

26017148

pt. 1



This is to certify that the

dissertation entitled

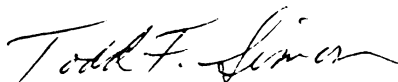
EVALUATING THE UTILITY OF ADVERTISING:
THEORY AND MEASUREMENT

presented by

ROBERT HAL DUCOFFE

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Mass Media


Todd F. Simon

Major professor

Date October 23, 1989

PLACE IN RETURN BOX to remove this checkout from your record.
TO AVOID FINES return on or before date due.

DATE DUE	DATE DUE	DATE DUE
<u>JUN 12 1995</u>	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

MSU Is An Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Institution

c:\circ\dtedue.pm3-p.1

**EVALUATING THE UTILITY OF ADVERTISING:
THEORY AND MEASUREMENT**

By

Robert Hal Ducoffe

A DISSERTATION

**Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of**

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN MASS MEDIA

College of Communication Arts and Sciences

1989

ABSTRACT

EVALUATING THE UTILITY OF ADVERTISING: THEORY AND MEASUREMENT

By

Robert Hal Ducoffe

Advertising campaigns are typically evaluated in terms of sales or communications effects leading to sales reflecting the preponderant concern with assessing advertising from a business, or sender point of view. These approaches, however, offer little information about the needs advertising fulfills for consumers, the receivers, and whether campaigns satisfy their needs. Evidence from numerous consumer surveys demonstrates clearly that consumers remain cynical in their attitudes toward advertising. Unfortunately, in recent decades, regulatory and self-regulatory remedies have generally failed to produce substantive changes in these attitudes.

This research addresses the problem by adopting a different perspective. It explains that advertising should be evaluated based on its utility to consumers. A theory of advertising utility is advanced defining utility as a function of two broad dimensions--informativeness and entertainment value. Each dimension is then further specified by several component variables.

A measurement scale based on this multi-variable model

was created. The scale was pretested with students and then administered via mall-intercept surveys in two regional shopping centers. Measure purification was conducted via confirmatory factor analysis to assess the unidimensionality of individual variable scales. Multiple regression analysis was then employed to examine the theorized model. An experiment utilizing a replicated two-by-two factorial model was also conducted to assess construct validity by testing whether subjects completing the advertising utility scale evaluated experimental advertisements as per theoretical expectations. Oneway ANOVAS were performed on subjects' utility ratings and two-way ANOVAS were performed with informativeness and entertainment value as independent variables.

Results of the confirmatory factor analyses yielded six unidimensional variable scales. The regression model was generally efficient employing five of these variables to explain approximately 50% of the variability in utility. ANOVA results indicated that the two main dimensions, informativeness and entertainment value, had independent and significant impacts on utility, a finding which merits confidence since the design permitted it to be replicated.

Positive results of the study permitted discussion of two specific applications for the advertising utility scale. One involves administering the scale periodically to collect data on which to base an index of advertising utility.

The other concerns integration of the scale with measures currently employed by syndicated advertising research services.

Copyright by
ROBERT HAL DUCOFFE
1989

To my loving mother

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation took about four years to write. Tom Baldwin, the founder of the Mass Media Ph.D. program at Michigan State, gave me the chance to begin my doctoral research in a program that reflects his nature, generous and concilliatory. At no time during this period was anyone more supportive of graduate students' concerns, including my own. Bruce Vanden Bergh, Chair of the Department of Advertising and a member of my committee, paid my salary and rarely said "no" to anything I requested. Though a teacher-scholar, he spent much of the last four years training himself to be an administrator. He is the best boss I've ever worked for.

My research grew out of many discussions with Todd Simon, Chairman of my committee. He is a man who measures his words as if each has some unique purpose of its own. Never have so few had so great an influence on my thinking. His inspiration was the spirit that guided my research. It will forever be impossible for me to disentangle my thinking from his.

Two other committee members, Bonnie Reece and Tom Muth, communicated to me through recurring psychic voices at various times of the day and night. I'd hear Bonnie's when re-reading an imperfectly crafted sentence saying, "What do you really

mean?" Tom's niggled at me every time I ventured into more philosophical terrain. His was the playful but dangerous voice one hears when lured into a game in which one is seriously overmatched.

Several other people gave me valuable assistance. Philip Converse, Director of the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan, gave me advice on scale-design matters. Nora Rifon made helpful suggestions on preliminary stages of the utility scale. Kathy Miller, Assistant Professor in the Department of Communication, helped enormously with analyses of the utility scale data. Barry Litman shared a few of his "tricks" for making multiple regression meaningful. There was also Sherri Austin, and Indra deSilva, my very good friend, who helped convince reluctant shoppers to complete my survey.

I owe at least 12,000 dollars-worth of thanks to the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada for their generous financial support of this research. Even deeper is my gratitude to the Council for allowing me to free up some of my limited funds for an engagement ring permitting me to bring on board the most valuable of associates.

At every stage of this research, every time I reached the point where I could go no further, she waited with outstretched arms to take me beyond where I was. Her emotional and intellectual support are the most profound I have ever known. To my best friend and wife Sandy, I owe more than I can ever acknowledge.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1. EVALUATING THE UTILITY OF ADVERTISING.....	1
Purpose and Justification of Study.....	5
A Series of Indicators to Evaluate Advertising.....	7
An Evaluative Scale for Advertisers.....	15
Limitations of Legal and Regulatory Institutions.....	18
The Supreme Court's Role.....	21
The Federal Trade Commission's Role.....	23
Self-Regulation's Role.....	28
Scope of Study.....	31
ENDNOTES FOR CHAPTER 1.....	34
CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	41
Evaluative Perspectives: Consumer Versus Business.....	41
Sales Effects Theories.....	44
Communications Effects Theories.....	46
Active Learning Theories.....	49
Passive Learning Theories.....	54
Dissonance Reduction Theories.....	59
Adding "Utility" to Communications-Effects Theories...	61
Analyses of the Information Content of	
Advertising.....	63
Time-Based Measures of Consumer Attitudes and	
Sentiments Toward Marketing and Advertising.....	68
Key Functions That Determine Advertising	
Usefulness.....	72
Informational Function.....	72
Entertainment Function.....	75
A Theory of Advertising Utility.....	79
Determinants of Advertising Utility.....	83
Determinants of Information Utility.....	83
Determinants of Entertainment Utility.....	89
Research Questions.....	92
ENDNOTES FOR CHAPTER 2.....	95
CHAPTER 3. METHOD.....	105
Item Writing.....	108
Pretest Data Collection.....	112

Major Data Collection: Survey.....	114
Design.....	115
Sample.....	115
Procedure.....	116
Major Data Collection: Experiment.....	117
Design.....	120
Treatments.....	121
Sample.....	124
Procedure.....	124
Experimental Hypotheses.....	126
Developing Norms.....	128
ENDNOTES FOR CHAPTER 3.....	129
CHAPTER 4. RESULTS.....	133
Measure Purification: Pretests.....	133
Homogeneity of Item Content.....	134
Coefficient Alpha.....	134
Internal Consistency.....	136
Parallelism.....	138
Purification of the Pretest Measure: Summary.....	140
Survey Sample.....	140
Measure Purification: Survey.....	144
Internal Consistency of Revised Scales.....	144
Parallelism of Revised Scales.....	167
Causal Model Analysis.....	173
Construct Validity Analysis.....	182
Summary of Findings.....	196
ENDNOTES FOR CHAPTER FOUR.....	200
CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION.....	203
Do Consumers Think About the "Utility"	
of Advertising?.....	207
Are the Determinants of Advertising Utility	
Measurable?.....	211
Is the Information-Entertainment Taxonomy Valid?.....	217
An Index of Advertising Utility.....	221
Conceptual Development.....	221
Data Development.....	224
Data Collection Method.....	225
Sampling.....	229
Developing Norms.....	231
Aggregation.....	239
Time Period.....	241
Other Implementation Issues.....	242

Campaign Evaluation Via the Advertising Utility Scale.....	243
ENDNOTES FOR CHAPTER 5.....	247
APPENDICES.....	252
APPENDIX A. Pretest Independent Variable Scale.....	252
APPENDIX B. Pretest Dependent Variable Scale.....	261
APPENDIX C. Survey Consent Form.....	262
APPENDIX D. Survey Questionnaire.....	263
APPENDIX E. Product Category Rating Questionnaire.....	270
APPENDIX F. Mean Ratings on Informativeness and Entertainment by Product Category.....	274
APPENDIX G. Pretests of Experimental Commercials.....	275
APPENDIX H. Experiment Consent Form.....	283
APPENDIX I. Experiment Questionnaire.....	284
APPENDIX J. Distribution of Regression Residuals.....	292
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	293

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.	Issues that Need Most Immediate Attention and Change.....	11
Table 2.	Pretest Coefficient Alpha Results.....	135
Table 3.	Revised Item Series.....	141
Table 4.	Survey Sample Characteristics.....	143
Table 5A.	Items and Factor Loadings for Timeliness Scale.....	146
Table 5B.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Timeliness Scale.....	146
Table 6A.	Items and Factor Loadings for Intelligibility Scale.....	147
Table 6B.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Intelligibility Scale.....	147
Table 7A.	Items and Factor Loadings for Relevance Scale.....	148
Table 7B.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Relevance Scale.....	148
Table 8A.	Items and Factor Loadings for Truthfulness Scale.....	149
Table 8B.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Truthfulness Scale.....	149
Table 9A.	Items and Factor Loadings for Completeness Scale.....	150
Table 9B.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Completeness Scale.....	150

Table 10A.	Items and Factor Loadings for Annoyance Scale.....	151
Table 10B.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Annoyance Scale.....	151
Table 11A.	Items and Factor Loadings for Offensiveness Scale.....	152
Table 11B.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Offensiveness Scale.....	152
Table 12A.	Items and Factor Loadings for Enjoyment Scale.....	153
Table 12B.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Enjoyment Scale.....	153
Table 13A.	Items and Factor Loadings for Identification Scale.....	154
Table 13B.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Identification Scale.....	154
Table 14A.	Items and Factor Loadings for Utility Scale.....	155
Table 14B.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Utility Scale.....	155
Table 15.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Timeliness Scale.....	156
Table 16.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Intelligibility Scale....	156
Table 17.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Relevance Scale.....	157
Table 18.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Offensiveness Scale.....	157

Table 19.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Utility Scale.....	158
Table 20.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Timeliness-Relevance Scale.....	161
Table 21.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Relevance (II) Scale.....	162
Table 22.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Truthfulness-Completeness Scale.....	163
Table 23.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Believability Scale.....	164
Table 24.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Annoyance-Offensiveness Scale.....	165
Table 25.	Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Annoyance (II) Scale.....	166
Table 26.	Parallelism Deviations for Relevance (II) Scale.....	168
Table 27.	Parallelism Deviations for Believability Scale.....	169
Table 28.	Parallelism Deviations for Intelligibility Scale.....	169
Table 29.	Parallelism Deviations for Annoyance (II) Scale.....	170
Table 30.	Parallelism Deviations for Enjoyment Scale....	170
Table 31.	Parallelism Deviations for Identification Scale.....	171
Table 32.	Parallelism Deviations for Utility Scale.....	171
Table 33.	Summary of Confirmatory Factor Analyses on Revised Advertising Utility Scale.....	172
Table 34.	Matrix of Correlations Among Variable Scales.....	175

Table 35.	Results of Multiple Regression Analysis.....	178
Table 36.	Manipulation Check of Experimental Commercials.....	187
Table 37.	Oneway ANOVA Summary Table for Advertising Utility: Groups 1-4.....	191
Table 38.	Oneway ANOVA Summary Statistics: Groups 1-4...	191
Table 39.	Scheffe Post-hoc Comparisons: Groups 1-4.....	191
Table 40.	Oneway ANOVA Summary Table for Advertising Utility: Groups 5-8.....	192
Table 41.	Oneway ANOVA Summary Statistics: Groups 5-8...	192
Table 42.	Scheffe Post-hoc Comparisons: Groups 5-8.....	192
Table 43.	ANOVA Summary Table for Advertising Utility by Information and Entertainment Effects: Groups 1-4.....	194
Table 44.	ANOVA Summary Table for Advertising Utility by Information and Entertainment Effects: Groups 5-8.....	195
Table 45.	Comparative Evaluations of Experimental Advertisements.....	213
Table 46.	Cell Means for Advertising Utility.....	218
Table 47.	Comparative Evaluation of Survey Methods.....	227

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.	Model of Campaign Influence Process.....	42
Figure 2.	Typology of Advertising Utility.....	81
Figure 3.	Hypothesized Model of Advertising Utility.....	93
Figure 4.	Suggested Procedure for Developing Better Measures.....	106
Figure 5.	Experimental Design.....	122
Figure 6.	Experimental Cell Sizes.....	125
Figure 7.	Pretest Ratings of Treatment Advertisements...	185
Figure 8.	Comparative Relevance Ratings.....	233
Figure 9.	Comparative Intelligibility Ratings.....	234
Figure 10.	Comparative Believability Ratings.....	235
Figure 11.	Comparative Enjoyment Ratings.....	236
Figure 12.	Comparative Annoyance Ratings.....	237
Figure 13.	Comparative Utility Ratings.....	238

CHAPTER 1. EVALUATING THE UTILITY OF ADVERTISING

Ask the simple question, "How useful is advertising?," and you are likely to find very different answers. For example, F. Scott Fitzgerald reportedly said, "Advertising is a racket...its constructive contribution to humanity is exactly minus zero." His wife Zelda disagreed. She regarded the usefulness of advertising in a decidedly more positive manner. She, on the other hand, said, "We grew up founding our dreams on the infinite promise of American advertising."¹

The terrain bounded by these two viewpoints is the subject of this dissertation. The following pages will explain that despite the importance of this question, virtually no attention has been paid to answering it by advertising scholars. This research is intended to emphasize the fundamental importance of the question as well as to propose a means for discovering the answers.

In a distant future, where happiness bears only incidental relation to material gain, the issue of how useful advertising is will be of minimal importance. Nevertheless, in our world and for the foreseeable future, as it has since early civilization, advertising will likely be the primary means of communication between those who have something to offer and those who may be in need of it.

Five thousand years ago, a Babylonian clay tablet bore

advertising inscriptions for an ointment dealer, a scribe, and a shoemaker,² and five-thousand years from now, it will probably remain the primary channel through which communication of commercial ideas flows. As time passes, moreover, advertising is likely to become more efficient, permitting producers to create maximum demand for their goods and services with a minimum of waste.

From a technological standpoint, major strides in the ability to transmit sales messages are being made. New communications media like cable television, videocassettes, and interactive electronic data systems are permitting advertisers to selectively place their messages where they are certain to reach interested customers. In addition, new places to put advertisements where they never were before are continually being discovered: elevators, helium-filled dirigibles, banners behind airplanes, and even above washroom urinals, to name a few. The result is that more and more people are seeing more and more advertisements, giving sellers more and more opportunities to extend purchase invitations.

