more loosely knit groups of members, Facebook consists of individuals who often know each other in real life and hence have stronger social ties.

As the most popular and fastest growing SNS, Facebook originated as a uniquely college website where users required an ".edu" email address to join. Ever since, it expanded to include users of different backgrounds, work environments and ages. The user-friendly navigation of Facebook has made it easy for users to access applications such as profile, inbox, photos, events etc. The latest statistics report from Facebook claims that it has more than 750 million active users and half of them visit this site on any given day (Facebook, 2011). Other than the growing popularity of SNSs, the uniqueness of this medium is that it engages the social context of user forwarding information from other electronic spaces and makes the viral message more effective. Hence, Facebook has significant potential to disseminate viral content on the Internet.

Companies are willing to incur substantial costs to analyze who are the right customers and target them on Facebook. According to a leading marketing research company eMarketer, advertisers in the States would spend \$3.08 billion on social networking sites by the end of 2011. Moreover, amongst all of the social networking sites, about 68% of this spending will go to Facebook (eMarketer 2011). As advertisers increasingly seek various ways to break through the ad clutter and achieve greater communication effectiveness on SNSs, more careful consideration must be given to the selection and utilization of different marketing strategies on this platform.

Viral Marketing and the Pass-along Effect

According to Ho and Dempsey (2010), viral marketing typically starts with the formation of product/brand related electronic content (e.g. video, articles, pictures, etc.), which is made available to Internet users through the URL (web address). Users first access and consume the content. When they find certain electronic content that is worth their time and effort to forward other Internet users, information forwarding occurs. Such forwarding is known as pass-along effects (Phelps et al. 2004). The better the particular content fits with the one's pass-along motivation, the more likely it becomes viral (Ho and Dempsey 2010).

Existing viral marketing studies have examined the pass-along effect. Phelps et al. (2004) used both qualitative (i.e. Focus group and interview) and quantitative (i.e. content analysis) methods to explore consumers' motives to pass along messages via email. Huang, Lin and Lin (2009) integrated the social capital and social cognitive theories and investigated factors affecting pass-along email intentions. Ho and Dempsey (2010) used Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO) theory and examined motives to pass along content online in general. In these papers, for ease of exposition, users who are more readily motivated to pass along content are termed as e-Mavens or Internet mavens.

E-mavens or Internet mavens refer to individuals who acquire and share information frequently via electronic platforms (Phelp et al. 2004). Different from market mavens (Feick and Price 1987), who are defined based on the type of information that is diffused (i.e. marketplace information), e-Mavens are termed by the channel through which information is diffused (i.e. the Internet) (Ho and Dempsey 2010). Therefore, the current paper terms those who pass along online content to others via Facebook very frequently "e-Mavens".

Viral marketing differs from other marketing strategies in the label "viral" whose spreading processes are just like the proliferation of pathological and computer viruses (Kim and Lowrey 2010). However, prior to forwarding any electronic content and contributing to the viral effects, users must first locate or consume that particular online content (e.g. read an article, play a game or watch a video). A person who does not spend enough time online and consume various electronic content would less likely be an e-Maven than one who consumes a large amount of online content. Previous studies also found that the more an individual uses the Internet, the more likely he or she will deliver online word of mouth messages (Sun, Youn and Wu 2006), the more online content he/she will forward to others through various electronic communication channels (Ho and Dempsey 2010), and the more chances that he/she is an e-Maven (Belch, Krentler, and Willis-Flurry 2005). Hence, the consumption of electronic content is a key antecedent that may impact the pass-along effect. This leads to the first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1. The consumption of electronic content is positively related to the frequency of information forwarding on Facebook.

Although this paper is mainly concerned about viral marketing messages, it is important to gain a general picture of what type of content users forward more often (e.g. current news, jokes, crime warnings), and in what formats (e.g. video, pictures). Therefore, the following research questions are presented:

Research Question 1: what types of electronic content do Facebook users tend to pass along to others?

Research Question 2: In what formats are most online content forwarded?

Theoretical Framework

Existing studies have identified motivation as a key determinant of information sharing behavior (Bock, Zmud and Kim 2005; Hemetsberger 2002; Kankanhalli, Tan and Wei 2005). Previous research has divided motivational factors of human behavior into extrinsic and intrinsic motivators (Deci and Ryan 1980; Lin 2007; Osterloh and Frey 2000; Vallerand 1997). In the literature of knowledge and information sharing, Lin (2007) and Kankanhalli et al. (2005) have assessed the difference between extrinsic and intrinsic motivators on employee information sharing behaviors in the organization settings. Intrinsic motivations are defined as “engaging in an activity for its own sake, out of interest, or for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from the experience” (Lin, 2007, p. 137). By sharing information on SNS, e-mavens may feel pleasant by having opportunities to provide knowledge or help to others (Wasko and Faraj 2005); or feel satisfied by enhancing their confidence in their ability to share electronic content that is useful to other people in the online community (Constant, Kiesler and Sproull 1994).

Given the interpersonal nature of SNSs, this paper also investigates the sharing behavior within users’ social contexts. Extrinsic motivations refer to the engagement in an activity because of the perceived valuable outcomes that are distinct from the activity itself (Teo, Lim and Lai 1999). By sharing valuable or interesting information with others, eMavens may receive reciprocal benefits (Kankanhalli et al. 2005). In return, they expect to receive feedback, and their request for information would be met by others (Wasko and Faraj 2003). E-mavens may also expect to receive better reputation and image among others in the community as an outcome of sharing.

Social psychological studies that are related to social cognitive and exchange, altruism, diffusion of innovations and social tie can provide supports for the participants’ motivations to pass along messages on SNSs. However, previous studies drawing upon the Social Cognitive Theory mainly focused on personal cognition and failed to integrate the social network influence. On the other hand, most Internet community research has paid little attention to personal cognition such as self-efficacy and outcome expectations (Chiu, Hsu and Wang 2006). This paper takes both personal cognition (i.e. self-efficacy, perceived reciprocity, outcome expectations, altruism) and interpersonal social factors (social tie) into account, to investigate the motivations underlying individuals’ pass-along behavior on SNSs.

Social Cognitive Theory

The premise of social cognitive theory (SCT) is that individuals’ behavior is influenced and shaped by their cognition and the social environment (Bandura 1989). Previous studies have used this theory to explore consumers’ Internet behaviors (Huang, Lin and Lin 2009; Luarn and Lin 2005, Chiu, Hsu and Wang 2006). Social cognitive theory believes that individual behavior is influenced by two major personal cognitive factors: outcome expectations and self-efficacy.

Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as the belief “in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments”. This belief serves as a self-motivational force for contributing knowledge and information with others (Kankanhalli et al. 2005). Previous studies have found a positive association between self-efficacy and knowledge sharing in the online communication context. In the study of contributing knowledge to electronic knowledge repositories, Kankanhalli et al., (2005) found that self-efficacy significantly impact the knowledge sharing behavior. In this paper, information sharing self-efficacy is the confidence in one’s capabilities to share electronic content that is deemed to be valuable to other users on social networking sites (Huang, Lin and Lin 2009).

Outcome expectations, as the second element of SCT, refers to a person’s judgment of a possible consequence upon the performance of such behavior (Bandura 1997). Individuals are more likely to do things that they believe would result in favorable consequences than those perceived to have negative consequences (Bandura 1997). Prior studies support such positive links between individuals’ expected outcomes and their intention (Huang, Lin and Lin 2009) or behavior (Wasko and Faraj 2005) of forwarding information through various ways on the Internet. In the current study, information sharing outcome expectations are defined as social networking users’ belief of the likely consequence that their sharing behavior will produce.

The greater the belief in one’s ability to perform a specific behavior, the more likely one is to carry out this behavior. On the contrary, if people are not confident in their ability to conduct certain activities, they are less likely to repeat the same activity. The more positive one’s expected outcomes of a particular behavior, the more likely her

or she is to perform this behavior. Conversely, when a behavior is associated with negative consequences, the individual is more likely to react negatively towards the behavior and less likely to perform such behavior.

Hypothesis 2: Self-efficacy is positively related to the frequency of information forwarding on Facebook.

Hypothesis 3: Outcome expectations are positively related to the frequency of information forwarding on Facebook.

Social Exchange Theory

Existing research on market information flows has used social exchange theory (SET) to examine the process of word-of-mouth information sharing (Frenzen and Nakamoto 1993). In the study of market maven, Feick and Price (1987) pointed out that individuals share market information because they anticipate using it in social exchanges. Constant, Kiesler and Sproull (1994) investigated factors that encourage and inhibit information, and created the idea of an exchange theory of information sharing on the basis of social exchange theory.