Whether this burgeoning number of advertising channels has led to an increase in the efficiency of advertising or whether the many and varied paths to consumers' minds are being paved over with a superhighway of sense-numbing hype is debatable. Recent annual estimates put the dollar amount spent on media advertising in the United States at about 110 billion. In the period between 1982 and 1989, advertisers

will have increased the dollars they spend per man, woman, and child in the United States by 200%.³ In the five years from 1983 to 1987, measured media advertising as a percent of gross national product (GNP) increased 7% from 1.45% to 1.54%.⁴ This prodigious volume of communications is indicative of the growing importance of advertising. In spite of this, business' commitment to advertising is inconstant and, given adverse circumstances, usually wavers before commitments to other fundamental activities.

The reason lies in the somewhat whimsical effort to assess advertising's direct effects. At the heart of such analyses is usually the attempt to isolate the impact advertising campaigns have on consumer behavior. Of necessity, this requires complex deterministic models of multiple factors which commingle in any given context to produce a specific sales outcome. The unique contribution of advertising within this interplay is usually difficult to pinpoint. To echo the lament of an early twentieth-century department store owner, "we know that half our advertising is wasted, we just don't know which half."⁵ And so, the need of businesses to justify all expenditures in terms of their costs and benefits often leads them to trim advertising budgets whose contributions to sales are difficult to assess.

The drive to evaluate the costs and benefits of campaigns has led much advertising research to focus on "sales effectiveness" in an effort to uncover the most

efficient means of inducing consumers to buy. The result, however, is that the advertising produced today, based on the cumulative knowledge of over forty years of such research, is received by consumers with considerably less fervor than those who send it might wish. Surveys taken at various times throughout recent decades show that consumers retain their cynicism concerning the basic character of advertising. This cynicism is based on the perception (many would argue the reality) that advertising is designed first and foremost to push goods, not to help consumers make the best possible purchase decisions.

A central argument of this research is that the problem with the dominant approach to evaluating advertising is its focus on explaining how advertising gets people to buy rather than explaining how advertising satisfies their needs to consume. Unfortunately, we remain uncertain of advertising's real sales effects and all too certain that it is not very successful at satisfying consumer needs. The dominant research approach is motivated by the desire to uncover techniques that will lead to optimum sales effectiveness when, in fact, numerous other factors play more critical roles in accounting for sales performance. The assumption is that if the "right behavioral buttons" can be pushed, advertisers can somehow control consumer responses. To this point, this effort has not proved to be practical, nor is it desirable, since consumers are regarded as objects to be manipulated rather than constituents to be served.

In order to gain real improvements in advertising effectiveness, new evaluative criteria are necessary. Instead of limiting evaluations to sales, or to communications effects thought to lead to sales, criteria should be sought out that explain what "useful" advertising is to consumers. It requires a shorter leap of faith to believe that consumers who are offered what they want will freely choose to purchase than it does to assume that they can be made to respond by manipulating them through more circuitous means. The surprising fact is that the marketing revolution, spawned by the notion that business should operate to maximize need satisfaction rather than productive output, has yet to filter down to advertising, its most visible component.

Purpose and Justification of Study

The purpose of this research, then, is to identify characteristics of advertising that consumers find to be of personal value and to develop and test a measurement scale that will permit advertising to be evaluated in terms of these criteria. In so doing, it adopts the perspective that good advertising is advertising of maximum value or "utility" to consumers. While advertising so evaluated may often prove equally effective in terms of its ability to generate sales, sales are regarded here as a natural byproduct of good advertising rather than its sole aim.

A theory uniting these various criteria is called the "Theory of Advertising Utility," whose underlying assumption is simply that advertising should be evaluated based on how "useful" it is to consumers. Typically, other criteria primarily of use to advertisers are employed (these are discussed in the next chapter). The scope of the dissertation involves two main components: (1) specifying the domain of the theory and (2) developing and testing a scale to measure it. Two specific applications for the scale and recommendations for future research are also discussed.

By identifying characteristics of advertising that consumers find useful and then creating a measurement device which permits advertising to be evaluated using these criteria, this research is intended to lead to an improved method of evaluation. The premise is that good advertising will be distinguishable from bad advertising based on how useful it is to consumers. If the distinguishing criteria are identifiable, so that advertising lacking in "useful" character can be modified to better satisfy consumer needs, then a basis will have been established for creating better advertising.

Two developments, either singly or in unison, will need to occur. One will involve using this scale for regular data collection and reporting of results to consumers. The other will involve adoption of this scale by advertisers and their agencies as a pre- or post-testing means of evaluating

whether their advertising meets consumer expectations. Each of these issues is now discussed, as is the argument that long-term improvements in the quality of advertising will be realized by stimulating private sector activity rather than focusing on regulatory change.

A Series of Indicators to Evaluate Advertising

A critical assumption underlying this research is that the key to improving the overall functioning of advertising rests with consumers who, through their collective influence on the marketplace, can motivate improved practices by businesses to satisfy their needs. In a democratic society, mobilizing public opinion requires educating citizens about the scope and nature of public issues and in the alternatives available for coping with them. In many areas, broad social and economic issues are evaluated regularly to determine whether public concern is warranted.

Indicators, or indexes, are often employed to evaluate issues concerning the economy, the cost of living, or crime, serving to inform consumers of the broad conditions present in their communities and trends in these conditions. By heightening the level of information available to the public, they foster the kind of informed debate necessary in democratic societies.

Indexes are commonly used in assessing economic changes; hundreds are published on a daily, monthly,

quarterly, and annual basis by the federal government, universities, financial institutions, and others.⁶ The consumer price index (CPI), published monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, is the most widely quoted and frequently used economic index.⁷ There are economic indexes used in advertising as well. McCann-Erickson reports an index which is a barometer of the month-to-month changes in advertising spending in major national media.⁸

Although indexes are commonly applied in measuring economic variables, they have also been used to measure social class,⁹ cognitive phenomena,¹⁰ salespersons' morale,¹¹ religiosity,¹² attitudes on issues,¹³ and the amount of violence on television.¹⁴ A new trend in the use of indicators gained acceptance in the mid-1960s when they were applied to broad social phenomena. The term "social," now appended to distinguish a branch of indicator research, refers to those measures providing information on the state of society in areas not usually subject to quantitative measurement.¹⁵

The benefit of devising index measures to evaluate advertising is described by Raymond Bauer, who, in discussing their general application, explained that they permit us to

...assess where we are now and where we have been... (required because)...many of the important topics on which social critics blithely pass judgment, and on which policies are made,...(lack)...yardsticks to know if things are getting better or worse.¹⁶

A systematic approach to analyzing and reporting measures of advertising utility is necessary because, individually, the numerous evaluations consumers make on a daily basis are little more than isolated "gut reactions." Few consumers can confidently interpret what advertisements are telling them about products, nor do many base their purchases solely on what they learn through advertisements. Evidence of consumer mistrust is indicated by a range of studies.

For example, a 1975 review of consumer polls found increasing cynicism toward advertising and a marked deterioration among consumers in their belief in advertising.¹⁷ A 1980 study by Yankelovich, Skelly and White reported that 70% of Americans are concerned with the truthfulness or deceptiveness of advertising.¹⁸ A 1981 survey of California residents indicated that over half the sample believed "most" or "all" mail and telephone advertising is misleading, 38% regarded "most" or "all" television advertising as misleading, 30% viewed "most" or "all" advertising for products and services as misleading, 66% felt "most" or "all" advertising to children was seriously misleading, and 45% thought advertising directed at senior citizens seriously misleading.¹⁹ A 1971 survey of 2700 subscribers to Harvard Business Review reported that less than one-third of the businessmen sampled thought ads present a true picture of their products,²⁰ a sharp decline from the findings of a similar study conducted a decade

earlier which indicated this percentage to be about one-half.²¹ Even young children, society's most naive individuals, were found to question the intent of sponsors of their favorite programs, a mistrust found to increase with age.²²

Public mistrust and criticism of advertising, however, has relatively little impact on the basic belief in its importance as an institution. A 1976 study conducted by the American Association of Advertising Agencies (AAAA) reported that 88% of those surveyed felt that "advertising is essential."²³

These statistics are disturbing since they represent a kind of fatalism in consumer attitudes toward advertising. People indicate that advertising is essential yet say they do not trust it. This ambivalence, however, is not wholly unlike attitudes on other important but controversial issues. Studies conducted in 1964 and 1967 by Bauer and Greyser²⁴ and in 1974 by Bartos and Dunn²⁵ examined issues the public felt were in need of most immediate attention and change. The table below reports averaged percentages of those answering the question, "Which of the things on the list need most immediate attention and change?"²⁶

Table 1
Issues That Need Most Immediate Attention and Change
(Percentages Averaged across 1964, 1967, and 1974)

The Federal Government	47%
Public Education	38%
Labor Unions	25%
Big Business	17%
Bringing Up Children	16%
Advertising	13%
Family Life	11%
Religion	10%
Clothing and Fashion	8%
Professional Sports	3%

None of the issues was regarded by a majority of respondents to require immediate attention and change indicating in a minimal sense that no single issue was troubling to a majority of Americans at any one time during the period. It would be grossly incorrect, however, to conclude none was of great import. For example, the tumult of the 1960s, a period of radically changing social mores and the spread of a new drug culture among American youth, strained the fabric of family life and caused serious problems for parents trying to raise their children. Startlingly, only 11% of respondents indicated that family life needed attention and change and only 16% felt similarly about raising their children. Noteworthy for the purposes here is the fact that advertising was regarded as an issue relatively similar in salience to these two apparently more serious concerns.

A regularly published series of indicator measures evaluating advertising will heighten the public's expertise

as consumers. Reform might take place through the following hypothetical stages. A system of indicators is devised permitting consumers some estimation of the utility of advertising in general as well as with respect to various specific product and service categories. Concerned media suppliers, sensitive to consumerist issues, periodically report index measurements with explanations of their significance as well as editorials concerning the implications they have for consumers. Consumers, informed with some adequate measures of the utility of the advertising to which they are exposed, develop a set of firm attitudes (both positive and negative) toward certain types of advertising as well as toward advertisers and their products, ultimately influencing their purchase decisions. Advertisers, regularly monitoring consumer attitudes and purchase behaviors, note changes and respond in appropriate ways, either altering their marketing and communications strategies or, more fundamentally, reconsidering the viability of their products and services.

Although this simple scenario may not unfold as imagined, the operative assumption is nonetheless persuasive in that smarter consumers are more demanding and businesses grow by catering to their needs. Furthermore, empowering consumers may increase the sense of participation in the system, a necessary precursor to changing attitudes toward it. There is evidence on this latter point from a study reporting that consumers who are most critical of

advertising are those who feel most alienated from the system.²⁷

The index will also supply important information to businesspeople and regulators, information on which both business and policy decisions may be based. Stimulating positive change on issues of concern to business and government depends on some form of assessment and a planned approach to reform. Assessment is concerned with explaining the nature and seriousness of specific problems. Similar to many other issues, advertising reform requires the correct balance between changes made in government bureaucracies and changes made to stimulate improved functioning of the marketplace.²⁸

A benefit of advertising indexes is that they will expose lackluster performance on the part of certain businesses. This should motivate large improvements on the part of particularly weak performers as they endeavor to enhance their reputations by discovering better ways to create and disseminate advertising that satisfies consumer needs. The high level of cynicism in attitudes toward advertising suggests that advertisers have not only failed to meet these needs but also have inspired a considerable degree of mistrust in their motives.

Also, periodic evaluative measures of advertising will serve as a barometer of advertiser performance that will aid regulators who oversee the industry. The performance of administrative agencies like the Federal Trade Commission

(FTC), the agency primarily concerned with regulating advertising, is a subject about which many "troublesome questions"²⁹ are raised. As will be discussed further on, the nature and extent of the Commission's role has exposed it to repeated criticism ranging from complaints that it does too little to those contending it does too much.

In terms of legislation, there have been several efforts designed to increase information provision on products. Examples include the Fair Packaging and Labeling Act of 1966,³⁰ the Consumer Credit Protection Act of 1968,³¹ the Magnuson-Moss/FTC Improvement Act of 1975,³² and the FTC affirmative disclosure program.³³ While heightening consumer protection, these initiatives have not led to a resolution of the debate on the proper role of government.

By systematizing an approach to evaluating problem areas in advertiser performance, indexes may be the basis for crafting government initiatives with greater precision. After all, the sheer volume of advertising presupposes some means of assessment as the basis for effective regulation. Nevertheless, as subsequent arguments will show, improvements which stem from regulatory reform will probably be confined to controlling specific cases of advertiser misconduct or setting minimum standards for information provision. The proper public-private sector balance for improving the utility of advertising will necessarily be skewed toward the private sector.

An Evaluative Scale for Advertisers

Strengthening consumer input in the system should stimulate advertisers to better respond to consumer needs. Advertisers will also benefit if they have a systematic means of comprehensively evaluating their campaigns from a consumer viewpoint.

The numerous types of research used by advertisers generally fall into two main areas. "Message research" involves studying advertisements to construct campaigns that will have a maximum impact on the audience. "Media research" is used to discover the most efficient medium or combination of media for advertising a given product or service.³⁴ The proposed research addresses concerns usually associated with the first category by helping advertisers answer three basic questions: (1) "What should the message say?"; (2) "How should it be said?"; and (3) "What effect(s) did (will) the message have?"³⁵

Though message research is fundamental, most local advertising is not tested and there are many cases of national advertising where copy is used without formal testing of any kind.³⁶ For example, a recent survey by the Advertising Research Foundation (ARF) reported that only 53% of a sample of major business-to-business advertisers had assessed their advertisements in the past two years. The main reasons 47% of the corporations cited for not conducting such research included: perceived cost versus

benefit; timing (not having data available within a schedule allotted for creation and implementation of advertising); management resistance; no need; and management confidence in non-empirical judgments.³⁷

Many advertisers forego message research because they are skeptical of its benefits. Since numerous other marketing and non-marketing factors affect sales, all of which need to be controlled for in order to isolate the unique effects of advertising, message research yields only partial answers to the questions of sales effectiveness. The complexity and expense involved in full-blown studies leads many advertisers to focus on how well the advertising communicated, the assumption being that sales effects presuppose communication effects. Communication effects are often narrowly assessed using measures of awareness of themes, slogans, or recall of specific bits of information.³⁸ The tenuous link between these measures and sales effects is the root cause of the suspicion in the benefits of such research. Also, their superficiality yields virtually no information about whether the advertising satisfies the needs of those to whom it is directed.

Despite these problems, answering the basic questions of advertising effectiveness requires constant contact with consumers. A "closeness to the customer" has been noted as a key attribute of the more innovative advertising research practitioners,³⁹ a pursuit that would be well-served by

consistently evaluating the utility of campaigns from a consumer point of view.

The issue of advertising effectiveness is considered one of the field's top priority research concerns. The Marketing Science Institute (MSI), in collaboration with the ARF, the American Association of Advertising Agencies (AAAA), and the Association of National Advertisers (ANA), developed a set of top priority researchable advertising questions covering fundamental issues facing practitioners such as how consumers respond to advertising and how responses can be measured.⁴⁰

Investigation of how consumers respond to advertising involves examination and revision of theories of how advertising affects consumers, how consumers make purchase decisions, and the relationship between advertising and sales or non-sales objectives--in short, the link between communication and the thoughts and behavior of consumers. Associated with reviewing the theory is the need to examine the measures now used in assessing advertising effects.⁴¹

The continuing debate over theory spills over into a debate about the reliability and validity of measures. In proposing a new approach to evaluation, the current effort concerns itself with both the theory and the measurement approach for evaluating the utility of advertising.

Limitations of Legal and Regulatory Institutions

As noted, policy issues are characterized by persistent debate over the appropriate role of government in correcting social ills. With respect to advertising, the general pattern has been increased intervention on behalf of consumers. In recent years, however, this progression has slowed as the public grew increasingly aware that certain problems could not be solved through resorting to governmental action. This attitude, along with the unique cultural status accorded free speech in the United States, places much of the burden upon consumers on whose shoulders will fall the responsibility of stimulating positive changes in advertising utility. Moreover, as the following discussion will show, the law is better suited to minimizing negative behavior than promoting the kind of positive behavior at issue here.

Regulation of advertising originated in the early history of the United States, a time during which it was culturally desirable to favor sellers over buyers. This is described as "sellerism"⁴² and was mirrored in a similar tendency in the laws governing sales messages. This bias was most notably expressed in the sixteenth century words of Anthony Fitzherbert about purchasing a horse, "If he be tame and have ben rydden upon, then caveat emptor,"⁴³ translated from Latin as "let the buyer beware." In the early 1900s, a growing number of individuals, exploited by big business, pushed for reform in what were the beginnings

of "consumerism."⁴⁴ Consumerist legislation was fueled by sensational accounts like that written by Upton Sinclair, who described packing house workers falling into vats of fat and not being fished out "until all but the bones of them had gone out to the world as Durham's Pure Leaf Lard!"⁴⁵ Consumerism found its strongest ally in the FTC, which adopted the movement and extended it to lengths probably not achievable by any other type of regulatory method.⁴⁶ Its mandate was established in Section 5 of the FTC Act, which stated, "Unfair methods of competition in commerce are hereby declared unlawful."⁴⁷ By 1925, three-quarters of the FTC's orders concerned false and misleading advertising.⁴⁸

If one were to take as a starting point for evaluating the character of advertising some period predating consumerism and compare it to today's rule-rich environment of federal, state, and self-regulatory agencies, it would be safe to assume that advertising had changed for the better. This is attributable mostly to the success these agencies had in reducing the amount of blatant misrepresentations and deception in advertising. Today, a national advertiser's advertising copy is scrutinized as to its legality by three groups of lawyers: the advertiser's counsel, the advertising agency's counsel, and the media's counsel.⁴⁹ A mere press release by the FTC stating that a complaint has been authorized is enough to endanger an enormous investment in a brand of merchandise.⁵⁰ Local advertisers, who for the most part do not employ counsel (nor often agencies), may be

somewhat less cautious and more prone to using deceptive practices.⁵¹

Still, legal remedies have eliminated much of advertising's more callous elements; those have been replaced, however, with "puffery,"⁵² the non-factual opinions and exaggerations of sellers--misleading, but legal. In clever circumventions of the intent of the law, advertisers couch claims of uniqueness and superiority for their products in language that is vague or ambiguous, which "implies" rather than states such claims. The legal rationale for the puffery defense is explained by the Restatement of Torts, a compilation of legal thinkers on the current status of the law:

It is common knowledge and may always be assumed that any seller will express a favorable opinion concerning what he has to sell; and when he praises it in general terms, without specific content or reference to facts, buyers are expected and do understand that they are not entitled to rely literally upon the words.⁵³

Contrary to this logic, however, is research evidence that puffery claims are understood to be true by large numbers of consumers and that they are influential in their decision-making.⁵⁴

Though some distance has been traveled since eschewing "caveat emptor" as a principle for regulating business practice, there remains some distance yet to go before the consumerist version, "doceatur emptor" or "let the buyer be

informed"⁵⁵ is adopted. While conforming to the law, much advertising has resorted to "puffing," legal, though of questionable utility to consumers.

In spite of claims by business that it is consumers' interests to which they are beholden, realities suggest more than a mere vestige of sellerism remains. Marketing theory is based on discovering and then satisfying consumer needs, yet critics note that marketers do not actually seek to discover what consumers want but what consumers want "from among commercially viable choices."⁵⁶ Once committed to a product, marketers are then committed through advertising to convincing consumers it will satisfy their needs even if, in fact, it does not. As the final sections of this chapter explain, American law has traditionally been very kind to advertisers⁵⁷ who resort to such practices, reinforcing the need for new mechanisms that will aid consumers in evaluating the extent to which campaigns satisfy their needs.

The Supreme Court's Role

In the 1970s, decisions by the Supreme Court gave First Amendment protection to advertising with certain "strings attached." Advertising's "mercantile nature," the reason why protection was earlier denied in *Valentine v. Chrestensen*,⁵⁸ was re-evaluated as the basis for extending limited protection in *Virginia Pharmacy Board v. Virginia*

Citizen's Consumer Council⁵⁹ in 1976. While saying that consumers' interest in advertising may be "keen, if not keener by far, than (their) interest in the day's most urgent political debate," the Court explained that "commonsense" differences justify certain types of regulation. The economic motives of advertisers would render it immune to any "chilling effect."⁶⁰

Commercial speech doctrine was further specified in *Central Hudson Gas & Electric Corp. v. Public Service Commission*⁶¹ in 1980. In this case, a four-part analysis for determining whether commercial speech was protectable under the First Amendment was explained as follows:

For commercial speech to come within that provision, it at least must concern lawful activity and not be misleading. Next, we ask whether the asserted governmental interest is substantial. If both inquiries yield positive answers, we must determine whether the regulation directly advances the government interest asserted, and whether it is not more extensive than is necessary to serve that interest.⁶²

The type of advertising that would most clearly fail the test would contain erroneous factual claims. Statements of opinion are viewed by the Court as having little credibility and are therefore sanctioned by the law.⁶³ Understandably, the Court did not wish to see itself as an active arbiter in numerous cases requiring such determinations and stated, "Obviously, much commercial speech is not provably false, or even wholly false, but only

deceptive or misleading. We foresee no obstacle to a State's dealing effectively with this problem."⁶⁴

The Court is concerned with establishing standards that permit control of fraudulent advertising. It sees itself neither as an expert body in respect to how advertising functions nor as the source from which definitive statements on what is and is not permissible should come. Such matters are delegated to various administrative agencies. As such, the Court endeavored to distinguish between lawful and unlawful commercial speech. Promoting improvements in the vast majority of advertising that does not transgress that line, and thus promoting advertising utility, is outside its purview.

The Federal Trade Commission's Role

Though the FTC plays a key role in sustaining some minimal level of information provision in advertising, its function is suited to prohibiting a clearly-defined set of undesirable advertising practices rather than promoting an overall increase in desirable ones. Were the opposite true, constitutional doctrine would nevertheless limit any significant broadening of its interventionist aims in the marketplace.

The FTC is the expert body and the most important of several concerned with the content of advertised messages on a national level. It has focused on deception, generally

holding that deception exists when an objectively ascertainable material fact is presented falsely, is ambiguous, or is misleading.⁶⁵ This broad definition leaves the commission to consider competing interests involving balancing protection of the consumer and competition within the marketplace against the advertiser's interest in the free flow of information.⁶⁶ Pressure from these different constituencies has caused its regulatory role to waver.

From its inception in 1914 until the 1960s, the FTC used its cease and desist order an average of 70 times per year.⁶⁷ In the 1970s, its performance came under criticism as not being up to the task of policing the entire American economy. Some felt the chance of detection and prosecution of deceptive practices was extremely slim.⁶⁸ Consumerist lobbying led to significant budget increases⁶⁹ and new proposals on advertising substantiation,⁷⁰ comparative advertising,⁷¹ affirmative disclosure,⁷² advertising to children,⁷³ and advertising code barriers.⁷⁴ In addition, the FTC began to investigate more subtle forms of deception involving claims which were literally true, but falsely implied unique qualities.⁷⁵

Increasing intervention on the part of the Commission was intended to insure that consumers were provided with sufficient information to facilitate value comparisons among products.⁷⁶ The importance of an informed public was elucidated in congressional policy:

Informed consumers are essential to the fair and efficient functioning of a free market economy. Therefore, it is hereby declared to be the policy of Congress to assist consumers in reaching these goals in the marketing of consumer goods.⁷⁷

In the 1980s, a change in the ideological orientation in the White House toward deregulation and a backlash from the business community in response to the aggressiveness of the Commission led to a new and more stringent standard for deception. Deception is now recognized only when a claim "is material and likely to mislead consumers acting reasonably under the circumstances."⁷⁸ By raising the evidentiary level, advertising which was impermissible in the 1970s is acceptable in the 1980s.

Vacillation in regulatory policy is a natural response as new governmental approaches to complex issues are attempted. Since the "effects" of advertising are difficult to specify, the impacts of deceptive advertising pose similar problems. The FTC had always operated on the criterion that a message need only have the "capacity" to deceive, which does not mean the message must have deceived anyone, but only that it appears able to do so.⁷⁹ If, in the opinion of the commissioners, a message is creating a misleading impression, there are sufficient grounds for issuing a cease and desist order. In recent years, surveys of consumer perceptions have been used to supplement these judgments.⁸⁰

A model of the deception process⁸¹ suggests that deception occurs when a consumer believes a claim that is actually false. The problem comes in determining how such a belief influences behavior. A range of alternative influences or instrumentalities may either facilitate or discourage subsequent behavior. The commission is therefore required to act on some sense of "speculative harm"⁸² to consumers.

There are other difficulties as well. In deciding whether an advertisement is acceptable, the Commission sets standards for the level of consumer intelligence and susceptibility. With respect to intelligence, this standard too has changed over time. Earlier, as many members of the public as possible were protected without exception;⁸³ this was "that vast multitude which includes the ignorant, the unthinking and the credulous, who in making purchases do not stop to analyze, but are governed by appearances and general impressions."⁸⁴ In a later case, the standard was reconsidered based on the reasoning that, "An advertiser cannot be charged with liability with respect of every conceivable misconception, however outlandish, to which his representations might be subject among the foolish or feeble-minded."⁸⁵ The notion that the "wayfaring fool," the "gullible," and the "trusting" should not be protected led to the standard that an advertisement must not be misleading to the "average" reader.⁸⁶ By recently combining this standard with requirements that a claim must deceive persons

"acting reasonably" and that the deception must have a "material" impact on their purchase decision, the number of persons likely to be protected has been further eroded.

The varying susceptibilities of different audiences have led to differing standards as well. Busy businessmen,⁸⁷ women whose menstruation is delayed,⁸⁸ and parents concerned with the rapid and healthy growth of their children⁸⁹ are thought to be particularly vulnerable.

Once these determinations are made, the nature of the claim is considered. If the claim is explicit, a finding of deception becomes a matter of validating the claim against the performance specifications or characteristics of the product or service. This is an "issue of fact" with the Commission's decision considered conclusive if supported by evidence.⁹⁰

When an ad claim is indirect or implied (as with puffery) it is more difficult to determine what the audience understands it to be saying. Secondary meanings, qualifications, partial truths, and exaggerated opinions are perceived in numerous ways. In these cases, the Commissioners generalize audience interpretations on the basis of their own. Unfortunately, the majority of national brand advertising is for "parity products," brands which cannot be differentiated from one another in terms of physical or functional differences because there are none of importance.⁹¹ Advertising for such products retains its sellerist heritage since its purpose is to conceal brand

similarity, not expose it.

Most parity product advertising, therefore, cannot be informative and straightforward.⁹² Further, providing it expresses no factual statements which are incorrect, the vast majority falls outside the FTC's range of concern. Of the advertisements that the FTC reviews on a yearly basis, 97% are found to be satisfactory.⁹³ Clearly then, the Commission's "net" is not designed to catch the majority of ads that consumers may find objectionable for any number of reasons, nor is it designed to promote better or more useful advertising.

Any changes in the majority of advertising will necessarily originate in the marketplace. For this to occur, consumers must grow more discriminating and businesses must continue to compete to satisfy their needs. All of this presupposes the adoption of new criteria and measurement tools to evaluate advertising.

Self-Regulation's Role

Advertising self-regulation developed as a response to consumerist pressure and the fear that, if industry did not act to reduce such pressure, increased governmental restrictions would be necessary.⁹⁴ The U.S. self-regulatory system has numerous components: both local and national, industry-wide and industry-specific, and media-wide as well as media-specific in focus.⁹⁵ Primary among these, the

National Advertising Division (NAD) of the Better Business Bureau and the National Advertising Review Board (NARB) deal almost exclusively with cases of false and misleading advertising.⁹⁶ These organizations have no guidelines of their own but rely on those of the Council of Better Business Bureaus and of other associations, along with standards developed by federal agencies and the courts.⁹⁷ The NAD is responsible for receiving or initiating, evaluating, investigating, analyzing, and holding initial negotiations with advertisers on complaints or questions from any source.⁹⁸ NAD decisions can be appealed to the NARB.⁹⁹

An important difference between the NAD/NARB system and the FTC is in their respective mandates. The FTC is charged with acting in the "public interest" whereas the NAD/NARB puts greater emphasis on "advertiser advocacy,"¹⁰⁰ meaning that consumer protection is a by-product of, rather than the specific intention of, self-regulation. Both, however, rely to a limited extent on outside participation, occasionally acting on public complaints or soliciting the testimony or advice of expert witnesses or various interest groups.¹⁰¹ The public's role on NARB's 42 panels is restricted to one member out of five, serving primarily to vouch for its independence and credibility¹⁰² rather than to act as a consumer advocate.

Both have a similar focus on "hard" criteria and issues, concentrating on matters such as deception and

substantiation. While the standards applied to deception have varied, there is decidedly more consensus over inhibiting definable negative practices than there is on promoting "soft" issues relating to taste, social responsibility, informativeness, or the utility of advertising. The mission statement of the NARB does indicate that it will "consider the content of advertising messages in controversy for reasons other than truth and accuracy..."¹⁰³ but it has declined to handle such cases because there is no government agency to which such cases could be referred.¹⁰⁴ Specially appointed panels were created to consider questions of taste and social responsibility, determine problem areas, and sponsor position papers to alert the industry to practices that should be avoided.¹⁰⁵ Unfortunately, the effort had low priority, had negligible impact on NAD casework, and was discontinued in 1979,¹⁰⁶ without having led to any improvements.

With respect to casework, both the NAD/NARB and the FTC handle 100 or fewer cases a year because of limited budget and staff resources.¹⁰⁷ Both use a case-by-case approach targetting poorly substantiated and misleading advertisements,¹⁰⁸ with the NAD/NARB standards "generally consistent with those of both the FTC and the courts."¹⁰⁹ Although the NAD reviews many more claims than the FTC,¹¹⁰ their similar focus on hard advertiser indiscretions is not designed to promote the kind of overall improvements in

advertising necessary to better respond to consumer needs.