Similar to the outcome expectation aspect of SCT, the Theory of Social Exchange (Blau 1964) suggests that participants engage in social interaction based on an expectation that there will be rewards for doing so. However, the latter particularly focuses on the reward of future favors and reciprocal relationships. Specifically, SET posits that providing help can be seen as intrinsically rewarding, and that individuals expect mutual reciprocity to make up for lost time and effort spent forwarding information (Chiu, Hsu and Wang 2006; Thibaut and Kelly 1959).

Reciprocity has been used as to explain the motives of information sharing in the knowledge market (Davenport and Prusak 1998), in electronic networks of practice (Wasko and Faraj 2005) and in virtual communities (Chiu, Hsu and Wang 2006). Here, perceived reciprocity refers to the degree to which an individual believes that he will receive response or information exchange from others in return for the electronic content they share on a SNSs.

Hypothesis 4: The perceived level of reciprocity is positively related to the frequency of information forwarding on Facebook.

In a study of social exchange paradigm, Belk and Coon (1993) challenged classic principle of reciprocity of SET and introduced an altruistic explanation for social exchange behavior. Indeed, while most studies of SET focus primarily on principles of reciprocity, little attention has been paid to the intrinsic benefit that's derived from the course of social exchange – altruism (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). Contrary to the benefit of reciprocity or future favors discussed above, this intrinsic benefit comes from the enjoyment of helping others by sharing information without expecting anything in return (Kankanhalli et al. 2005; Krebs 1975). Individuals also devote their time and effort in the process of social exchange, because they have concern for others (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995; Price, Lawrence and Audrey 1995), and they feel gratified by helping and informing others (Hoffman 1981). Hence, this paper argues that participants who engage in social exchange interaction simultaneously act according to reciprocity principles as well as altruism that represents the rewards of enjoyment and affection.

Altruism is also a key factor that differentiates e-WOM from other traditional marketing strategies, because individuals' motivation is primarily pro-social (to inform or to help) rather than pro- business (to acquire new customers) (Phelps et al., 2004). Studies have identified altruism as an important incentive for people to engage in WOM communication in both offline (Sundaram, Mitra and Webster 1998) and online settings (Ho and Dempsey 2010). Altruism here refers one's will to help others and increase others' welfare by forwarding informative content on Facebook without expecting returns (Hsu and Lin 2007). In this model altruism is proposed as an intrinsic motive where individuals initiate forwarding behavior, because they derive enjoyment from helping others. Individuals who derive enjoyment from helping others are more motivated and more likely to share knowledge (Lin 2007).

Hypothesis 5: Altruism is positively related to the frequency of information forwarding on Facebook.

Strength of Tie

In a study on blogging, respondents indicated that they mainly communicate with close friends and family on the Internet, and the authors found that one of the major incentives to post content on blogs is the intention to maintain close relationships with others (Nardi, Schiano and Gumbrecht 2004). Computer-mediated communication (CMC) studies have described these relationships as strong tie, which represents the social and emotional closeness between an individual and people in their networks (Stefanone and Jang 2008). Prior studies have provided support for the positive relationship between strong tie and information sharing on virtual communities (Chiu, Hsu and Wang 2006), blogs (Stefanone and Jang 2008) and in an organizational setting (Szulanski 1996; Tsai 2002).

Social networking sites have become a common channel for interpersonal communication (IC) (Xie et al. 2011). Because Facebook engages the social context of the user forwarding information, the strength of social tie individuals have with their Facebook friends may play an important role in information flows on this platform. Moreover, because Facebook is specifically designed to facilitate and enhance social networking communications

(Stefanone and Jang 2008), it is necessary to consider social tie in relation to sharing behavior on this medium.

The strength of social tie is defined as “a combination of the amount of time, the emotional intensity, intimacy, and the reciprocal services which characterize the tie.” (Chiu et al. 2006, p. 1876) In the setting of social networking sites. Tie strength represents how close an individual believes being to other member on such network. In the current study, Facebook social tie is the level of intensity of relationships, the amount of time spent, and the frequency of communication among members of the Facebook community. The stronger the tie is between individuals and their friends, the more positive they would feel about sharing online content with the friends, and the more likely they would pass along the electronic content to their friends.

Hypothesis 6: Social Tie strength is positively related to the frequency of online content forwarding on Facebook.

Method

Sampling

Facebook use is prevalent among college students. The adoption rates of Facebook for college students are reported to be between 85-96% (Stutzman 2008; Tufekci 2008). Therefore, a student sample is appropriate. A purposive sample was justified because this research is only interested in Facebook users. Participants had to have access to the Internet, and had to be a member of Facebook.com. The data for this study came from a convenience sample of undergraduate and graduate students at a large southeastern US university.

Students were recruited from classes as well as from Facebook invitations. These invitations were sent as Facebook messages to members of student organizations and groups that are affiliated with the university. Prospective respondents were screened for Facebook usage and the pass-along behavior on Facebook. Only those who had an active Facebook account, and who have forwarded electronic content to others via Facebook were surveyed. A total of 668 students participated the survey, with a response rate of 88%. All respondents appeared to have an active Facebook account, where 502 of them (75.1%) have shared information on Facebook and hence are qualified for this survey.

Survey Design

A web-based survey was used because it was justified as one of the most efficient and convenient ways to reach college students today. The survey utilized a 35-item questionnaire to collect data. The questionnaire has three major parts representing motives and forwarding behavior of the proposed model: intrinsic motivators (i.e. self-efficacy and altruism), extrinsic motivators (perceived reciprocity, outcome expectations, and tie strength) and content forwarding. Existing scales were used and slightly adapted according to the particular hypotheses and research questions of the current study. Additional questions included time spent on Facebook, gender, age and race. In order to refine the questionnaire, a pretest was conducted using a similar group of young adults ($n = 38$).

Self-efficacy was assessed on five seven-point agree-disagree scales (e.g. “I have confidence in my ability to share valuable online content on Facebook”) based on previous study (Huang, Lin & Lin, 2008). The scores of the scales were averaged to derive an index score of self-efficacy (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .956$).

Altruism (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .914$) was measured using four items on a seven-point scale (e.g. “I enjoy sharing online information with others on Facebook”) anchored by “strongly agree/strongly disagree.” The scale was adapted from Kankanhalli, Tan, and Wei (2005).

Perceived reciprocity was also measured using four items on a seven-point scale (e.g. “When I share online content using Facebook, I believe that others will provide opinionated feedback”) anchored by “strongly agree” and “strongly disagree”. The scales (Cronbach $\alpha = .858$) are also adopted from Kankanhalli, Tan, and Wei (2005).

Four items for measuring outcome expectations of forwarding behavior (Cronbach $\alpha = .917$) is adopted from Huang, Lin and Lin (2008).

Strength of tie with Facebook “friends” was adopted from a previous study on knowledge sharing in virtual communities (Chiu, Hsu & Wang, 2006). The scale consists of four items on a seven-point scale (e.g. “I maintain close real-world social relationships with some members on Facebook”) (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .832$).

Both content consumption and content forwarding scales were adopted from Dempsey and Ho’s study on viral marketing (2010). Consumption of electronic content was measured by asking respondents to estimate how many hours they spend on various online activities (e.g. reading news or watching videos) in a typical week. The total hours each person spent on these activities was used in the analysis. The mean is 8.6 hours, with a SD of 7.6

hours. For content forwarding behavior, subjects were asked to report how many times they pass along electronic content from elsewhere to their friends on Facebook in a typical week. When forwarding this information, one can directly post the electronic content on Facebook or store them at special URLs, which are then forwarded as links to others (Dempsey & Ho, 2010). The mean is 13.3 times, with a SD of 10.1 times.

In addition, questions related to the electronic content categories and formats were designed in order to answer the two research questions. Participants were asked to indicate the percent of electronic content they forward by category and format (adopted from Phelps et al., 2004). The product-related categories (e.g. coupon or free stuff, interesting product information) were adopted from Huang, Lin, and Lin's study (2009) on pass-along email intentions. Other categories were also presented in order to explore the most shared content on Facebook in general. The non-product related types were adopted from a prior study on viral marketing through email (Phelps et al., 2004). According to their study, the most forwarded messages are jokes, crime warnings, game etc. The formats of electronic content include video, article, picture, and hyperlinks.

Survey Measures

In order to confirm the validity of the instruments, the study conducted a principal components analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation on all items, as listed in Table 1. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value is .900, which is generally considered superb (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). KMO values for all items range from .558 to .868, which is well above the acceptable value .50 (Field, 2009). Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(df=210) = 8892.98, p < .001$, indicated that correlations between items were large enough for PCA (Field, 2009). All items have strong loadings (i.e. higher than .60). All components had initial eigenvalues of over Kaiser's acceptable limit of 1, and in total explained 78% of the variance.

Table 1. Principal Component Analysis, Constructs, Item Wording

	SE ^a	OE ^b	ER ^c	AT ^d	ST ^e
I have confidence in my ability to share valuable online content on Facebook (SE1)	.852	.159	.139	.201	.257
I have confidence in my ability to share informative online content on Facebook (SE2)	.865	.219	.217	.191	.233
I have confidence in my ability to share helpful online content on Facebook (SE3)	.868	.245	.204	.182	.186
I have confidence in my ability to share important online content on Facebook (SE4)	.878	.184	.189	.189	.101
I have confidence in my ability to be informed to share valuable content Facebook (SE5)	.860	.182	.248	.126	.149
I think forwarding information on Facebook would improve my image among the (potential) receivers on Facebook (OE1)	.217	.835	.130	.227	.185
I think forwarding information on Facebook would improve the receivers' recognition of me (OE2)	.199	.874	.146	.211	.163
I think forwarding information on Facebook would help me make friends with the receivers on Facebook (OE3)	.146	.804	.185	.157	.057
I think forwarding information on Facebook would build up my reputation with users on Facebook (OE4)	.215	.853	.146	.140	.030
When I share online content using Facebook, I believe that others will provide opinionated feedback (ER1)	.260	.197	.716	.183	.208
When I share online content using Facebook, I expect somebody to respond (ER2)	.243	.105	.806	.159	.280
When I share online content using Facebook, I expect to get back information from others (ER3)	.218	.122	.826	.201	.215
When I share online content using Facebook, I believe that my queries for knowledge will be answered in future (ER4)	.153	.232	.714	.210	.126
I enjoy sharing online information with others on Facebook (AT1)	.325	.220	.279	.714	.501
I enjoy helping others by sharing online content on Facebook (AT2)	.271	.180	.272	.843	.152
It feels good to help someone else by sharing online content on Facebook (AT3)	.249	.250	.245	.844	.192
Sharing online content on Facebook gives me pleasure (AT4)	.133	.308	.182	.747	.238

I maintain close real-world social relationships with some members on Facebook (ST1)	.213	.144	.112	.356	.755
I spend a lot of time interacting with some members on Facebook (ST2)	.045	.111	.292	.175	.655
I know some members on Facebook on a personal level (ST3)	.481	.012	.143	.055	.786
I have frequent communication with some members on Facebook (ST4)	.188	.122	.222	.128	.854
Eigenvalue	9.145	2.55	1.30	1.93	1.46
Cumulative Variance (%)	20.58	36.53	49.91	64.36	78.08
Mean	5.41	4.49	5.05	5.19	5.9
Std. Dev.	1.11	1.26	1.02	1.12	1.00
a. Self-efficacy; b. Outcome Expected; c. Expected Reciprocity; d. Altruism; e. Social Tie					

This paper used a negative binomial regression analysis to assess the impact of media consumption, self-efficacy, strength of tie, altruism, perceived reciprocity and outcome expectations on the frequency of sharing online content via Facebook. While negative binomial and Poisson regression are both potential methods for count data, negative binomial model is best suited for data in which the variance does not equal the mean (Greene, 2002). Moreover, negative binomial regression overcomes strict assumptions by Poisson regression models while also allowing for over-dispersion (Greene, 2002; Baron, Hannan, & Burton, 2001).

To address multi-collinearity, all variables were regressed against one another. Results indicated that intrinsic variables (self efficacy and altruism) and extrinsic variables (strength of tie, perceived reciprocity, outcome expectations) were largely correlated ($R > .7$). However, because fine distinctions exist among all five variables that drive this papers primary objective, they were all included in the regression model. Limitations of this approach and its impact on the primary findings are discussed at the end of the paper.

Furthermore, simultaneous equation bias and endogeneity was not deemed a potential threat given temporal presence. In other words, the independent variables were individual characteristics that impact sharing frequency, while sharing frequency would no way influence an individual's personality traits or characteristics.

Finally, data limitations prevented the inclusion of all variables that could have impacted an individual's frequency of sharing content on Facebook. To correct for potential selection bias given such data limitations, this paper ran a version of the Heckman 2-Step test used for non-linear regression models. Results suggested that selection bias was not a significant issue in our model.

Results

Descriptive Findings

The survey respondents (n=502) were predominantly female (62%). The majority of respondents classified themselves as Caucasian (71.9%), with representation from other ethnic groups, such as Hispanic or Latino (19.7%), African American or Black (8.8%), Asian (5.2%) etc. Respondents' age ranges from 18 to 61, with the average age of 21.72 (SD=3.47). Almost all participants (99%) indicated that they use Facebook several times a week, the majority of them (78.3%) logged on Facebook every few hours. The participants have an average of 560 Facebook friends. Twenty seven percent of the participants reported that they had more than 1000 friends on this site. Individuals shared content on average 13 times per week but as much as 50 times per week. They read or viewed roughly 8 to 9 news articles, blogs or other media sources each week.

Research Question Results

To identify what message types have the most viral potential, the survey also asked participants to answer two questions regarding the format and content (type) of information they forward the most on Facebook. Table 2 presents the answers for RQ1 and RQ2. The second and third columns rank the content types based on their percentage among all electronic content that were forwarded on Facebook. Most product related content contains interesting advertisements and product helpful tips, while non-product related content includes funny jokes and current events. Most content was passed on was in the formats of picture, video, and hyperlinks.

Table 2. Percentage of Electronic Content Forwarded by Category and Formats

Type		Percent	Format	Percent
Product related	Interesting advertisement	41.8%	Picture	82.5%

Non-product related	Product helpful tips	28.5%	Videos	79.2%
	Interesting product information (e.g. wii, Xbox)	21.1%	Hyperlinks	69.7%
	Coupons or Free stuff	21.1%	Articles	59.5%
	Positive product reviews	20.1%	Chain messages	13.1
	Brand news	19.2%		
	Negative product reviews	18.6%		
	Jokes	72.5%		
	Current events	51.2%		
	Culture and religion	27.5%		
	Politics	24.6%		
	Games	21.0%		
	Crime warning	11.0%		

Regression Results

As can be seen from Table 3, none of the more extrinsic motivators such as self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and perceive reciprocity were statistically significant at the .01, .05 or .1 level. This broadly suggests that social cognitive theory did not apply to individual motivations for sharing content on Facebook. Conversely, strength of tie and altruism were both significant at the alpha .01 and .05 levels, indicating that a marginal increase in either of these constructs led to a 10 and 8 percent increase in the amount of content shared on Facebook, respectively. These results suggest mixed conclusions for the applicability of social exchange theory towards understanding content sharing behavior. Consuming a greater amount of media content led to greater sharing on Facebook, where each additional media source viewed per week was associated with a 2 percent increase in the amount of content shared by that individual on Facebook. Among control variables, having a greater number of Facebook friends and being female positively and significantly impacted the amount of content shared on Facebook. Surprisingly greater Facebook usage was associated with less content sharing on Facebook and was significant at the alpha .09 level.

Table 3: Multivariate Results

Variable	Measles	
	B	P-Value
Self Efficacy	0.04	0.22
Outcome Expectations	0.04	0.19
Perceived Reciprocity	0.05	0.20
Strength of Tie	0.10	0.01
Altruism	0.08	0.03
Facebook Usage	-0.09	0.09
Number of Friends	0.05	0.00
Gender	0.30	0.00
Media Consumption	0.02	0.00

Bold represents significance at the .01, .05 or .1 level

Conclusion and Discussion

The current study contributes to contemporary consumer research literature by investigating the motivations for passing along electronic content in the context of social media communication. Specifically, it uses social psychological theories including social cognitive, social exchange and tie theories to test whether the salient factors influenced viral marketing and other information forwarding behavior on social network communities.

Results from this study offered unanticipated though interesting findings with respect to factors that encourage individuals to share online content through Facebook. Self confidence in one's actions and or the need

for cognitive reinforcement, operationalized as self-efficacy and outcome expectations, did not significantly motivate online sharing behavior. To this end, Facebook users in this study did not seem to care whether forwarded material was important or useful to others but rather shared content that they found interesting. The lack of support for social cognitive theory seems to indicate that individuals are willing to pass along content irrespective of how others will perceive that content or the need to be supported for such behavior. While these outcomes contradict those in other studies (Ho and Dempsey, 2010; Kankanhalli et al., 2005), they should not be easily dismissed, as variations in study content and individuals are likely to impact human cognition and ultimately behavior in different ways.