Scope of Study

This chapter has argued that achieving substantive improvements in attitudes toward advertising is contingent upon enhancing its utility to consumers. This will require a concerted attempt to understand and then evaluate how advertising is used to achieve consumer goals rather than those of advertisers. These efforts must be translated into mechanisms that consumers may use to aid them in their own evaluations (i.e., indexes), as well as those to be used by advertisers to pre- or post-test their advertising in similar terms. The review of how advertising is regulated emphasizes that the nature and scope of this effort places it beyond the reach of government intervention.

Though the science of advertising communications is well into its adolescence, astonishingly little research has investigated effects as a function of need satisfaction, eschewing this approach in search of theories which suit the narrower aims of advertisers. The field is a conundrum of competing approaches which have sprung from attempts to explain campaign effectiveness for different kinds of advertisers, each facing unique situations and having unique aims. The result is theories assuming different processes of advertising functioning which have stifled attempts at a more integrated approach to explaining how advertising

works.

In Chapter Two, these competing theories for evaluating advertising effects are reviewed. Their essential features are discussed, as are the contexts in which they are thought to operate. An attempt is made to infer criteria from each that will help explain how advertising functions to satisfy consumer needs. Following this, research that has evaluated advertising from a consumer point of view is presented. Studies of this nature have focused on assessing the informativeness of advertising or have measured and then explicated consumer attitudes toward advertising. These are used as a basis for proposing two main dimensions which account for advertising utility, an information and an entertainment dimension. These two dimensions are united in a theoretical construct named "advertising utility," whose antecedent variables are then presented and explained.

Chapter Three details the procedures employed to develop a measurement scale based on this theory, a mall-intercept survey to test the measurement scale and evaluate the measurement model on which the scale is based, and then an experiment to test whether the scale serves as a valid measurement tool permitting advertisements to be differentiated from one another in a manner consistent with theoretical expectations.

Chapters Four and Five present the results and implications of the study, respectively. In Chapter Five, specific attention is paid to examining whether the theory

of advertising utility and the measurement scale hold promise for future applications as the basis for an index series to be used by consumers in evaluating advertising and as an evaluative tool for advertisers.

ENDNOTES FOR CHAPTER 1

¹Michael Jackman, Business and Economic Quotations (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1984), p. 4.

²J. Thomas Russell, Glenn Verrill, and W. Ronald Lane, Kleppner's Advertising Procedure (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1988), p. 3.

³Herbert M. Baum, "Jaded Americans Won't Buy Boring Advertising Anymore," Advertising Age, July 13, 1989, p.14.

⁴Sixth Annual Veronis, Suhler & Associates Communications Industry Report (New York: Veronis, Suhler & Ass., December 1988), p. 238.

⁵Jackman, Business and Economic Quotations, p. 3.

⁶Robert D. Mason, Business and Economic Statistics (Homewood, Illinois: Learning Systems Company, 1978), p. 145.

⁷William Mendenhall and James E. Reinmuth, Statistics for Management and Economics, 4th ed. (Boston: Duxbury Press, 1982), p. 614.

⁸Robert J. Coen, "Ad Spending Outlook Brightens," Advertising Age, May 15, 1989, p. 24.

⁹William G. Zikmund, Exploring Marketing Research, 2nd ed. (Chicago: The Dryden Press, 1986), p. 333.

¹⁰Delbert C. Miller, Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement, 3rd ed. (New York: David McKay, 1964), p. 87.

¹¹Zikmund, Exploring Marketing Research, p. 333.

¹²Earl R. Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, 2nd ed. (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1979), p. 396.

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴George Gerbner and Larry Gross, "Living with Television: The Violence Profile," Journal of Communication 26 (1976):173-199.

¹⁵Raymond A. Bauer, ed., Social Indicators (Cambridge, Massachusetts: The M.I.T. Press, 1966), p. VIII.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 20.

¹⁷Lauren Swanson, "Doceatur Emptor," Journal of Advertising 4 (1975):23.

¹⁸Jennifer Alter, "Public is Still Wary of Ads: Study," Advertising Age, June 23, 1980, pp. 3, 94.

¹⁹Howard A. Schutz and Marianne Casey, "Consumer Perceptions of Advertising as Misleading," Journal of Consumer Affairs 15 (Winter 1981):340-357.

²⁰Stephen A. Greyser and Bonnie B. Reece, "Businessmen Look Hard at Advertising," Harvard Business Review, May-June 1971, pp. 18-26, 157-165.

²¹Stephen A. Greyser, "Business Re Advertising: 'Yes, But...'," Harvard Business Review, May-June 1962, pp. 22-28, 141-146.

²²Schutz and Casey, "Consumer Perceptions of Advertising as Misleading."

²³"What 4As Study on Advertising Reveals," Television-Radio Age, August 16, 1976, pp. 28-29.

²⁴Data for 1964 and 1967 from Raymond A. Bauer and Stephen A. Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View (Boston, Massachusetts: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1968), p. 392.

²⁵Data for 1974 from R. Bartos and T. Dunn, Advertising and Consumers (New York: American Association of Advertising Agencies, 1976), p. 100.

²⁶The question in the 1974 survey was prefaced with, "In your opinion..."

²⁷Richard M. Durand and Zarrel V. Lambert, "Alienation and Criticisms of Advertising," Journal of Advertising 14 (1985):9-17.

²⁸G. David Hughes, "Marketers' Potential Contribution to Regulatory Reform," Marketing Science Institute Working Paper (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Marketing Science Institute, 1980), p. 111.

²⁹Glen D. Robinson, Ernest Gellhorn, and Harold H. Bruff, The Administrative Process, 2nd ed. (St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Company, 1982), p. 470.

³⁰15 U.S.C.A. ss 1453.

³¹15 U.S.C.A. ss 1601.

³²Pub. L. No. 93-637, 88 Stat. 218.

³³Benjamin J. Katz, ed., Advertising and Governmental Regulation (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Marketing Science Institute, 1979), pp. 8-10.

³⁴Roger D. Wimmer and Joseph R. Dominick, Mass Media Research (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1983), p. 297.

³⁵Ibid.

³⁶David A. Aaker and John G. Myers, Advertising Management, 3rd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1987), p. 405.

³⁷Anton S. Morton, "You Can Count Your Ad's Chickens Before They Hatch," Business Marketing, December 1986, pp. 82, 84, 86-87.

³⁸Alan D. Fletcher and Thomas A. Bowers, Fundamentals of Advertising Research, 3rd ed. (Belmont, California, Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1988), p. 22.

³⁹Anthony J. Adams, "The Role of Research in the Future," in Transcript Proceedings: Advertising 2010: The Next 25 Years (New York: Advertising Research Foundation, 1986).

⁴⁰Diane H. Schmalensee, "Today's Top Priority Advertising Research Questions," Journal of Advertising Research 23 (April-May 1983):49-60.

⁴¹Ibid.

⁴²Ivan L. Preston, The Great American Blow-up (Madison, Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1975), p. 30.

⁴³Ibid., p. 32.

⁴⁴Max E. Brunk, "The Anatomy of Consumerism," Journal of Advertising 2 (1973):10.

⁴⁵Upton Sinclair, The Jungle (New York: New American Library, 1905), p. 102.

⁴⁶Preston, Blow-up, p. 130.

⁴⁷15 U.S.C.A. ss 45.

⁴⁸Ira J. Millstein, "The Federal Trade Commission and False Advertising," Columbia Law Review 64 (1964).

⁴⁹George Eric Rosden and Peter Eric Rosden, The Law of Advertising, Volume 2 (New York: Matthew Bender and Company, 1987), p. 17.14.

⁵⁰Ibid., p. 17.15.

⁵¹Ibid., pp. 17.14-17.15.

⁵²Preston, Blow-up.

⁵³Restatement (Second): Torts. (St. Paul, Minnesota: American Law Institute Publishers, 1977), Section 542, Comment e.

⁵⁴Herbert J. Rotfeld and Kim B. Rotzoll, "Is Advertising Puffery Believed?" Journal of Advertising 9 (1980):20.

⁵⁵Swanson, "Doceatur Emptor."

⁵⁶Joshua Honigwachs, "Is It Safe to Call Something Safe? The Law of Puffing in Advertising," Journal of Public Policy and Marketing 6 (1987):158.

⁵⁷Michael Schudson, Advertising, The Uneasy Persuasion: Its Dubious Impact on American Society (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1984), p. 235.

⁵⁸Valentine v. Chrestensen, 316 U.S. 42 (1942).

⁵⁹Virginia Pharmacy Board v. Virginia Citizen's Consumer Council, 425 U.S. 748 (1976).

⁶⁰Todd F. Simon, "The Commercial Speech Doctrine: Unsupported, Unworkable, and Undesirable," unpublished manuscript, Michigan State University, 1987.

⁶¹Central Hudson Gas & Electric Corp. v. Public Service Commission, 6 Med.L.Rept. 1497 (1980).

⁶²Ibid., p. 1501.

⁶³Honigwachs, "Is it Safe?" p. 159.

⁶⁴Virginia Pharmacy Board v. Virginia Citizen's Consumer Council, p. 1501.

⁶⁵David M. Gardner, "Deception in Advertising: A Conceptual Approach," Journal of Marketing 39 (January 1975):40.

⁶⁶Belinda Welti, "The Need for a Statutory Definition of Deceptive Advertising," New England Law Review 19 (1983):128.

⁶⁷William L. Wilkie, Dennis L. McNeill, and Michael B. Mazis, "Marketing's Scarlet Letter: The Theory and Practice of Corrective Advertising," Journal of Marketing 48 (Spring 1984):11.

⁶⁸Robert Pitofsky, "Beyond Nader: Consumer Protection and the Regulation of Advertising," Harvard Law Review 90 (1977):661.

⁶⁹William L. Wilkie, Dennis L. McNeill, and Michael B. Mazis, "Marketing's Scarlet Letter: The Theory and Practice of Corrective Advertising," Journal of Marketing 48 (Spring 1984):11.

⁷⁰Dorothy Cohen, "The FTC's Advertising Substantiation Program," Journal of Marketing 49 (Winter 1980):26.

⁷¹William L. Wilkie and Paul Farris, "Comparison Advertising: Problems and Potential," Journal of Marketing 39 (October 1975):7.

⁷²William L. Wilkie, "Affirmative Disclosure: Perspectives on FTC Orders," Journal of Marketing and Public Policy 1 (Winter 1982):95.

⁷³Michael B. Mazis, "Can and Should the FTC Restrict Advertising to Children?" Advances in Consumer Research 6 (1979):3.

⁷⁴Wilkie, McNeill, and Mazis, "Marketing's Scarlet Letter," p. 7.

⁷⁵Brandt and Preston, "The Federal Trade Commission's Use of Evidence," p. 19.

⁷⁶Dorothy Cohen, "Remedies for Consumer Protection: Prevention, Restitution, or Punishment," Journal of Marketing 39 (October 1975):25.

⁷⁷15 U.S.C.A. ss 1453.

⁷⁸Richard L. Gordon, "FTC Vote Jettisons Former Deception Policy," Advertising Age, April 2, 1984, p. 6.

⁷⁹Herbert J. Rotfeld and Ivan L. Preston, "The Potential Impact of Research on Advertising Law," Journal of Advertising Research 21 (April 1981):9.

⁸⁰Brandt and Preston, "The Federal Trade Commission's Use of Evidence," p. 19.

⁸¹Gary M. Armstrong and Frederick A. Russ, "Detecting Deception in Advertising," MSU Business Topics 23 (Spring 1975):21.

⁸²Simon, "The Commercial Speech Doctrine," p. 10.

⁸³Isabella C. M. Cunningham and William H. Cunningham, "Standards for Advertising Regulation," Journal of Marketing 41 (October 1977):92.

⁸⁴Charles of the Ritz Distributors Corp. v. FTC, 143 F. 2d. 676 (2d. Cir. 1944).

⁸⁵Heinz W. Kirchner v. FTC, 3 Trade Reg. Rep. 16664 (FTC, November 7, 1963), p. 21539-21540.

⁸⁶Robinson, Gellhorn, and Bruff, The Administrative Process, p. 470.

⁸⁷Independent Directory Corp. v. FTC, 188 F. 2d. 468, 470 (2d. Cir. 1951).

⁸⁸Doris Savitch v. FTC, 218 F. 2d. 817 (2d. Cir. 1955).

⁸⁹ITT Continental Baking Co. v. FTC, 532 F. 2d. 207 (2d. Cir. 1976).

⁹⁰Robinson, Gellhorn, and Bruff, The Administrative Process, p. 471.

⁹¹E. John Kottman, "The Parity Product--Advertising's Achilles Heel," Journal of Advertising 6 (1977):35.

⁹²Ibid., p. 38.

⁹³Courtland L. Bovee and William F. Arens, Advertising (Homewood, Illinois: Richard V. Irwin, Inc., 1972), p. 59.

⁹⁴Gordon E. Miracle, "A Brief History of US Advertising Self-Regulation to 1970," in Proceedings of the 1985 Conference of the American Academy of Advertising (Tempe, Arizona: Arizona State University, 1985), p. R2.

⁹⁵J. J. Boddewyn, Advertising Self-Regulation and Outside Participation: A 12-Country Comparison (Westport, Connecticut: Quorum Books, 1988), Ch. 15, p. 2.

⁹⁶Ibid.

⁹⁷Ibid., Ch. 15, pp. 2-3.

⁹⁸Ibid., Ch. 15, p. 4.

⁹⁹Ibid.

¹⁰⁰G. M. Armstrong and J. L. Ozanne, "An Evaluation of NAD/NARB Purpose and Performance," Journal of Advertising 12 (1983):16.

¹⁰¹Boddewyn, Advertising Self-Regulation and Outside Participation, Ch. 15, p. 6.

¹⁰²Ibid., Ch. 15, p. 7.

¹⁰³National Advertising Review Board, "Statement of Organization and Procedures of the National Advertising Review Board is Amended to June 19, 1980," New York, 1985.

¹⁰⁴Boddewyn, Advertising Self-Regulation and Outside Participation, Ch. 15, p. 8.

¹⁰⁵H. H. Bell, "Self-Regulation by the Advertising Industry," California Management Review XVI (Spring 1974):60.

¹⁰⁶Boddewyn, Advertising Self-Regulation and Outside Participation, Ch. 15, p. 9.

¹⁰⁷Ibid.

¹⁰⁸Ibid.

¹⁰⁹E. J. Zanot, "A Review of Eight Years of NARB Casework: Guidelines and Parameters of Deceptive Advertising," Journal of Advertising 9 (1980):26.

¹¹⁰American Association of Advertising Agencies, "The American Association of Advertising Agencies' Response to the Federal Trade Commission's Inquiry in the Advertising Substantiation Program," New York: July 13, 1983.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

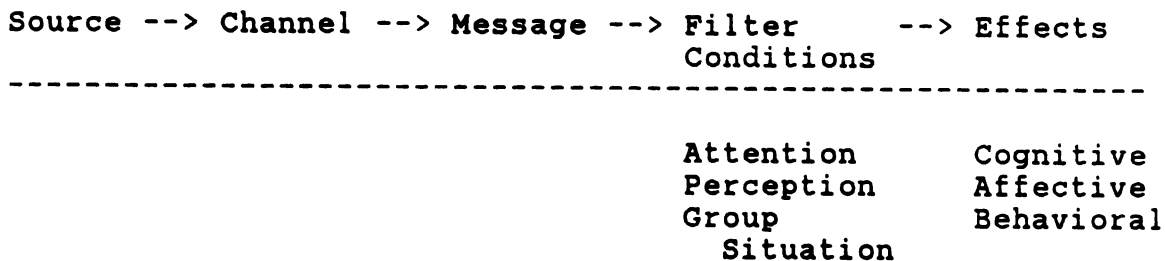
Evaluative Perspectives: Consumer Versus Business

The accepted approach to studying advertising effectiveness is based on a commonly held theoretical paradigm, or "a set of interrelated constructs, definitions, and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena."¹ A general theory of the campaign influence process is described in Figure 1 below.

The "source" of the campaign is usually a firm, political party, or some other organization. The identity of the sender will impact the chances of campaign success. The campaign is usually sent through one or more "media channels" and includes one or more "messages." Chances of success are determined by the ability to reach the audience through selected channels and by the nature of the message. A set of "filter conditions" act to facilitate or hinder the flow of messages to the intended audience. "Attention" is one example, for without it there can be no effect. "Perception" is another because messages are open to varying interpretations and success depends on the message being interpreted as intended. "Group situation" concerns the part played by groups in mediating campaign effects. Since

campaigns come from outside the groups to which people usually belong, group allegiance has an impact on whether and how messages will be processed. Last are "effects." A successful campaign will depend on some match between planned effects and those achieved.²

Figure 1
Model of Campaign Influence Process



Adapted from: Denis McQuail, Mass Communication Theory,
(London: Sage Publications, 1983), p.190.

The source of the campaign usually selects the intended effects and thereby establishes the criteria against which the campaign will be evaluated. For businesses, there are two predominant approaches to selecting effects. One states that the ultimate function of advertising is to get people to purchase the advertised product indicating, therefore, that the only effect of real interest is "sales." The other acknowledges that there are a number of intermediate, largely communications steps preceding sales that advertising takes people through, any one of which may serve as a criterion for measuring advertising effectiveness.³ There are others who argue that both sales and

communications effects of advertising should be evaluated.⁴

Referring to the definition at the outset of this section, the phenomena advertising theory has focused on explaining and predicting are either "sales effectiveness" and/or "communications effectiveness." Thus, theory reflects dominant business interests in the sales or communications functions of the advertising it creates. The overriding interest is in prediction. Source, media, message, and receiver characteristics are studied with the primary aim of examining their relationship to sales or communications effects.

The argument here is that greater emphasis should be placed on understanding and evaluating advertising from a consumer point of view. This orientation is intended to lead first to a consideration of various antecedents and their relationships to how useful advertising is to consumers, rather than the degree to which they predict sales or communications effects. Existing theories have explained advertising in terms of its usefulness to the source rather than its usefulness to the receiver. "Usefulness to the source" and "usefulness to the receiver," however, are not mutually exclusive but rather complementary notions. It should not be counterproductive to adopt a consumer point of view as common sense suggests that the more useful advertising is to consumers the greater use they will make of it.

To do this, it will be assumed that certain "functions"

advertising serves from a consumer perspective can be defined and that measurable criteria for evaluating the extent to which advertising fulfills such functions can be identified. Before discussing these, it is necessary to examine the theories that have been commonly used by businesses and academics to explain advertising in terms of its sales and communications effects. Particular attention is paid to describing aspects of existing theory that may lead to determinants of advertising utility for consumers.

Sales-Effects Theories

The term "pressure-response" refers to the oft-quoted reasoning that "advertising (can) be considered a 'stimulus,' and sales a response to it."⁵ In this view, advertising effectiveness is a function of the amount of pressure, usually measured in dollars spent, needed to generate a given response, usually measured in dollars sold. In other words, these theories depend upon determining a relationship between dollars spent on advertising or advertising messages delivered to consumers and sales response to those dollars spent or messages delivered.⁶ The key assumption is that advertising "causes" sales.

A pressure-response approach fits comfortably with the standard business practice of evaluating inputs in terms of their "cost-benefit" ratios. Advertising "costs" and sales "results" are also the most direct and accessible measures

of input and output making this a convenient approach. The exact form of the relationship may be developed inductively by starting with no preconceived theory and then teasing out the rules governing behavior, or deductively, by commencing with a theory and then seeking whether it stands up under empirical testing.⁷

An example of the latter approach is the theory which describes the relationship between sales and advertising expenditures as approximated by a family of S-shaped curves; below some level of expenditures, advertising will have negligible impact, and past this level, increases in expenditures produce larger marginal sales responses. Past some level of spending, sales stabilize or even decrease. Rao and Miller tested this theory by studying the relationship between bi-monthly sales of five brands and advertising expenditures in television, print, and promotions.⁸ They reported confirming this relationship and suggested that the theory would be useful for predicting the sales consequences of alternative advertising budgets.

An example of the inductive approach is a well-known experiment conducted for Anheuser-Busch.⁹ In a range of studies in which varying advertising expenditure levels were employed, an attempt was made to discover how they could be manipulated to produce desired effects on sales. Among the findings was that past a certain level of spending, additional advertising expenditures produced negative sales results.

Two criticisms of pressure-response theories make their applicability to evaluating advertising effectiveness problematic. First, the relations derived from these theories have been shown to be unstable over time and different geographic regions.¹⁰ The cause is due to external factors outside of spending levels that influence demand for products (not accounted for in the models). Second, these theories assume that all advertising is of equal effectiveness, thereby completely disregarding the ads themselves, implying that "the consumer is a kind of anvil that responds in direct proportion to the number of times advertising strikes."¹¹ Consumers are totally absent from pressure-response theories. As such, these theories offer little help in understanding the extent to which advertising satisfies their needs.

Communications-Effects Theories

Theories that explain how advertising "communicates" recognize that there are a set of intermediate steps or "effects" caused by advertising as a part of the persuasion process. Proponents have studied the specific communications effects that occur, over which there is general agreement, and the sequence in which they operate, over which there is considerable debate. More recent research has investigated the mechanisms which activate

4

these varying communications processes in different contexts.

The intent of these theories is to explain how individuals "process information." Their application lies in the ability to describe how consumers behave in different situations so that communications practitioners can design campaigns that induce operative behaviors in differing contexts. If, for example, consumers faced with purchasing an item of little personal importance tend not to expend much effort in collecting information on it before purchasing, practitioners use this understanding as a basis for creating advertising that does not supply information relevant to evaluating the performance characteristics of the product.

The first "mini-theory" of advertising communications was published in an ARF report in 1960 entitled, Toward Better Media Comparisons.¹² It proposed that in evaluating media alternatives a measure should be taken of the degree to which advertising "communicates" through media. Not long after, the practice of evaluating advertising in terms of its communications effects was widely accepted. By 1965, a survey of the 50 largest U.S. agencies found they largely agreed that "recall," "comprehension," and "attitudes" were useful measures of advertising effectiveness.¹³ Six years later, similar preferences were expressed by European agency executives.¹⁴

The value of assessing advertising using communications

effects was articulated by Michael Ray, who offered three related reasons. First, it is difficult to measure the effects of communications expenditures (on sales, for example) without recognizing that intermediate communications objectives need to be achieved. Second, sales goals alone do not indicate what should be accomplished by various elements of the communications mix. There are various channels which may be used differentially to create awareness, comprehension, or purchase intentions. By explicitly recognizing what needs to be accomplished in terms of communications effects, reasonable goals can be established for these various elements in the mix. Finally, communications objectives allow coordination and balancing among the elements of the communications mix.¹⁵

A further benefit of this approach is its contribution to "diagnosing" the results of a campaign. While sales measures of effectiveness enable practitioners to evaluate campaign outcomes, they may not permit explanations of "why" results occurred and, therefore, what corrective action may be implemented for future efforts.¹⁶

Study of intervening communications effects has led to the formulation of three basic theories distinct not in their elements but in the sequence in which these elements are thought to occur. The elements common to each are (1) learning, (2) attitude change, and (3) behavior change and they are variously ordered to form what are known as "hierarchies-of-effect" theories.

Active Learning Theories

These theories assume that advertising conveys information to consumers that may be sufficiently relevant to change their attitude toward the advertised brand. Favorable attitude change increases predisposition to purchase; the more the increase in favorable attitude change, the greater the probability of increased purchase and the greater the sales response.¹⁷ The active learning hierarchy is therefore, "learning-->attitude change-->behavior change," or "learn-->feel-->do" as it is often labeled. This approach was originated by Lavidge and Steiner,¹⁸ and its early formulations assumed that consumers were constantly in search of information concerning purchase decisions from a variety of sources, advertising being one of them.¹⁹ The active learning theory, the oldest of the three hierarchies, found support in economic analyses of advertising which similarly assumed that advertising is information that rational consumers use so as to make purchases that yield them the expected largest benefit.²⁰

For the purpose of assessment, the hierarchy of effects models suggested that advertising effectiveness could be measured in terms of its ability to move people along the steps.²¹ This led to the development of evaluative techniques like DAGMAR or "Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Advertising Results."²² By drawing on this communication process model of intervening effects, DAGMAR

and other similar approaches were capable of overcoming the problems of sales-oriented objectives.²³

A host of measurement techniques has been applied to measuring these intervening variables, typically characterized as: awareness and knowledge (usually associated with learning), liking and preference (usually associated with attitudes), and conviction and purchase (usually associated with behavior). For awareness to occur it is assumed that advertisements must be attended to. Physiological measures such as changes in heart rate,²⁴ perspiration,²⁵ and pupil dilation,²⁶ are employed as measures of attention. Whether or not awareness or knowledge follow attention presupposes that some of the information is retained in memory so that it can be recalled at a later time. These effects are measured by asking consumers if they can recognize, recall, or describe particular advertisements.

The best known "recognition" tests for magazines are administered and published regularly in the form of syndicated reports by the Starch INRA Hooper organization.²⁷ Interviewers show particular magazine issues to consumers and ask whether they saw or read any part of various advertisements. Data are categorized into three levels of readership: (1) "Noted," (2) "Associated," and (3) "Read Most."

"Recall" tests are a more demanding measure than recognition tests because respondents are asked what they

have seen or read without having the ad in front of them when answering. An example of this approach, applied to print advertisements, is the Gallup & Robinson "magazine impact" method. Twenty-four-hour recall is the most popular form of measuring recall of television advertising.

Examples include Burke Marketing Research which provides aided recall tests of messages 24 hours after commercials have been aired, and Mapes & Ross Inc., offering reports of 24-hour recall of the commercial and brand, perception of the main idea, and buying interest.²⁸ Though recall and recognition are the most widely used measures of communications effectiveness, they simply assess whether messages "get through"--far short of determining whether any useful purpose is served once they do.

The next intervening effect in the active learning chain occurs when the consumer evaluates the information learned in terms of personal motives. Consciously or otherwise, a judgment is made concerning how much the advertised product will satisfy those motives. This process will result in forming or changing attitudes toward the product.²⁹ Attitude measurement is a controversial area of research³⁰ and includes a wide range of approaches from traditional attitude tests to presumably much closer-to-action measures such as "brand preference,"³¹ which is usually defined in practice as answers to questions about "liking" or "preferring" the advertisement or brand.³² These measures are thought to be more useful predictors of

subsequent purchase behavior because they focus on whether respondents were "influenced" rather than simply whether they can recognize or recall certain elements from advertisements.

Attitude measures are relevant to the present study because they deal with how consumers "evaluate" the advertising to which they are exposed. Their research importance has been driven by the generally accepted argument that attitudes govern consumer purchases and advertising can do something to change them.³³ The preponderant concern, however, has been how "attitudes toward the product" influence purchase behavior rather than how "attitudes toward the ad" influence such behavior. In their enthusiasm for predicting consumer behavior, theorists and researchers of attitudes have tended to neglect attitudes toward the object of their study, namely advertising, and focus on the more compelling if not more difficult prospect of discovering whether certain attitudes toward products, if created, will lead to predictable purchase behavior. Numerous models of this kind have been advanced; the two main classes are discussed by Aaker and Myers.³⁴

Only recently has the importance of looking at consumer evaluations of advertisements in the form of attitudes toward advertisements themselves been acknowledged.³⁵ The "attitude toward the ad" (Aad) construct, has been defined as a predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable

manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure situation.³⁶ Employing this definition, Aad is comprised solely of an "affective" response to the ad and is thought to play a greater role in predicting purchase behavior in situations typically characterized by less involved information processing. Since its use is purportedly of greater value in low-involvement information processing, it will be discussed further in the next section.

The final effect in the active learning chain is behavior change. Depending on the purpose of the campaign, this may involve actual purchasing, or prior steps like store visits, or reported purchase intentions which are sometimes substituted for records of actual purchase.³⁷ Measures of sales, shopper traffic, or coupon redemption are direct and relatively straightforward to obtain. Since advertising is usually not the only input to any of these behaviors, statistical measures of the degree of correlation between each intervening variable and the desired behavioral outcome are used as measures of the strength and, to some extent, the predictive value of each of the variables in the chain.

Active learning theories are relevant to evaluating the utility of advertising for consumers for several reasons:

- (1) They stress that consumers pass through a process that is essentially rational in so far as they learn about products, develop attitudes toward what they

learn, and make purchases based on these prior two steps. Utility also assumes consumers act rationally to maximize need satisfaction.

(2) They stress the importance of advertising's "informational" role in the learning process. One would expect consumers to have some need for a measure of advertising utility to facilitate the evaluative process they go through in making purchases.

(3) To the extent that consumers actively learn through advertising, it is a fairly accurate reflection of the assumptions held by most practitioners about how advertising works, namely, that pertinent information must be communicated to change attitudes to cause sales.³⁸ This same assumption is relevant to understanding the role of advertising utility. The more useful advertising is, the greater positive impact it will have on consumer attitudes toward advertising and subsequent purchase behavior.

Passive Learning Theories

The active learning theory is thought to have drawn its impetus from an understanding of how print advertising functioned. Once the effects of enough television advertising had been studied, it became apparent that most viewers reported little involvement with TV commercials or their brands but, after enough exposure, learned from them

and increasingly bought the brands advertised.³⁹ Herbert Krugman is credited with recognizing that individuals learn "passively" from watching television commercials and his notion is the basis for what he termed the "low-involvement hierarchy."⁴⁰

The low-involvement hierarchy incorporates the same elements as the previous approach yet their sequence is postulated as "learning-->behavior change-->attitude change," or "learn-->do-->feel." This theory holds that consumers absorb information from ads without active search, appraisal, or even resistance. After this information is stored in memory, it leads to an awareness that may trigger purchase at some later time even though there has been no prior attitude change. After purchase and use, attitude may change, but this is induced from experience with the product itself not from the advertising.⁴¹

Laboratory tests of the two hierarchies have found that the passive or low-involvement hierarchy occurred somewhat more often than the active or high-involvement sequence and that it tended to occur when there were minimal differences between products or when actual differences were unimportant to the audience.⁴² Since this theory incorporates the same basic elements as the active learning theory, it did not spawn many new measurement techniques to evaluate advertising's communications effects. It did, however, lead to considerable research into the mechanisms which account for how individuals process information in varying contexts.