Findings instead offered some support for social exchange theory, suggesting that individuals share online content through Facebook, because they gain greater welfare from exchanging content or ideas with others. Yet according to our results, the demand for reciprocated information, operationalized as perceived reciprocity, does not motivate individuals to share content. While this contradicts some empirical work by Wasko and Faraj (2005) and Chiu, Hsu and Wang (2006), it instead supports evidence by Ho and Dempsey (2010) and Kankanhalli et al. (2005) who suggested that people instead impart information, because they gain intrinsic satisfaction from helping others. To this end individuals that share material through Facebook may feel better knowing that they have stimulated interest in or knowledge of this content with their friends or family -- irrespective of whether they receive anything for their efforts.

Results also confirmed the importance of social tie strength in viral marketing effects (Brown and Reingen 1987; De Bruyn and Lilien 2008). The stronger one's tie is with Facebook friends, the more likely one is to pass on online content to them. Individuals have an inherent need to build and maintain relationships with others given the symbiotic benefits that both parties receive from them. The stronger these relationships are the more likely one is to offer guidance or support, whether that be financial, emotional or informational. It should therefore make sense that the greater tie one individual has with another, the more likely he or she is to share content with them.

The amount of content shared with others through Facebook appears more a function of intrinsic than extrinsic motivators. Whether to gain cognitive satisfaction or confidence, to feel socially accepted or even receive feedback from others, individuals' willingness to share content was not driven by a need for externally stimulated benefits. Instead the intrinsic benefits of altruism, or simply sharing material to improve the welfare of others, were the primary motivators for passing on content through Facebook. These results likely stem from the close relationships that individuals have with one another on Facebook. From its origin, the site has attempted to improve communication and support interaction between family members, friends, and colleagues in real life (Zhao, Grasmuck and Martin 2008; Xie, Morris and Zhang 2011). These emotional links between individuals likely encourage them to share information, whether it improves awareness or insight on an issue or simply makes them laugh, that is genuinely beneficial and tailored to individual needs. The significant relationship between tie strength and quantity of shared content further validates this explanation, because closer relationships lead to a greater awareness of others' needs, which thus encourages greater content sharing that may perhaps attend to these needs.

Finally, one's consumption of electronic content influenced forwarding behavior, such that people who spend more time online consuming information are more likely to pass along different content to others on Facebook. It is thus important to recognize the antecedent of users consuming online content. Previous studies have provided evidence that external factors that encourage people to consume online information include perceived usefulness, perceived service quality, trust, networking, and subjective norm (Chen and Corkindale 2008; Chiu, Hsu and Wang 2006); internal factors that lead to an increase of consumer online navigational behavior include a high individual optimum stimulation level (OSL).

Among control variables both gender and the number of Facebook friends one has were positively associated with the frequency of content sharing on Facebook. Similar to the strength of social tie, the latter relationship supports the role that social context plays in one's tendency to share information on social networking sites. That women pass along information more than men offers some value to organizations and companies looking to target specific populations. Individual's Facebook usage (frequency) did influence forwarding, but this relationship was negative -- a finding not easily explained.

In regards to what type of product content is more likely to become viral on Facebook, interesting advertisements were most frequently passed on, followed by product helpful tips, interesting product information, coupons or free stuff, positive product reviews, brand news, and finally negative product reviews. Similar to results from a previous study (Phelps et. al., 2004), jokes were the most common content shared by users on Facebook (72.5%); however, unlike in Phelps' study, this study found that crime warnings were not frequently forwarded on Facebook. The findings not only enhance the knowledge of a more general pass-along behavior -- i.e. the focus is not particularly product-related -- but also have important marketing implications.

Implications

The current study brings to light the internal and external motivators that influence the pass-along effects on the most popular SNS, Facebook. The present findings have implications for both researchers and practitioners. Overall this study expands the literature on viral marketing by examining factors that encourage people to forward online content on Facebook. It also provides a base for the research of pass-along effects on Social Networking Sites. The empirical analysis can also help practitioners form more effective viral marketing strategies targeting social networking sites users.

In order to create online marketing content that can go viral on SNS, marketers should match online content to consumers' motivations in relation to forwarding behavior. Specifically, marketers should target their message to e-Mavens who have strong social tie with other users of SNS and in ways that exhibit the benefits of their product for others, because users are more likely to pass along viral content – especially if they feel it will truly benefit others. Practitioners should also send viral marketing content to users who consume more online content than ones who consume less, because the former are more likely to forward these messages to others than the latter.

To design interesting advertisements would be a good strategy for viral marketing, given that interesting ads are the most forwarded product-related viral content on Facebook. Moreover, integrating jokes and games in the advertisements would enhance the likelihood of people forwarding the ads. In order to maximize opportunities for their content to be “viral”, companies should make the campaign more interesting, humorous and interactive in the formats of pictures, videos, and hyperlinks.

Limitation and Future Research

This study has a number of limitations. First, the majority of Facebook users consist of college students who volunteered to participate in this study. Yet in recent years older generations and professionals have joined Facebook at a much faster rate than other demographic groups and are frequently using the site. Thus this study acknowledges that findings cannot be generalized to all Facebook members, and future research should conduct work on these groups. Second, the current study only uses a survey to explain consumers' motivations and behaviors. Future work should systematically replicate the research with other procedures (e.g., using forwarding as a dependent variable under new experimental treatments).

Given the link between intrinsic motivations and the relationship strength that individuals have with one another on Facebook, future studies could compare different electronic communities to determine whether the motivations for forwarding various types of content differ on sites with greater anonymity. Lastly, this paper only focused on the sender of viral content. Future research could shift the focus and examine the reaction and behavior of receivers of the forwarded content. For example, under what conditions would the receiver forward identical content to more of his/her friends and make the content more “viral”? Or in what conditions would the receiver take action to purchase the marketed products? Whether it makes a difference if the content was forwarded by a friend as opposed to a stranger?

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THE INFLUENCE OF SENDER TRUST AND ADVERTISER TRUST ON MULTI-STAGE EFFECTS OF VIRAL ADVERTISING

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Abstract

Despite the growing interest in viral advertising among advertising practitioners and scholars, scholarly knowledge on how viral advertising works has been limited. To fill this void, this study examined the effects of two types of sources in viral advertising: the advertiser as the message creator and a sender as a message distributor. Specifically, this study tested the influence of the two types of source trust on each of four stages of viral advertising effects using a field experiment. The four stages of viral advertising effects include: (1) email recognition; (2) perception of a viral advertising message prior to opening it; (3) voluntary exposure to the email; and (4) attitudinal outcomes.

The experimental manipulation occurred in a real life situation using a between-subjects experimental design. The subjects were randomly assigned to one of four conditions in a 2 x 2 factorial design: Two sender conditions (trusted versus a less trusted sender) x two advertiser conditions (trusted versus less trusted advertiser). Tax preparation service was selected as the product category of this study. To manipulate the level of advertiser trust, H&R Block was chosen as a trusted advertiser and a fictitious tax preparation service, RefundWow was created as a less trusted advertiser. As experimental stimuli, this study used two types of viral advertising – an information ad and an entertainment ad. For the information viral ad stimuli from the trusted advertiser condition, this study used tax tip information web pages from the official H&R Block website. For the less trusted advertiser condition, a fictitious website for RefundWow was created. This website included tax tip information web pages, where the information was the same as that on the H&R Block website. For the entertainment viral ad stimuli, three existing viral videos were selected from H&R Block's actual viral ad campaign. Each video showed one person dreaming about what he/she wanted to do with their tax refund. To manipulate the advertiser trust conditions, these three videos were modified by inserting either the H&R Block or RefundWow brand name and logo at the beginning and the end of the videos. These videos were posted on YouTube. A pilot test was performed to check the manipulation and the results demonstrated successful manipulation. For the manipulation of sender trust, the subjects in the trusted sender condition received a viral ad email sent by an actual friend or family member. The subjects in the less trusted sender condition received a viral ad email sent by an unknown person.