Furthermore, it led to the idea that in low involvement situations, favorable attitudes toward specific ads are important mediators of brand choice. Much inquiry in this area has centered on the structure and mediating role of the Aad construct. The issue is discussed here with the limited purpose of identifying elements of the existing conceptual framework for Aad that point to potentially helpful criteria for developing a means to evaluate the utility of advertising.

The Aad construct is understood as an attitudinal reaction to an ad at the time of exposure.⁴³ The manner in which such reactions occur is thought to depend on how involved consumers are with the issue. If they are more highly involved they tend to process the ad using a "central route" wherein message content is the primary influence. Under low-involvement, a "peripheral route" in which the audience is affected more by the source of the message or contextual factors is thought to operate.⁴⁴ Five first-order determinants for Aad have been proposed: (1) ad credibility, (2) ad perceptions, (3) attitude toward the advertiser, (4) attitude toward advertising, and (5) mood.⁴⁵

(1) Ad credibility is defined as the extent to which the consumer perceives claims about the brand in the ad to be truthful and believable.⁴⁶ This would certainly bear on consumers' evaluations of how useful any given advertisement is and should therefore be considered as a candidate criterion of utility.

(2) Ad perceptions are defined as a multidimensional array of consumer perceptions of the advertising stimulus including executional factors but excluding perceptions of the advertised brand itself.⁴⁷ The manner in which an ad is perceived is also an important determinant of whether or not it will be perceived as useful, so this too warrants further consideration.

(3) Attitude toward the advertiser is defined as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner toward the sponsoring organization.⁴⁸ While the predisposition to the sponsor certainly mediates one's attitudes toward the sponsor's message, it does not concern the usefulness of the message itself.

(4) Attitude toward advertising is defined as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner toward advertising in general.⁴⁹ Attitude toward advertising deals similarly with a predispositional state and therefore not directly with evaluating the nature of any specific advertisement.

(5) Mood is defined as the consumer's affective state at the time of exposure to the ad stimulus.⁵⁰ Again, one's affective state during exposure, though mediating how an ad is received, does not concern the ad itself and is therefore not relevant to identifying criteria to measure advertising utility.

Study of how consumers process advertising in low

involvement situations suggests that a combination of ad-related and predispositional antecedents account for attitudes toward ads themselves, which in turn lead to purchase behavior and attitude change. In distinguishing those relevant to the task of explaining advertising utility, it is preferable to first concentrate on ad-related criteria. Clearly, more than just the nature of an ad itself will determine how it is received and predispositional elements in existing models are important to the extent they account for influences which either facilitate or detract from an ad's ability to elicit the desired response. These additional influences will also bear on the degree to which consumers perceive ads to be useful in any given situation. The immediate purpose, however, is to explicate some construct of utility against which ads may be evaluated which must precede study of external influences that may bear on that construct.

An important question is whether a measure of advertising utility can play a role in evaluating advertising for low-involvement purchase situations, characterized by purchase of relatively trivial convenience goods and little active search for information. The answer appears to be "yes" since advertising is still very important in low-involvement situations. Though consumers do not actively process such advertising, learning passively through non-rational means, this does not rule out that a "rational" means for evaluating this kind of advertising can

be developed. On the contrary, the relative number of low-involvement products, the propensity of advertisers to employ non-rational tactics to sell them, and the significant "effects" of such advertising underscore the importance of a measure that will "activate" consumers' intellects in processing these kinds of messages. As Krugman noted, advertising effects during passive learning are very strong because the "public lets down its guard to repetitive commercial use...(easily changing)...its ways of perceiving products and brands and its purchase behavior without thinking very much about it at any time prior to purchase."⁵¹ Assessing low-involvement advertising in terms of its utility and reporting results to consumers via indexes, would "short-circuit" the process of influencing people without them thinking about it, in a sense "raising their guard."

Dissonance Reduction Theories

Dissonance reduction theories make up the third hierarchy which is the exact opposite of the one posited for active learning. It is based on the concept termed "cognitive dissonance" originally formulated by Leon Festinger.⁵² Cognitive dissonance occurs when individuals perceive or experience something departing from their sense of reality. When this occurs, Festinger explains, "the reality which impinges on a person will exert pressures in

the direction of bringing the appropriate cognitive elements into correspondence with that reality."⁵³ When consumers are forced to make a choice without having had the prior opportunity to learn or form attitudes toward a product, they revise their attitudes to bolster the choice they made through experience with the product and/or selective learning of messages supportive of it.⁵⁴ The hierarchy in these situations is therefore, "behavior change-->attitude change-->learning," or "do-->feel-->learn."

Additional study of dissonance has led to theories explaining how people endeavor to "balance" the external world with their own motives to "attribute" causes of events they observe.⁵⁵ When purchases that cause dissonance are made, advertising serves as a supplier of information that consumers selectively process in order to rationalize their purchases and readjust their mental states to achieve a balance with reality. Learning in this hierarchy is more involved than in low-involvement situations because there is active search for information.⁵⁶ There is little in the literature about this hierarchy since it assumes advertising plays an unimportant role in causing purchase behavior.⁵⁷ Others argue it is not often applicable to mass media advertising nor easily studied in artificial situations.⁵⁸ For present purposes, dissonance reduction theory suggests that utility would relate to information advertising provides that permits consumers to feel confident they have made wise purchases.

Adding "Utility" to Communications-Effects Theories

Review of existing theories of advertising effectiveness permits several conclusions. First, they are concerned with establishing whether advertising leads to specific effects that mediate its ability to stimulate purchase behavior. They do not concern themselves with the extent to which advertising satisfies consumer needs. The most sturdy theory of marketing states that firms are successful in the extent to which they efficiently meet the needs of consumers with their products. No similar theory, however, exists for advertising.

Second, existing theories do not offer a way of establishing common ground between senders and receivers of campaigns that could serve as a basis for improving the value of advertising for both constituencies--and arguably its effectiveness. Advertising remains woefully inadequate in its one-sided approach to communicating with consumers. Common ground will be demarcated by including a range of consumer needs that are potentially addressed by advertising, needs that firms must endeavor to meet with their communications programs.

Third, measures of advertising effectiveness reflect senders' concerns and not those of consumers. Measures of recognition and recall supply information on the critical but limited issue of whether messages "get through" to consumers. Attitude measures, though more comprehensive in

scope, tend to focus on attitudes toward products and not toward advertising. More comprehensive measures of advertising utility from a consumer point of view are necessary.

Fourth, existing communications theories suggest that advertising works differently in different situations, frustrating attempts at a more integrative view. A more unified view of advertising effectiveness may be stimulated by shifting the emphasis from how advertising achieves business objectives to how it achieves those of consumers.

These criticisms aside, conclusions can be drawn from existing theories that will aid in formulating a basis for evaluating advertising utility. First, advertising utility should be related to the information it provides. Regardless of which hierarchy is operative in a given situation, consumers learn from advertising. By definition, this assumes they retain some information from the advertising to which they are exposed. The fact that in low-involvement situations they tend not to actively process this information does not negate its existence nor the fact that it becomes learned.

Second, it is clear that perceptions of advertising are a function of more than its informational qualities. Non-informational executional attributes of ads have a large impact on how they are received and probably also on how useful they are perceived to be. This is confirmed by research on the Aad construct. Further, advertisements are

part of a much larger mass communications environment attracting users for many other reasons besides collection of information on products. Advertising utility will necessarily be determined by its relationship to the mass communications environment in which it resides.

Finally, some new construct of utility will have to be examined in relation to existing models of persuasive communication. Since evaluations of utility should reflect how consumers feel, they might be appropriately understood as "attitudes toward advertising utility." Once specified, such a construct should be studied in relation to other variables in the various established learning hierarchies.

Analyses of the Information Content of Advertising

In this section, the discussion turns to a review of research that has concentrated on evaluating advertising in terms of its informational and non-informational qualities. Empirical study of the information content of advertising was stimulated by the realization expressed in statements like the one made by a Canadian government official who commented that an "amazing" number of broadcast commercials contain no facts or worthwhile information.⁵⁹ Resnik and Stern devised a set of 14 "information cues" which permitted them to analyze the content of television commercials and make conclusions regarding their informativeness. Using a very liberal definition, they considered an advertisement to be

informative if it communicated at least one of their 14 informational cues. Employing this lax definition, less than one-half of the 378 commercials studied were deemed informative. Employing two cues, 16 percent were informative and only one percent were evaluated as informative when three cues were applied as the standard. In addition, their classification of commercials by product category, enabled them to comment on differing information content in advertising for different kinds of products.⁶⁰ How such differences may affect consumer evaluations of utility will be discussed further on.

Several years later, the same authors, along with Krugman performed a similar analysis of the information content of magazine advertising.⁶¹ Using the same definitions applied in the earlier study, they found magazine advertisements to contain considerably more information, though when applying a standard of two informational cues, still almost half of 1500 randomly selected magazine ads were classified as uninformative.

This content analytic approach to evaluating informativeness provides consistent evidence that much advertising supplies very little information. A recent article by King et. al. identified 12 additional studies that employed this general approach.⁶² One problem with this research is the difficulty in arriving at an acceptable definition of informativeness. Furthermore, the estimates of the amount of information in content-analyzed ads may be

elevated since typically everything that "appears" to be a fact is considered. Consumers, however, might not agree as some facts may be important to them (and, thus, considered informative) and others may be well-known and redundant. Also, ordinary consumers, paying less attention to ads than researchers, likely acquire far less information.⁶³

Others have actually measured consumer perceptions of informativeness. Larkin examined how consumers view the information content of various media.⁶⁴ Among his findings were: consumers perceive newspaper ads to be the most truthful and informative; television ads to be the most annoying, insulting, misleading, most entertaining, and the best source of new product news; and magazines to be the best source of information on durable goods.

Soley and Reid examined consumer satisfaction with the informational value of magazine versus television advertising and found similar results.⁶⁵ Specifically, consumers were more satisfied with the informational value of magazine than television advertising. King et. al. studied the informativeness of national versus retail advertising and found retail ads were considered more informative.⁶⁶

A more detailed study from a consumer viewpoint was conducted by Aaker and Norris who used a measure asking respondents whether they "perceived ads as informative" to analyze 524 television commercials. Without any specific definition of "informativeness," they reported 18.2 percent

of the ads were perceived as informative.⁶⁷ A factor analysis was also conducted to determine what characterized an informative commercial. Large positive correlations were found between "informativeness" and several adjectives grouped into a "personal relevance" factor--"worth remembering" (.59), "convincing" (.68), "effective" (.38), and "interesting" (.51).

They also found that commercials perceived as high on personal relevance tended not to be either "entertaining," "warm," or "disliked." The adjectives in these factors all had substantially negative or low correlations with "informativeness." The authors concluded that informative commercials are quite distinct from those which are entertaining, warm, or disliked.⁶⁸

The authors explained that hard-sell copy (or "reason-why" advertising) in which product attribute information is presented, usually by a spokesperson, with no jingles, humor, animation, slice-of-life or other deviations from a pure factual sales pitch, was the best predictor of informativeness. Soft-sell copy, conversely, which frequently uses characterization, humor, or other non-informational strategies, best predicted "uninformativeness." Since commercials tending to be informative tend not to be entertaining or warm, an interesting issue is why commercials tend to be "one-or-the-other." It is reasonable to assume that commercials that are "both" informative and entertaining

would be most useful to consumers.

Some commentators note that little of value has been done since the classic Bauer and Greyser study in 1968 which found that 5.8 percent of noticed advertisements were perceived as informative.⁶⁹ Nevertheless, the reason why people approve of advertising was found to be its informational role,⁷⁰ even though it fares quite poorly in fulfilling this primary function as subsequent studies have demonstrated. The main reasons people reported disliking ads were that they are intrusive, untruthful, insulting, and offensive.⁷¹ Aaker and Bruzzone referred to this as "irritation" and found it to be higher when commercials demonstrated several attributes: when they concerned sensitive products, portrayed unbelievable situations, used 'put-downs' of people, depicted a threatened relationship, graphic discomfort, tension, an undesirable character, a suggestive scene, or used poor casting.⁷²

Two main points can be made regarding these studies. Those analyzing the content of ads or measuring consumer perceptions in order to evaluate informativeness are narrow insofar as they concentrate on only one dimension accounting for people's attitudes toward advertising. As Bauer and Greyser noted, the main reasons for liking advertising relate to its informativeness and, to a lesser extent, its entertainment value, while the main reasons for disliking ads concern their negative impact on individuals.⁷³ A full evaluation of utility will need to accomodate both

advertising's informational as well as its non-informational attributes since both account for consumer attitudes and both likely satisfy different consumer needs.

These studies of informativeness are also "one-shot." Their differing designs and methodologies do not permit generalizations across time. If consumers are to benefit from such research there is a need for trend and comparative data, a need foreseen by Bauer and Greyser.⁷⁴

Time-based Measures of Consumer Attitudes and Sentiments Toward Marketing and Advertising

Research in this area bears the closest relation to that being proposed here for two reasons: (1) it concerns the development of evaluative measures based on consumer attitudes, and (2) it argues that these measures be used to collect time-series data in order to monitor changes in performance. It is distinguishable from that being proposed here by its broader aim of assessing consumer satisfaction with business activities in general.

A major early effort was undertaken by the U.S. government which was interested in predicting consumption behavior by collecting both objective and subjective data. An annual survey was conducted for 14 consecutive years, beginning in 1946. Initiated by the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and taken over by the Survey Research Center (SRC) of the University of Michigan one year later, the

project collected objective data for variables such as income, assets, and liabilities as a means of assessing the amount of liquid assets held by consumers on a yearly basis. Subjective measures were taken of consumer expectations, intentions, and attitudes to predict the general strength of consumer demand. Early analyses yielded high correlations between consumer expectations and actual purchases. When these correlations dissipated, it was apparent that the aggregate purchase plans of consumers were no longer a strong predictor of demand and government funding was withdrawn and the program discontinued.⁷⁵

Since then, the SRC has maintained a privately-financed periodic survey that has evolved into a quarterly program collecting and publishing data used to formulate an Index of Consumer Sentiment.⁷⁶ This indicator is published in the U.S. Department of Commerce Report, Business Conditions Digest. The SRC also publishes the Consumer Confidence Index. Both receive the attention of the general public.⁷⁷

The SRC employs a rotating monthly national probability sample of about 800 households, random-digit telephone interviewing, and a five-item instrument to assess general attitudes toward buying. The attitude measure includes three dimensions: personal finances, economic prospects, and buying plans.⁷⁸ Similar programs are conducted by The Conference Board with data collected by National Family Opinion, Inc. to produce a monthly measure of consumer confidence, and by Yankelovich, Skelley, and White, Inc.,

which tracks attitudinal trends on upward mobility/money, institutions, and the family.⁷⁹ Similar to the federal government's prior efforts, Gaski and Etzel describe their purpose as "intended as a basis for forecasting future activity."⁸⁰

Time-based measures of consumer attitudes toward marketing have also been taken. At two-year intervals from 1971 to 1979, Barksdale, Darden, and Perreault surveyed consumers to determine a composite measure of their attitudes toward marketing, consumerism, and government regulation. This research grew out of the sharp criticism by consumerists in the 1970s of the marketing practices of business and the authors' belief that relatively little was known of consumer attitudes toward marketing.⁸¹

Data were collected by mail survey with the sample developed from telephone directories using exchanges within each of the 48 contiguous states.⁸² Forty-six Likert-type statements measured consumer attitudes toward the philosophy of business, product quality, advertising, other marketing activities, consumer responsibilities, government regulation, and prices and price control. After nearly a decade of research, the authors reported substantial stability in attitudes toward the business sector and that consumers were as skeptical about the operating philosophy of business in 1979 as they were in 1970.⁸³

With respect to advertising, these surveys contained only four items: the believability of product advertising,

the reliability of advertising information on the quality and performance of products, the dependability of advertised versus unadvertised products, and whether advertisements present a true picture of their products. The majority of consumers felt that most advertising was not believable, generally failed to supply a true picture of products, and was not a reliable source of information on product quality and performance.⁸⁴ They found that "general" consumer attitudes toward advertising changed little over the period despite increased government intervention during this time.

Using the studies of Barksdale, Darden, and Perrault as a model, Gaski and Etzel collected data on consumer sentiments in 1980, then devised a composite index of consumer sentiment toward marketing demonstrating a trend over a ten-year period. In the authors' words, "the index would serve as a continuing barometer of how marketing is doing in the eyes of the consumer public....of interest not only to marketing/consumer researchers and practitioners but to public policymakers and the general public as well."⁸⁵

These attempts to measure consumers' general attitudes toward marketing have not focused on advertising. The four-item measure of attitudes toward advertising used by Darden et. al. and Gaski and Etzel, while confirming that consumers are generally dissatisfied, fails to supply a useful means for attacking the problem. Such general measures do not reflect the multidimensionality of attitudes toward advertising and likely give only a partial

explanation of the value people place on it. It is clearly possible that two persons with similarly negative attitudes toward advertising may use it in widely divergent ways and place widely differing estimates on its utility. General attitudinal measures, such as those used in the past, tap into a chronic image problem of the institution. They fail, however, to reveal the numerous potential explanations for such evaluations. Attitudes toward advertising are likely as ambivalent as attitudes toward all institutions that play important roles in people's lives. General measures of these attitudes supply information on the symptoms, but say little about the causes.

Responding to consumer dissatisfaction requires a measure of advertising utility that, as fully as possible, accounts for the ways advertising may potentially satisfy consumer needs and which may then serve as a basis for assessing the extent to which it does so. Equally important, such a measure will be a helpful diagnostic tool since it will highlight specific areas where performance is in need of most improvement.

Key Functions That Determine Advertising Utility

Informational Function

A helpful way to address the issue of identifying key functions for any institution is by recognizing goals or

end-values it serves to promote. It should be stressed, however, that the choice of end-values is ultimately one made by citizens; experts may participate but cannot decide alone.⁸⁶ In the case of advertising, continuing with the reasoning discussed thus far, the consumer should be the focus of evaluative efforts. This notion has a strong tradition dating back to the philosophy of private enterprise set out in the dictum of Adam Smith that, "consumption is the sole end and purpose of all production; and the interest of the producer ought to be attended to, only so far as it may be necessary for promoting that of the consumer."⁸⁷ It has been argued that the preponderance of theory and research evaluating the effectiveness of advertising has focused on the interests of the producer rather than the consumer.

The conception of the "sovereign self-seeking consumer" is one of the tenets of classical liberalism, the fertile seedbed of ideas thought to provide the most appropriate growth medium for advertising.⁸⁸ The key to understanding this view is the notion that individuals behave "rationally" to satisfy their own desires and that such behavior necessitates that they be fully "informed" of the available alternatives so as to make a choice which brings them the greatest possible satisfaction. This idea has served as the basis for regarding advertising's ability to supply information as its chief legitimizing function, upon which both supporters and critics agree.⁸⁹

Consumer sovereignty rests on two assumptions--first, that there is freedom of choice and, second, that competition among sellers exists. The role that advertising plays in promoting each of these is the respective locus of the two main schools of thought from which economists have viewed the subject. The traditional approach views advertising from the latter perspective as a form of market power. Its focus is on predicting how advertising influences competition.⁹⁰ Especially in the case of national advertising, early practitioners openly described its purpose as to compel wholesalers to buy their branded goods at higher-than-competitive prices;⁹¹ there is significant evidence on this issue.⁹² This approach, however, does not focus on consumers and what functions and potential benefits advertising offers them, the concern of the more recent approach described as the "economics of information" which constitutes a growing portion of contemporary economic theory.⁹³

This second approach is explained by Ornstein:

...advertising provides information on brands, prices, and quality, thus increasing buyer knowledge, reducing consumers' search costs, and reducing the total cost to society of transacting business. Advertising induces sellers to improve the quality of goods: better informed buyers are not likely to purchase or repurchase low-quality or unsatisfactory goods. By increasing information, advertising increases the number of substitutes known to buyers, thereby increasing price elasticity of demand and reducing price-cost margins.⁹⁴

The view that advertising serves an informational

function led to the research investigating its informativeness described earlier. It also fostered a debate on whether ads are "persuasive" or "informative." This information-persuasion dichotomy is now generally considered misleading.⁹⁵ It has been replaced by a broader definition of information as "any stimulus that is relevant to the decision to buy or consume a product or service."⁹⁶ Recent attempts to evaluate informativeness have dispensed with trying to dichotomize advertising as either informative or persuasive and have instead tried to assess the extent to which it provides any and all kinds of information of use to consumers.

Evaluating advertising in terms of its informational function is given further impetus by two factors tending to put consumers at a disadvantage in relation to sellers, thereby challenging their sovereignty and weakening the operation of the market. First, individual consumer purchases are minimal in relation to the seller's volume of sales. Second, the seller has a strong informational advantage. Since little can be done to equalize the former, attention should be focused on actions which may equalize this latter imbalance.⁹⁷

Entertainment Function

A number of studies reflect the multidimensionality in attitudes toward advertising.⁹⁸ The two major dimensions

have been found to relate to its economic and its social effects as originally discerned by Bauer and Greyser, who found that consumer attitudes could be clearly divided between general support for advertising's economic role and general disapproval of its social role.⁹⁹ Subsequent investigations have employed these same dimensions to investigate attitudes.¹⁰⁰

In the case of advertising's economic role, however, Bauer and Greyser asked people to respond to "macro-type" issues that, as individuals, they would have no direct means of assessing: "advertising is essential," "advertising helps raise our standard of living," and "advertising results in better products." The average consumer likely has no firm method for estimating whether advertising helps raise his standard of living or results in better products. Whatever economic benefits ensue from advertising, it is generally agreed they hinge on its ability to provide information on products. To evaluate advertising's economic effects from a consumer point of view, the assumption has been made here that individuals can better evaluate the quality of information advertising provides than issues requiring speculative judgments on advertising's role in the economy. Thus, the "economic" dimension as defined by Bauer and Greyser has been dismissed here as not directly related to assessing advertising utility for consumers.

In regard to its social role, Bauer and Greyser employed items that individual consumers would have a direct

means of evaluating on the basis of personal experience. Items measured whether or not advertising presents a true picture of products, whether it causes people to buy things they shouldn't, and whether it is insulting to one's intelligence; all things individuals constantly exposed to advertising are in a better position on which to form opinions. Bauer and Greyser labeled such items measuring personal reactions to ads as "social" rather than some term describing the personal experience individuals have as consumers of advertising.

Consumers' main reasons for not liking advertising have been found to be its intrusiveness, untruthfulness, tendency to insult one's intelligence, and its offensiveness.¹⁰¹ Since untruthfulness relates to the nature of the information in ads, it should be considered as a variable within the information dimension. The other reasons, however, seem to describe a general displeasure with the experience of exposure to ads, akin to how one would describe an experience with a particularly bad movie, television program, art exhibit, or some other activity engaged in for entertainment purposes. This type of "entertainment" function has been explicated in the "uses and gratifications" approach to media theory wherein an audience acts to fulfill its need for escapism, diversion, aesthetic enjoyment, or emotional release.¹⁰²

There are, of course, several broad negative social impacts of advertising, as commentators have explicitly

recognized. Boorstin coined the term "The Advertising Penumbra" to represent the way advertising has contributed to "the thinner life of things" by attenuating, thinning out, and diluting all our experience.¹⁰³ Galbraith argued that advertising promotes private consumption at the expense of public consumption in the form of schools, education, better public buildings, wars on poverty, and more social research.¹⁰⁴ And Schudson lamented that advertising "speaks to people as no decent person would talk to a friend or neighbor or customer...(taking) advantage of people's anxieties or fondly held hopes in order to make money."¹⁰⁵

Yet it is apparent that more criticisms of advertising from consumers are directed at the tactics advertisers employ rather than the overall mission of the institution.¹⁰⁶ Overall attitudes toward advertising as an institution have been found to be decidedly more favorable than unfavorable.¹⁰⁷ From the point of view of individual consumers, their main reasons for not liking advertising were summarized by the observation that ads themselves are unpleasant neighbors. "Their inherent qualities annoy."¹⁰⁸ The unsavoriness of the advertising experience seems then to be a result of poor scripting and execution rather than a fundamental aversion to the sales intention underlying it.

Therefore, the volume of sales messages individuals are exposed to daily demands they have at least some redeeming entertainment value if not some greater contribution to the social good. Establishing good "entertainment" as a goal of

advertising is certainly less restrictive than what would be proposed by critics of the institution, but it takes into consideration that advertising's function for consumers should be viewed first in informational and entertainment terms.

A Theory of Advertising Utility

Having reviewed existing theory on advertising effectiveness and studies of consumer perceptions and attitudes, the two main factors that are proposed to account for how consumers would evaluate advertising utility are its informativeness and its entertainment value. A theory which purports to explain advertising usefulness must therefore accomodate these two basic dimensions.

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary defines "utility" as "fitness for some purpose or worth to some end." Applying this definition to the issue here permits the general research question, "How fit or of how much worth is advertising to the established purposes of informing and entertaining consumers?" In answering this question, any and all means by which advertising contributes to these purposes and, conversely, how it detracts from them, can be considered.

There is some benefit in a broadly defined theory. In evaluating societal institutions or phenomena there is a need for broad concepts in order to reconcile diverse

particular values in public discourse.¹⁰⁹ In the case of advertising, a theory of utility must accomodate both informational and entertainment uses as well as more specific elements within each dimension. "Utility," from a definitional standpoint, permits consideration of diverse attributes in terms of their respective contributions while uniting them in relation to an overall purpose, namely, to describe advertising that is most useful to consumers.

"Utility" is the central notion in the widely known teleological theory of "utilitarianism." Utilitarian theories are rooted in the thesis that an action or practice is right if it leads to the greatest possible balance of good consequences in the world as a whole.¹¹⁰ Utilitarians see the purpose of morality as promoting human welfare by maximizing benefits and minimizing harms.¹¹¹ Economists say that consumers are "utility-maximizers" who use their limited resources to acquire products that offer them the greatest utility.¹¹² The theory proposed here for evaluating advertising is utilitarian in nature in that it focuses on explaining how to maximize the benefits of advertising for consumers by specifying criteria that describe informative and entertaining ads while minimizing the harms it causes by specifying criteria that describe ads which are uninformative and unentertaining. A typology based on two dimensions--information utility and entertainment utility--is presented in Figure 2 below.

The two-by-two matrix categorizes advertising into four groups of differing utility. Advertising high in utility is

defined as advertising that is both informative and entertaining. Advertising low in utility is defined as advertising that is both uninformative and unentertaining. Moderate advertising utility is defined by advertising high on one of the dimensions and low on the other. Advertising of moderate utility may be informative but unentertaining or, conversely, entertaining but uninformative.

Figure 2
Typology of Advertising Utility

		Information Utility	
		High	Low
Entertainment Utility	High	HIGH	MODERATE
	Low	MODERATE	LOW

This simple typology permits classification of advertising based on its usefulness to consumers. Ads that inform and entertain are regarded as most useful to consumers. Ads that do neither offer little of use. Ads that are only informative are useful in helping make wise purchase decisions, though limited to the extent they require consumer sufferance in exchange. Ads that are only

engaging are useful as enlivening agents, but limited by their failure to supply useful information. The simple equation implied by the theory is:

Advertising Utility = Informativeness + Entertainment Value.

The principle of utility was defined by John Stuart Mill as "the happiness principle," wherein actions are right in proportion to their tendency to promote happiness or absence of pain and wrong insofar as they tend to produce pain or displeasure. All desirable things, Mill argued, are desirable either for their inherent pleasure or as means of promoting pleasure and preventing pain.¹¹³

Evaluating advertising in this way is a step beyond existing theories in its isomorphism with consumer valuations. To serve its informational function for consumers, advertising should help them make purchase decisions that promote their self-interests, thereby promoting their pleasure (products and services which enhance their quality of life) and preventing pain (products and services which protect them from illness and dangers of the environment). But it must also be evaluated in terms of its inherent attributes as a form of communication capable of giving either pleasure or displeasure. The majority of ads consumers see and hear are processed with little intention of future purchase but rather with the limited objective of evaluating whether, at the time of exposure,

they provide some momentarily positive or negative experience. In accounting for such non-purchase-related evaluations of ads, advertising utility will permit a fuller assessment of how advertising is evaluated by consumers in the majority of situations.

Determinants of Advertising Utility

The determinants of advertising utility are the contributory variables hypothesized to form a model of the construct. Measures of each of these contributory variables may serve as partial indicators or may be combined to derive a composite measure of advertising utility. Preliminary bounds for the construct are based on the information and entertainment functions of advertising, hypothesized to be the basis for explaining its utility to consumers. Information utility is defined in terms of the "adequacy of information"¹¹⁴ supplied by advertising on which consumer purchase decisions may be based. Entertainment utility is defined negatively in terms of the "annoyance" it causes consumers and positively in terms of the "enjoyment" it affords them.

Determinants of Information Utility

Howard and Hulbert identified four criteria that are necessary for selecting evaluative measures of information

adequacy in advertising: (1) they should be sufficiently inclusive to cope with the tremendous variety of consumer purchase situations; (2) they should be applicable to all types of marketing information yet, at the same time, permit an evaluation of any single component of the mix, such as advertising; (3) they should reflect our best knowledge of consumer behavior; and (4) they should, as nearly as possible, be operational.¹¹⁵ They proposed six determinants of the adequacy of advertising information which in their view largely meet these requirements. All six determinants have been selected as hypothesized determinants of information utility.