The findings provide clear empirical evidence for the influence of sender trust and advertiser trust on viral ad effects, but also reveal interesting differences between the effects of sender trust and advertiser trust. First, this study found a significant direct influence of sender trust on all four effect stages. Specifically, the results demonstrate that, compared to an email from an unknown, thus less trusted, person, a viral email sent from a trusted sender is: (1) more likely to be recognized, (2) perceived to be more informative, more entertaining, less irritating, and less risky, (3) more likely to be opened, and (4) more likely to generate positive attitudes. Interestingly, effect of sender trust on voluntary exposure to the email seems to be both direct and indirect through its influence on perceived entertainment and perceived risk.

Second, a significant direct influence of advertiser trust was also found for three of the four viral ad effects. A viral ad created by a trusted advertiser is: (1) more likely to be recognized, (2) perceived to be more informative and less risky, and (3) more likely to generate positive attitudes. However, the effect of advertiser trust on voluntary exposure to the email seems to be only indirect through its influence on the pre-exposure ad perceptions.

This study also found a significant interaction effect of sender trust and advertiser trust on pre-exposure perceived entertainment and attitudinal outcomes. Specifically, the effects of advertiser trust on pre-exposure perceptions and attitude toward the email were significant only in the low sender trust condition (i.e., when the viral ad email was sent by an unknown person). When a viral ad email is sent by a close friend or family member, the ad recipient is likely to perceive and accept the email without considering much about other factors, because he has a strong willingness to rely on the sender. On the other hand, when a viral ad email is sent by an unknown person, the

ad recipient's responses to the email will depend on other factors including advertiser trust. These findings suggest that, in general, sender trust is likely to be a stronger influence on viral advertising effects than advertiser trust.

This study's findings contribute to the advertising research literature in three ways. First, this study contributes to enhancing our understanding of how viral advertising works by elaborating on the four-stage model of viral advertising effects and identifying and testing key influencers at each of the effect stages. Second, this study is the first attempt to empirically test the causal relationship between the source factors and viral advertising effects. Although several scholars have suggested the importance of source influence in understanding viral advertising effects, the causal relationship has not been empirically examined. This study fills this gap by conducting a field experiment that enabled us to capture the effect of sender trust and advertiser trust with the benefit of enhanced external validity. Third, this study sheds light on the trust construct as a viable conceptual framework for interactive advertising research and source trust as a major influencing factor of interactive advertising effects.

This study also offers practical implications for advertising practitioners. First, our findings suggest that a viral ad campaign that is designed to be shared through pre-existing social networks among consumers can be useful in achieving advertiser-expected final outcomes. If a viral ad email is sent by a close friend or family member, ad recipients would be more likely to open the message and more likely to form more favorable attitude toward the brand. Second, our findings suggest that the effect of a viral advertising campaign can vary by the advertiser's reputation. We found significant interaction effects of sender trust and advertiser trust showing that when a viral ad was sent by a close friend or family member, there was no significant difference in perceived entertainment and attitude toward the email between an advertiser with high reputation and an unknown advertiser. The results suggest that viral advertising can be especially beneficial to relatively unknown advertisers such as newer firms or those who do not have enough resources for mass media branding campaigns.

Additionally, this study demonstrated that perceived entertainment and perceived risk at the pre-exposure stage seem to be important factors influencing voluntary exposure to a viral email. These findings suggest that, to increase consumers' voluntary exposure to a viral ad message, advertisers should pay close attention to message cues that are likely to influence consumers' pre-exposure perceptions of the ad. These might include the message title, the use or non-use of attachments, and strategies that could enhance consumer's anticipation of entertainment value and/or lower perceived risk.

To further test this study's findings, future research is strongly encouraged to examine source trust influence in different types of viral advertising such as information vs. entertainment ads, viral ad campaigns providing an incentive to a sender, and campaigns providing discount coupons. Application of the trust concept and the conceptual framework to other types of interactive advertising is also strongly advocated. This study argues that trust should be a crucial factor in understanding the effects of various online advertising forms. To provide a more comprehensive picture of how viral advertising works, more studies are needed to incorporate both the effects of a viral ad on pass-along behaviors as well as effects on advertiser-expected end outcomes. Other methodological approaches to study viral advertising effects are also warranted.

ADVERTISING AND MORAL HEURISTICS: AN EXPLORATION OF PERCEPTIONS OF THE TERM “CRUELTY FREE”

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Abstract

In Saul Alinsky's 1969 book *Reveille for Radicals*, he wrote "Most people are eagerly groping for ... some way in which they can bridge the gap between their morals and their practices". Today, many consumers try to bridge that gap by participating in what has been termed ethical consumerism: the intentional purchase of products and services that the customer considers to be ethically produced. But do consumer perceptions of whether products are indeed ethical (developed through exposure to advertising and other marketing materials) match reality? This study investigated consumer perceptions of the term 'cruelty free', which is used by many companies to suggest that their products were not tested on animals. However, no legal definition of the term 'cruelty free' exists, and companies can (and do) use the term when the product or its ingredients were indeed tested on animals. This exploratory study suggests that many consumers use the term 'cruelty-free' as a moral heuristic in decision-making, even after they are provided information suggesting the heuristic is flawed.

ASSESSING BEAUTY-CARE BRANDS ADVERTISING EFFICIENCY: COMPARISON BETWEEN LOCAL BRANDS AND IMPORTED BRANDS IN THE U.S. MARKET

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Abstract

In an attempt to compare the competitiveness of local brands and imported brands in the United States market, the world's largest single domestic market, this research uses Data Envelopment Analysis to evaluate the advertising efficiency of U.S. beauty-care brands and non-U.S. beauty-care brands, based on their advertising expenditures on eight media and their revenues. The analyses reveal that 47.4 percent of the companies examined advertised efficiently, and for inefficient companies, on average, 75 percent of their advertising spending was wasted. The results also indicate that, though, overall, U.S. brands are more efficient than non-U.S. brands on advertising spending, the competitiveness of non-U.S. brands should not be underestimated, since some of them advertised efficiently or almost efficiently.

AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF FINANCIAL SERVICES ADVERTISING ON INVESTORS' DECISION-MAKING

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Abstract

This study examines how creative strategy, ad disclosure and regulatory focus influence and interact with investor decision making in the context of financial services advertising. Results from a between-subject experiment indicate that investors' regulatory focus (promotion focus vs. prevention focus) moderates the effects of financial services advertising related to creative strategy and ad disclosure. Specifically, prevention-focused investors (promotion-focused investors) had more favorable attitudes towards and showed greater purchase intentions of a financial product when exposed to informational ads and ads with disclosures (transformational ads and ads without disclosures). The authors provide theoretical, managerial, and public policy implications.

ROAD KILL: THE IMPACT OF AVERSIVE HIGHWAY SAFETY VIDEOS ON MESSAGE PROCESSING

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Abstract

Advertising researchers have been interested in measuring the effects of emotional content in advertisements for several decades. Emerging along with scholarly interest in the role of emotion in persuasion appears to have been a concurrent industry trend toward more frequently producing messages that are increasingly edgier in terms of emotional content. A wide range of emotional content strategies that can generally be categorized into the areas of sex, fear, and humor based messages have been attempted in order to make a client's message breakthrough an increasing level of advertising clutter. Sex appeal based messages appear to have become more explicitly sexual and fear appeal based messages have appeared to become more graphically negative. The specific research question investigated here is: How does variation in the intensity and placement of negatively graphic, aversive content in highway safety video ads impact cognitive and emotional processing of the message and emerging message perceptions? This question was answered by conducting an experiment in which emotional content of highway safety video ads was manipulated by selecting existing professionally produced ads, containing consistently low emotionally aversive content, ads featuring consistently high emotionally aversive content, and ads in which the emotional content made a strong switch approximately midway through the message from low to high aversive.

Methodology

Participants and experimental design

This study was sponsored by the director of the Alaska Injury Prevention Center, who chose the demographic the study would focus on—males aged 20-30—based on traffic safety statistics indicating this to be a demographic particularly at risk for engaging in unsafe driving behavior. Fifty participants were recruited from a large Midwestern University community. The experiment employed a 3 (aversive message content: low-aversive, high-aversive, switched low to high-aversive) X 3 (message) X 4 (order) mixed model repeated measures design. Aversive message content for this experiment was conceptualized as negatively graphic visual scenes depicting the consequences of unsafe driving behaviors. The presence and timing of negatively graphic visual scenes was varied to create the three levels of aversive message content, consistently low levels of aversive content throughout the message, consistently high levels of aversive message content throughout the message, and switched low to high levels of aversive content partway through the message.

Dependent Variables

Motivational activation was conceptualized as the intensity of evoked sympathetic arousal during exposure to the messages. This dependent variable was indexed by recording participants' galvanic skin conductance level.

Negative emotional experience was defined as variation in emotional activity in the negative valence dimension of emotion. It was indexed by recording the facial EMG signal obtained from the corrugator facial muscle region.

Cognitive resources allocated to encoding were conceptualized as mental effort invested in forming a short term working memory representation of information contained in the videos. This was measured by recording heart rate.

Message perception variables were indexed through existing self-report scales of empathy, sympathy, narrative engagement and perceived message effectiveness.

Procedure

This experiment was completed in a media psychophysiology lab located at a large Midwestern University. Participants were welcomed and prepped for the collection of the psychophysiological measures. Participants then viewed the twelve traffic safety videos, completing the self-report measures in between each video.

Results

Motivational activation

There was a significant main effect of aversive message content on skin conductance ($F(1.72, 84.287) = 18.597$, $p=.000$ partial eta-squared = .28) and aversive message content X time interaction ($F(4.976, 243.847) = 11.762$, $p=.000$ partial eta-squared = .19). Skin conductance level across time for the majority of message exposure was higher for high aversive and switched aversive message content with a particularly noticeable jump in skin conductance level part way through these switched aversive content messages, as would be expected when a switch in the aversive message content occurs.

Negative emotional experience

There was a main effect of ad type on corrugator activity ($F(1.717, 84.149) = 8.897$, $p=.001$ partial eta-squared = .15), and the aversive message content X time interaction approached statistical significance ($F(5.134, 251.563) = 1.983$, $p=.08$ partial eta-squared = .04). The highway safety videos featuring aversive content both consistently throughout the message as well as in a switch from low to high aversiveness evoked consistently higher levels of corrugator facial muscle activity across the majority of the message compared to low aversive messages.

Cognitive resources allocated to attention

There was a significant main effect of ad type on heart rate ($F(1.833, 89.825) = 4.37$, $p=.018$ partial eta-squared = .08), and aversive message content X time interaction ($F(22.282, 1091.799) = 4.649$, $p=.000$ partial eta-squared = .09). There was a general pattern of cardiac deceleration across exposure to the first portion of all three aversive message content categories. This changes part way through exposure to the videos when heart rate accelerates for low aversive message content, but continues to decelerate for high and switched aversive message content.

Message perception

There was a main effect of aversive message content on narrative engagement, $F(2, 80) = 143.18$, $p=.000$, explaining 78.2 percent of the variance in this measure. The means for low aversive, high aversive, and switched aversive were 4.107, 5.595, and 5.465, respectively. There was also a main effect of aversive message content on empathy, $F(2, 80) = 52.88$, $p=.000$, explaining 56.9 percent of the variance in this measure. The means for low aversive, high aversive, and switched aversive were 3.518, 5.130, and 5.379, respectively. Analysis also revealed a main effect of aversive message content on sympathy, $F(2, 80) = 40.2$, $p=.000$, explaining 50.1 percent of the variance in this measure. The means for low aversive, high aversive, and switched aversive were 5.547, 6.737, and 6.764, respectively. Finally, a main effect of aversive message content on perceived effectiveness for drivers similar to participants, $F(2, 80) = 126.82$, $p=.000$, explaining 76.0 percent of the variance in this measure. The means for low aversive, high aversive, and switched aversive were 4.764, 7.333, and 6.943, respectively.

Discussion

This study has shown the use of graphic images in traffic safety messages for the demographic of males aged 20-30 is directly related to embodied motivated processing of the message as well as emerging message perceptions. What this shows is that when developing these messages for this particular demographic, aversive images should be used early and often. The earlier the onset of aversive images and the more aversive those images are in a traffic safety message, the more resources are allocated to encoding that message. This study has theoretical

as well as practical implications and gives researchers further insight into the interaction of emotion and brain development when processing persuasive health message.

THE EFFECTS OF FEATURE AND BENEFIT SENTENCES ON MEMORY AND ATTITUDES FOR PRINT ADVERTISING

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Abstract

Copy testing research has produced conflicting results regarding the independence of recall, recognition and attitude constructs. The presence or absence of pairs of consumer benefit and product feature sentences were manipulated in a within-subjects experiment using magazine ads as stimuli. The dependent variables were phrase recognition, morpheme recall and attitude toward the ad. Results showed that ads with benefits or features enhanced morphemic recall and attitudes compared to the control condition. Ads where benefits and features were integrated boosted attitudes and recall higher than benefits-only or features-only ads.

The purpose of this study was to investigate how consumer benefits and product features in print advertising influence readers' memory for ad copy elements and their evaluations of the ads. As concepts, features and benefits have long been linked together in the marketing, advertising and sales fields, with the general connection that customers may be impressed by a product's features but they are sold when they understand its benefits. Though the assumption has been with us for a long time, empirical research in advertising testing the idea that features and benefits work together is rare.

Most copy testing techniques are designed to assess and compare audience reactions to entire messages. But accepted models of cognitive processing suggest people process advertising messages at varying levels depending on a host of antecedent conditions and confounding variables including motivation and ability to process (MacInnis & Jaworski 1989). To better understand the complex processes involved in predicting how consumers respond to specific arguments contained in ad copy Meeds and Bradley (2007) suggest the sentence or phrase is the appropriate unit of analysis because it is on the same level as the argument.

The experimental design was a two (consumer benefit sentences present/consumer benefit sentences absent) by two (product feature sentences present/product feature sentences absent) within-subjects factorial design. Each participant read eight ads, two in each experimental condition.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the presence of features and benefits would improve readers' recognition memory for ad copy. A repeated measures ANOVA was run with the four treatment conditions of *benefits only*, *features only*, *benefits plus features*, and *no benefits/no features (control)* as the within-subjects factor. Participants' d' scores were the dependent variable. None of the tests for hypothesis 1 were supported. Hypothesis 2 predicted that the presence of features and benefits would improve readers' recall memory for ad copy. The predictions for recall memory dealing with benefits (H2a and H2c) were supported, but the prediction for features enhancing recall memory was not. Hypothesis 3 predicted that benefits and features would enhance attitudes toward the ad ($A_{(ad)}$). Hypothesis tests for 3a and 3b were supported, and two of the three predictions in hypothesis 3c were supported.

Consistent with the hypotheses, recall memory for words in advertising copy improved when benefit or feature sentences were included. In particular, the total number of morphemes recalled was the highest in the *benefits plus features* condition, followed by the *benefits only* and *features only* conditions, with the *control* condition having the lowest recall. In addition to recalling more words overall, participants recalled fewer headline or theme morphemes and made fewer incorrect guesses when they read ads that had benefits or features or both. This suggests that the benefits and features content was also more readily retrieved, although a direct comparison with the *control* condition was not possible. Conversely, recognition memory did not perform as predicted in hypothesis 1. In fact, recognition memory scores were highest in the *control* condition. Drawing the conclusion from this null result that recognition and recall operated as distinct processes is not warranted. It could be that the two measures were in fact distinct from

each other in this case, or there could be other explanations for the null result in H1. The $A_{(ad)}$ scores were also highest for the ads with benefit and feature sentences. *Benefits plus features* $A_{(ad)}$ was significantly higher than *benefits only* and $A_{(ad)}$ in all three treatment conditions was higher than in the *control* condition. This linear relationship supports the longstanding but rarely tested idea that benefits and features together are more persuasive. The results of this study provide evidence that readers respond positively and retain more product-related information when features and benefits are integrated with each other, at least for the kinds of print ads used in this study. The primary implication of this study for advertising scholars is that sentence-level manipulations were shown to independently influence both attitudes for ads and recall for specific types of words.

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WHEN WE DON'T STEREOTYPE: EFFECTS OF STEREOTYPE REDUCTION ON PROCESSING AND EFFECTS OF ADVERTISING MESSAGES

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Abstract

A 2 (stereotype training) x 2 (ad protagonist race) x 3 (message repetition) experiment investigated the effects of stereotype-reduction on explicit evaluations, cognitive and emotional processing of ads. Participants ($N = 52$) were trained to negate or affirm automatic stereotypes and viewed ads with black or white protagonists. Results showed that the interaction between stereotype training and ad protagonist race significantly affected purchase intentions, but not A_{ad} and A_b . Stereotype training lead to varying patterns of cognitive resource allocation and unpleasant emotional responses for ads based on protagonist race. Results are discussed in light of stereotypes and advertising, and LC4MP.

SYMBOLS OR ICONS IN GAY-THEMED ADS: HOW TO TARGET GAY AUDIENCES

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Abstract

This study examines the characteristics of gay-themed ads, focusing on culturally meaningful symbols and iconographies, in gay magazines (specifically *Out* and *Curve*). In recent years, advertising scholars and practitioners have grown more interested in how gay-themed ads influence gay consumers and non-gay consumers. In gay-themed ads, advertisers employ culturally meaningful symbols or iconographies as part of an effort to not alienate non-gay consumers. Gay-themed advertising, however, has yet to be deeply analyzed in terms of creativity or consumer reactions. We go on to clarify the findings' implications, discuss some concerns raised over gay-themed ads, and suggest directions for future research.

EXPLORING CONSUMERS' ANALYTIC-HOLISTIC THINKING STYLE, SELF-CONSTRUAL AND THEIR MODERATING EFFECTS ON VISUAL METAPHORS IN ADVERTISING

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Abstract

Visual metaphor in advertising asserts a similarity between two visual elements that one does not usually expect to associate together. This study focused on examining consumer culturally derived individual characteristics – Analytic-Holistic thinking style, interdependent and independent self-construal and their moderating roles on visual metaphor ads. An experiment involving 129 culturally diverse undergraduate students was conducted. We found that visual metaphor techniques enhance persuasion outcomes on consumers' evaluation of the ad and the brand and their purchase intentions only for low involvement product. Both consumer analytical-holistic processing style and their self-construal moderate the effects of visual metaphor technique on persuasion.

**ADVERTISING IN BLOGS:
EFFECTS OF AD-CONTEXT CONGRUENCE, PRODUCT
INVOLVEMENT AND ISSUE INVOLVEMENT ON RESPONSES TO
BANNER ADS**

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Abstract

This study examined the effect of ad-context congruence, product and issue involvement on consumers' responses to banner ads on blogs. Results indicate that ads placed on a congruent context generated more favorable responses than those placed on incongruent context for high and low product involvement. However, issue involvement moderated ad effectiveness. Under the congruence condition, high involvement induced more favorable responses, than low involvement. Conversely, low issue involvement generated more favorable responses under the incongruent condition. Findings suggest that ad/context congruence is especially important when targeting audience with high personal relevance to a given issue.

HOW *FORTUNE* 500 COMPANIES COMMUNICATE WITH CONSUMERS USING TWITTER: CONTENT ANALYSIS OF CORPORATE TWITTER ACTIVITIES

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Abstract

This study seeks to examine how corporations communicate with consumers within social media. In particular, Twitter activities of *Fortune* 500 companies were content-analyzed. In doing so, this article investigated the four factors (shared information, the way of communication, tweet contents, and tactics) to examine the current status of online marketing communication in social media. The findings are that the corporations tend to disclose their basic information mostly on their Twitter pages and mainly post organic tweets (65.9%) and corporate news (48.7%). In terms of tactics, corporations apply the “link” function to connect to their websites, blogs, or Facebook pages. In addition, *Fortune* 500 rankings and the Corporate Activity Score (CAS) did not work as an index to evaluate the corporate use patterns in Twitter. However, the product groups categorized by the FCB-grid model (high/low involvement and thinking/feeling) proved that the model is applicable to marketing communication in social media. The results of this study could help with the development of a measurement tool for managing consumers and designing future plans within a social networking site (SNS).

PSYCHOGRAPHIC PREDICTORS OF WEB 2.0 USE AMONG BABY BOOMERS

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Mira Lee, Chung-Ang University, Seoul, Korea
Steven Marzocchi, Emerson College, Boston, MA

Abstract

This study profiled baby boomers' psychographics that influence Web 2.0 use – social networking sites (SNSs), blogs, and content sharing sites. With a nationally representative sample, this study found that baby boomers' sociability and public self-consciousness were positively related to SNS use. For blogs, opinion leadership and optimism appeared to be important yet modest predictors. Innovativeness, word of mouth, and optimism positively impacted the use of content sharing sites. Civic engagement, curiosity, and attitude toward the Internet emerged as common psychographics for Web 2.0 use. Theoretical and managerial implications were discussed.

TO APP OR NOT TO APP: ENGAGING CONSUMERS VIA BRANDED MOBILE APPS

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Abstract

With the rapid growth of smartphone and smartphone application users, mobile apps have attracted an increasing amount of attention as a marketing communication platform, one that can be effective at engaging consumers. A content analysis of 106 branded apps of global brands found that most global brands incorporate into their apps at least one of the attributes of consumer engagement examined in this study (i.e., vividness, novelty, motivation, feedback, control, customization, and multi-platforming) and frequently employ entertainment features. In addition, this study showed the extent to which branded apps employ transformational and informational message strategies. Lastly, brand experiences through branded apps include brand identity and a variety of brand-related activities. Implications for mobile advertisers and branded app designers are discussed.

PERCEIVED “HISPANICNESS” VERSUS “AMERICANNESSE”: A STUDY OF BRAND ETHNICITY WITH HISPANIC CONSUMERS

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Wan-Hsiu Sunny Tsai, University of Miami, Coral Gables, FL
Gonzalo Soruco, University of Miami, Coral Gables, FL

Abstract

This article discusses how consumers differentiate competing brands with similar utilitarian value on the basis of brand ethnicity, and examines how perceived brand ethnicity influences consumers' brand preference and choice. Study findings, based on both qualitative and quantitative research with self-identified Hispanic consumers, indicate that Hispanic consumers associate certain brands with Hispanic culture and other brands with American culture. In a hypothetical purchasing scenario, perceived brand ethnicity affects consumers' brand preference significantly in accordance with their cultural orientation. However, in a real consumer behavior setting, external factors such as brand accessibility attenuate the effects of brand ethnicity.

GREEN INTENTIONS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON ADVERTISING AND THE ENVIRONMENTAL MOVEMENT

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Abstract

Young adult attitudes toward and intentions to make green consumption choices are influenced by several factors. This article analyzes in-depth interviews of young adults and examines their attitudes on green advertising and the environmental movement in general. Bogazzi and Warshaw's Theory of Trying is applied and results indicate that attitudes toward success and/or failure (on both an individual and collective level) play a major role in young adult consumer willingness and intention to try eco-friendly products and/or practices.

CULTURE, DEVELOPMENT, AND ADVERTISING CONTENT: AN EXPLORATORY REPLICATION AND EXTENSION OF PAST INTERNATIONAL ADVERTISING RESEARCH TO OUTDOOR ADVERTISING

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Abstract

Research has found a strong link between the information level in advertising and level of development (for a meta-analysis see Abernethy and Franke, 1996). Differences in advertising information content is one of the most studied topics in international advertising and over the past twenty-five years of research, these differences have been found between at least thirteen countries and for a variety of media. In sum, these articles also provide strong theoretical and empirical evidence of a need to adapt advertising information levels in response to developmental differences (Abernethy and Franke, 1996). International advertising research also consistently suggests that culture is reflected in marketing messages (e.g., Tse, Belk, and Zhou, 1989; Albers-Miller and Gelb, 1996), and that the greater the fit between marketing message and local culture, the more effective the message (Luna et al., 2002; Baack and Singh, 2007). Culture's reflection in advertising messages has been consistently found in a variety of media including television advertising (Cho, et al., 1999), print advertising (Albers-Miller and Gelb, 1996), and website content (Baack and Singh, 2007). These articles support a strong theoretical and methodological tradition regarding the study of cultural values and advertising, and provide strong evidence of culture's reflection in marketing communications.

The core contribution of this study, therefore, is to replicate and extend previous research on advertising content, culture, and level of development by testing the ability to generalize earlier research findings to outdoor advertisements. Research on boundary conditions and generalizability are an important and under-utilized component of academic research (Evanschitzky et al., 2007) and recent marketing writings have stressed the importance of replication and extension research. Authors note that many replications fail to support the original findings (Hubbard and Armstrong, 1994), and that there is both a paucity of and a need for more replication and extension research (Hunter, 2001). Advertising research is one specific topic where there has been a call for more replication and extension research (Madden, Easley and Dunn, 1995). The following hypotheses are tested:

H1: The number of advertising information cues in outdoor advertisements is correlated positively with country developmental level.

H2: Cultural values are reflected in outdoor advertisements.

H3a: The relative frequency of advertising appeals reflecting high individualism is correlated positively with country scores on the individualism dimension.

H3b: The relative frequency of advertising appeals reflecting high power distance is correlated positively with country scores on the power distance dimension.

H3c: The relative frequency of advertising appeals reflecting high uncertainty avoidance is correlated positively with country scores on the uncertainty avoidance dimension.

H3d: The relative frequency of advertising appeals reflecting high masculinity is correlated positively with country scores on the masculinity dimension.

Outdoor advertisements were sampled from twelve countries (Montreal, Canada; Beijing, China; Bogota, Colombia; Budapest, Hungary; Delhi, India; Oslo, Norway; Bratislava, Slovakia; Zurich, Switzerland; Taipei, Taiwan; Istanbul, Turkey; Turks and Caicos; and New York, the United States). Within each respective country, outdoor advertisements were sampled from the city which serves as the primary business or financial center for the country. This study uses a content analysis method to code the content of the outdoor advertisements sampled, resulting in 44 items being coded

Statistical analysis examined both information cues and cultural appeals. The total number of information cues for each country was divided by the number of advertisements sampled for that country. The first notable feature of the information cue data was the remarkably low level of occurrence. The average across this sample was 1.37 information cues per advertisement. This is comparable to the averages in the Abernethy and Franke's (1996) meta-analysis – namely, the 1.42 average for out-of-home advertising. For each country, the average number of cues per advertisement was then correlated with its HDI score. The resulting correlation coefficient, using the non-parametric Spearman Rho is -0.496 (p-value = 0.045ⁱ). This supports Hypothesis 1.

The second step was to analyze the cultural appeals in the out-of-home advertisements. This analysis echoed the methods used in Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996). The first step was a Chi-Square analysis (a 2 X 12 comparison, the appeal was present or absent X the twelve countries sampled) of the 30 advertising appeals. Overall, the analysis of the 29 appeals that appeared found significant results for 17 items ($p < 0.05$, two-tailed) (Independence, Distinctive, Self-respect, Popular, Family, Community, Ornamental, Dear, Cheap, Plain, Safety, Tamed, Youth, Casual, Effective, Productivity, and Frail) and approaching significant results for two other items ($p < 0.10$) (Status and Humility). Ten items were not significantly different (Affiliation, Succorance, Vain, Nurturance, Durable, Adventure, Untamed, Magic, Convenient, Natural).

The next step was to use correlation analysis to confirm the hypotheses. None of the single appeals correlated significantly with country scores on Individualism. These results fail to support Hypothesis 3a. For power distance, the correlations for both the high and low summed power distance scores were not significant. These results fail to support for Hypothesis 3b. For uncertainty avoidance, Safety Appeal had a significant ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$) Spearman Rho correlation, and the correlation for the summed high uncertainty avoidance score was non-significant but in the predicted direction. In contrast, the correlation for the summed low uncertainty avoidance score was non-significant and in the wrong direction. These results provide initial, but very partial support for Hypothesis 3c. For masculinity, the correlation for the high summed masculinity scores was insignificant and not in the predicted direction while the summed low masculinity scores was insignificant but in the predicted direction. Overall, these results fail to support Hypothesis 3d. Taken as a group, the results of the cultural analysis fail to support Hypothesis 2.

Overall, the study found some evidence that the amount of information in an ad is related to development level. Even with the low sample size of twelve countries, the statistical results were significant. The results, therefore, replicate past studies on this topic and show that level of development influences advertising content. The results regarding cultural value reflection were disappointing. Only one of the advertising appeals had a statistically significant relationship with the corresponding culture dimension.

ⁱ One-tailed test.

CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM IN TIMES OF ECONOMIC CRISIS

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Young-A Song, University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX

We-Na Lee, University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX

Abstract

As consumers' ethnocentric tendencies heighten in intensity when a country is threatened, this cross-cultural comparison study aims to understand how the recent global financial crisis may have influenced the phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism (CE). This study compares the levels of CE in the US and China and examines patriotism, nationalism, internationalism and demographic factors as antecedents of CE in order to understand how consumers' ethnocentric tendencies vary across cultures. Results indicate that American consumers are more ethnocentric than Chinese consumers while nationalism has the strongest impact on CE in both countries.

**SPECIAL TOPICS SESSION:
CAN ONLINE EDUCATION BEAT THE CLASSROOM?
THE LATEST METHODS, PROGRAMS AND CURRICULUM DESIGN.**

*Moderators: Keith A. Quesenberry, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD
Kristen Wilkerson, West Virginia University, Morgantown, VA*

**WHEN IT COMES TO ACADEMIC RIGOR
IS ONLINE THE EASY WAY OUT?**

Keith A. Quesenberry, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD

Quesenberry began the session with key observations about the increasing acceptance of online learning including the buzz surrounding the Department of Education, study quoted in a *New York Times* article stating that, "On average, students in online learning conditions performed better than those receiving face-to-face instruction." He also cited a Sloan Foundation study reporting that, 31 percent of higher education students now take at least one course online and the 10 percent growth for online enrolments far exceeds the less than one percent growth of overall higher education. But as evidence of effectiveness and demand grows, how do we ensure high-quality online courses that meet or exceed the expectations of the traditional classroom while complementing traditional programs? Quesenberry shared specific course structures, assignments and techniques on how he took one course from a traditional in-class structure with no online components to a completely online format maintaining the same content and grade averages while increasing student evaluations.

**HOW DO EMPLOYERS VIEW ONLINE DEGREES?
ACCEPTANCE IS ON THE RISE.**

Kristen Wilkerson, West Virginia University, Morgantown, VA

Wilkerson spoke about the significant number of non-traditional college students participating in online courses or seeking full degrees online. She discussed how online programs serve as an attractive alternative to on-campus learning because they allow busy adults to balance work and home more easily. As the number of online students steadily increases, the number of colleges and universities providing online programs also continues to rise. According to recent statistics, over 90 percent of traditional institutions provide or plan to provide some kind of distance learning program. But what do current and future employers — one of the most important audiences from the student's point of view— think of online courses and degrees? Wilkerson reported results of a recent survey of human resource professionals detailing the overall acceptance of employees participating in online education. As far as employment possibilities go, she said the outlook seems rosy for the world of online education.

**HYBRID COURSE DESIGNS CAN
OFFER THE BEST OF BOTH WORLDS.**

Michael Coolsen, Shippensburg University, Shippensburg, PA

Coolsen started his presentation stating that online course curriculum is gaining significant momentum for attracting and delivering effective quality instruction to students. But then he pointed out that many faculty are still

too skeptical of 100 percent online course delivery and thus refuse to abandon the face-to-face classroom. He stated that there does seem to be an optimal and agreeable solution for both parties: the blended or hybrid course design. In converting a regular face-to-face course to a hybrid course, substituting a portion of online instruction for face-to-face classroom time increases the flexibility and convenience of the course for the student. Similarly, converting a 100 percent online course to a hybrid course with some face-to-face classroom time can mitigate faculty skepticism. Coolsen made a strong argument for hybrid courses as “the future” in higher education. He cited recent evidence to support this belief.

A NEW TAKE ON A NEW IDEA: THE ONLINE MASTERS IN TECHNOLOGY AND COMMUNICATION PROGRAM

Heidi Hennink-Kaminski, University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC

Hennink-Kaminski presented a new take on an online interdisciplinary M.A. program grounded in digital media theory and applications. The Masters in Technology and Communication (M.A.T.C.) program is intended mid-career professionals with three or more years in a communications-related field. Students take a set curriculum of coursework which includes conceptual courses such as leadership in digital media economics, news media and society, and digital media law as well as skills-based courses such as usability and multimedia design, and strategic communication. The student cohort is comprised of 16-20 students who take two classes a semester over a two-year period and complete a final project. Other unique features of the program include community-building through an on-campus summer residency orientation session and subsequent media boot camp at the end of the first two semesters and between-course collaboration.

STUDENTS’ PERSPECTIVE ON ONLINE PEDAGOGY: FINDINGS FROM DEPTH INTERVIEWS WITH GRADUATE ONLINE M.A. STUDENTS

Shelly Rodgers, Erin Schauster, Margaret Duffy & Sarah Smith-Frigerio, Missouri School of Journalism, Columbia, MO
Erin Willis, University of Memphis, Memphis, TN

Technology plays an important role in online education. Many universities have reported an increase in the use of online tools. Over the past decade, countless efforts have sought to integrate emerging Internet technologies into the teaching and learning process in higher education and subsequent articles have been written about successes (and failures) of online pedagogy efforts. While an abundance of studies and anecdotes focus on the teacher aspect of Internet technologies, providing insights about how to teach online and overcome challenges, we take a different approach by examining the student aspect to examine challenges and opportunities of online pedagogy. Specifically, we conducted an email survey using open-ended questions with current and former (graduates) of the online M.A. program at the Missouri School of Journalism about what benefits they gained as well as challenges and opportunities they experienced in long-distance learning with technology. The panelists discussed results of the depth interviews to enhance current understanding of online pedagogy from the student’s perspective.

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