Timeliness: Is the information available when the consumer needs it? Unless an ad is timely, whatever information of use it contains will be unavailable to consumers at or about the time they require it to make purchase decisions. Consumer behaviorists have studied memory to understand how information is stored as well as how it can be activated to recall certain information.¹¹⁶ Of concern have been the processes that explain whether consumers will remember having seen or heard an ad at the time of purchase. Of importance here is the extent to which advertising supplies information to consumers when they need it to make purchase decisions, or, the extent to which consumers have been exposed to the information in ads in advance of purchase with sufficient effectiveness and/or frequency that the information may serve as useful input to

their purchase decisions. Another aspect of timeliness referred to by Howard and Hulbert relates to the creation of "time and place utility." That is, a product is useful only if it is available where and when they need it and advertising is timely to the extent it permits consumers to make such purchases.¹¹⁷

Intelligibility: Intelligibility is the capacity of advertising to transmit its meaning to consumers. For information to be intelligible it must be clear and understandable. Howard and Hulbert relate this to studies of "information ambiguity."¹¹⁸ Advertisers often employ ambiguity in their ads to permit diverse consumers who do not hold strong beliefs regarding a product to interpret its meaning to conform to their own unique beliefs and past experiences. An ambiguous message is more likely to be accepted and will be interpreted as conforming to different consumers' needs, thereby ensuring the largest potential market for the product.¹¹⁹ Past some point, however, ambiguity detracts from the clarity of meaning in advertising, thereby detracting from its intelligibility. Facts such as the merits of a brand, how to buy it, and how to use it should be communicated so as to provide unambiguous understanding. The more successfully advertising communicates its information intelligibly, the greater its contribution to informed purchase decisions and the greater should be its utility.

Relevance: Consumers evaluate products by conceptualizing them on certain dimensions. Some theories assume consumers evaluate each brand across all need criteria and others assume they rate brands usually one criterion at a time.¹²⁰ Advertising is relevant to the extent it supplies information concerning the dimensions consumers regard as important in evaluating products. Howard and Hulbert give examples of how information is the basis for consumer judgments with respect to different types of products. In the case of a breakfast cereal, consumers use size, color of package, and ingredients to distinguish between alternatives. In purchasing a car, consumers may value information on performance, gas mileage, roominess, status appeal, or price. Different types of information will be relevant to formulating consumer preferences for different types of products. Information related to either identification of a brand or to evaluative judgments about it is relevant¹²¹ and should contribute to advertising utility. As mentioned earlier, Aaker and Bruzzone defined a similar construct, "personal relevance," which appeared in the factor analyses of four studies of consumer perceptions of advertising. Advertising that was personally relevant was found to be most highly related to estimates that it was worth remembering and interesting.¹²²

Truthfulness: Does the product provide the benefit the ad says or implies it does? Howard and Hulbert identify two aspects to the answer: (1) identifying the claim, and (2)

determining whether the claim is true.¹²³ In the case of implied or ambiguous claims, the difficulty in discerning their true nature poses problems for consumers and tends to reduce the perception that an ad is truthful. If an ad is perceived as truthful it will tend to have "credibility." Much advertising is not considered credible because the tactics employed make it obvious to consumers that its only intention is to sell. Consumer behaviorists who have studied this issue have concluded that the more credible an ad is perceived to be, the greater likelihood the receiver will accept the message.¹²⁴ Furthermore, stressing factual information in ads has been found to increase perceptions of credibility,¹²⁵ as has stressing both the pros and cons of a product.¹²⁶ So, to the extent advertising is perceived as truthful by consumers its utility should be enhanced.

Completeness: Completeness is defined by Howard and Hulbert as the extent to which information provided in advertising permits consumer choice with reasonable confidence.¹²⁷ This involves all aspects of choice including relevant attitude dimensions, brand comprehension dimensions, information triggering awareness of needs, and any content needed to aid the intelligibility of advertising.¹²⁸ Most studies have shown that consumers tend to search for only a limited amount of information for all but the most expensive products.¹²⁹ Furthermore, with the volume of available product alternatives and advertising associated with them, there is some point past which

consumers reject additional information due to "information overload."¹³⁰ In spite of these findings, the majority of consumers who do not actively search for purchase information probably make most purchase decisions without much on which to base them. Since advertising information is a readily available source, short of some point where its volume of information overloads their senses, advertising that supplies more complete information should be more useful.

Proper Segmentation: The last of Howard and Hulbert's determinants of the adequacy of information is more a management criterion for evaluating media effectiveness and efficiency rather than one individual consumers would directly use. Proper segmentation is defined as the accuracy with which advertisers reach their intended audiences without spillover into other markets.¹³¹ They note the problems associated with achieving proper segmentation through using the mass media and point to instances when, for example, children are exposed to ads for adults. Such issues deal primarily with proper target audience segmentation and media vehicle selection. From a consumer standpoint, however, ill-effects of poor segmentation will result in ads reaching consumers who for reasons of age, lifestyle, place of residence or other factors have little interest in them. If ads reach consumers who are not likely purchasers, they are likely to find them of little use. This variable was nevertheless

retained in the model for analysis.

Determinants of Entertainment Utility

The four criteria proposed by Howard and Hulbert as necessary for selecting evaluative measures should apply to those which will help evaluate the entertainment utility of advertising as well. Determinants of entertainment utility are based on the formative study by Bauer and Greyser in which they identified reasons why people tend to like or dislike advertisements. Bauer and Greyser summarized negative attributes of ads as the cause of consumer "annoyance" and "offensiveness."¹³² The term "irritation" has also been used to represent public dislike of ads.¹³³ Reasons people react favorably to ads were summarized as primarily due to their being "informative," "enjoyable," and able to evoke a sense of "identification."¹³⁴ "Informativeness" has been defined here as a separate dimension from entertainment. "Annoyance" and "offensiveness" should be negatively related to advertising utility whereas "enjoyment" and "identification" should be positively related.

Annoyance: Bauer and Greyser identified primary reasons why people find ads annoying which mostly related to various stimulus qualities: "intrusiveness," because they are seen and heard too often, interrupt something, are too loud or large, or are strung together with too many other

ads; "insulting to the intelligence," because they talk down to consumers or depict situations so unreal that they beg the question, "What do they expect me to believe?; and several other negative content-related effects.¹³⁵ Another study proposed the related factor, "irritation," which correlated with the adjectives "irritation" (.72), "silly" (.49), "phony" (.47), and "pointless" (.54).¹³⁶ Ads which cause annoyance have been further studied in conjunction with Aad research to uncover possible effects annoyance has on ad effectiveness.¹³⁷ Prevailing knowledge supports the notion that annoying or irritating ads can be more effective than those perceived "neutrally," although less effective than those which are well-liked.¹³⁸ Notwithstanding evidence that shows annoying ads can be effective, it is hypothesized they detract from advertising utility. The evidence that annoying ads can be effective is based on analysis of recall measures alone, not reactions to the brand or more comprehensive methods of assessing effects.¹³⁹ Annoying ads may just be better at gaining attention.

Offensiveness: Offensiveness was found to result from consumer perceptions that ads are in bad taste or that they advertise products that should not be advertised.¹⁴⁰ The distinguishing characteristic of ads people find offensive from those they find annoying is their "moral concern" with what is communicated.¹⁴¹ Offensiveness is also hypothesized to be negatively related to advertising utility.

Enjoyment: The main reasons people reported enjoying ads related to stimulus qualities they find uplifting, such as music and jingles, production values, visual appeal, humor, and performers.¹⁴² Aaker and Norris reported ads described as entertaining were those people found to be clever, imaginative, amusing, original, and lively.¹⁴³ Considerable research has investigated these various causes of enjoyment and their relation to ad effectiveness. For example, humor has been found to excel in getting attention,¹⁴⁴ and can produce above average changes in brand preference.¹⁴⁵ Music has been found to play a key role in some campaigns; the auto industry has increasingly turned to using jingles with significant impact on recognition and even sales.¹⁴⁶ A study by Gorn showed that subjects were more likely to select a specific color of pen if it had been paired with pleasant rather than unpleasant music.¹⁴⁷ With respect to performers, researchers have studied the effects associated with the attractiveness of spokespeople and generally found that source attractiveness increases message acceptance.¹⁴⁸ Together these studies suggest that enjoyment of ads will generally have a positive influence on their effectiveness for advertisers. To the extent they are enjoyable for consumers in and of themselves, they should be positively related to advertising utility.

Identification: Ads that give consumers a sense that they are a part of the situations depicted permit identification with the message. Bauer and Greyser

described this as the ability of ads to supply consumers with "vicarious enjoyment" of the situation depicted.¹⁴⁹ Related research has found that when consumers see characters in ads they regard as similar to themselves, they identify with what is being portrayed and are more likely to accept and be influenced by the message.¹⁵⁰ Other research concerning the generally low level of consumer involvement with advertising has looked at factors which increase involvement. Among the findings are that linking products to issues consumers consider important,¹⁵¹ or issues they can personally identify with,¹⁵² increases their involvement with advertising. Identification, then, should heighten the entertainment value of advertising and increase its utility.

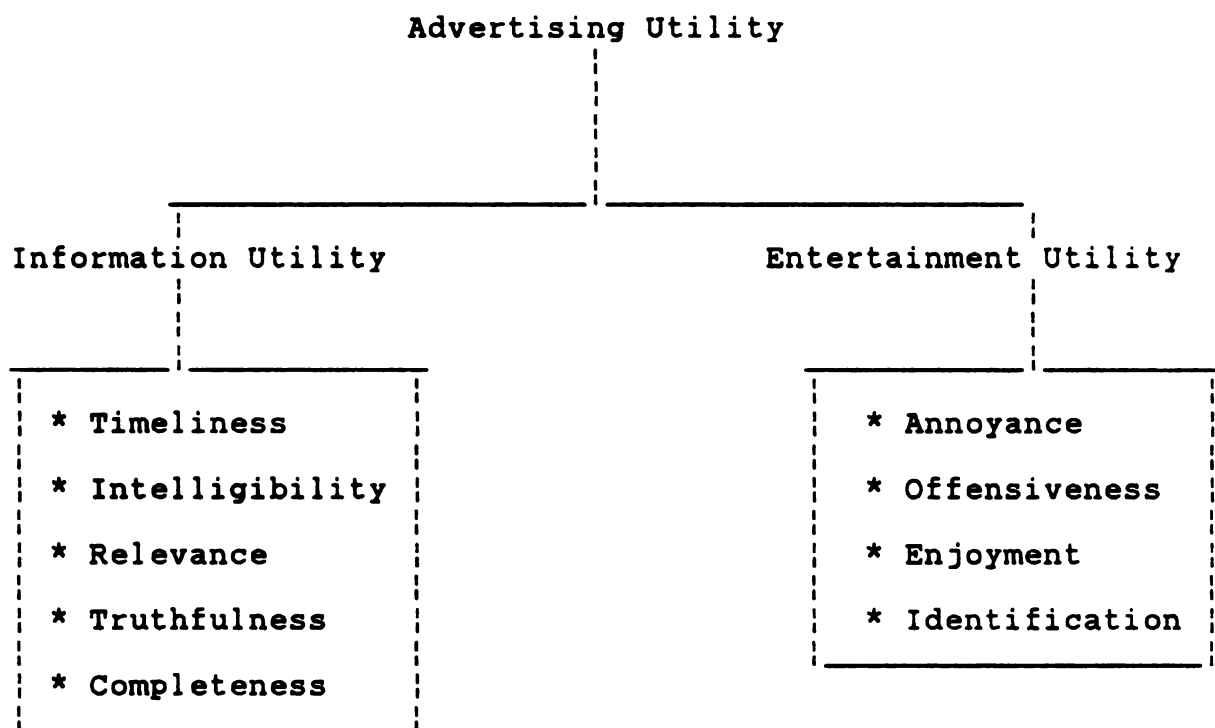
A complete model of advertising utility is presented in Figure 3 below.

Research Questions

Following are general research questions posed for this study based on the preceding review of the literature and specification of a theory of advertising utility.

1. Is there support for the theory of advertising utility as an approach to explaining how consumers evaluate the usefulness of advertising?
2. Are the variables hypothesized to be part of the model of advertising utility individually measureable criteria that can be employed to

Figure 3
Hypothesized Model of Advertising Utility



differentiate advertisements from one another in meaningful ways?

3. Can advertising utility be explained in terms of two general dimensions: information utility and entertainment utility?
4. Does a scale based on the measurement model of advertising utility permit advertisements to be differentiated with sufficient reliability and validity to be considered a practical means of evaluating advertising from a consumer point of view?
5. Are there implications of this research that may translate into further efforts at devising an index system of evaluating advertising for consumers?
6. Are there implications of this research that may translate into further efforts at devising an evaluative approach for use by advertising practitioners?

ENDNOTES FOR CHAPTER 2

¹Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, 3rd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1986), p. 9.

²Adapted from: Denis McQuail, Mass Communication Theory: An Introduction (London: Sage Publications, 1983), pp. 190-191.

³David W. Nylen, Advertising: Planning, Implementation, and Control, 3rd ed. (Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Company, 1986), p. 571.

⁴Charles Ramond, Advertising Research: The State of the Art (New York: Association of National Advertisers, Inc., 1976), p. 3.

⁵Russell L. Ackoff and James R. Emshoff, "Advertising Research at Anheuser-Busch Inc., (1963-68)," Sloan Management Review 16 (Winter 1975):1-15.

⁶William M. Weilbacher, Advertising (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1979), p. 638.

⁷Earl Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, 3rd ed. (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1983), pp. 36-45.

⁸Ambar G. Rao and Peter B. Miller, "Advertising/Sales Response Functions," Journal of Advertising Research 15 (April 1975):7-15.

⁹Ackoff and Emshoff, "Advertising Research at Anheuser Busch."

¹⁰Weilbacher, Advertising, p. 640.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Ramond, Advertising Research: The State of the Art, p. 11.

¹³Lee Adler, Alan Greenberg, and D. B. Lucas, "What Do Big Agency Men Think of Copy Testing Methods?" Journal of Marketing Research 2 (November 1965):339-345.

¹⁴Harper W. Boyd Jr. and Michael L. Ray, "What Big Agency Men in Europe Think of Copy Testing Methods?" Journal of Marketing Research 8 (May 1971):219-223.

¹⁵Michael L. Ray, Advertising and Communications Management (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: 1982), p. 177.

¹⁶Nylen, Advertising: Planning, Implementation, and Control, p. 573.

¹⁷Weilbacher, Advertising, p. 640.

¹⁸Robert J. Lavidge and Gary A. Steiner, "A Model for Predictive Measurements of Advertising Effectiveness," Journal of Marketing 24 (October 1961):59-62.

¹⁹Weilbacher, Advertising, p. 641.

²⁰Robert B. Ekelund, Jr. and David S. Saurman, Advertising and the Market Process: A Modern Economic View (San Francisco, California: Pacific Research Institute for Public Policy, 1988), p. 46.

²¹Nylen, Advertising: Planning, Implementation, and Control, p. 675.

²²Russell H. Colley, Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Advertising Results (New York: Association of National Advertisers, 1961).

²³David A. Aaker and John G. Myers, Advertising Management, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1982), p. 109.

²⁴K. Groesbeck, "Testing Advertising in the Laboratory," Advertising and Selling 15 (1930):19.

²⁵John M. Caffyn, "On Methods: Psychological Laboratory Techniques in Copy Research," Journal of Advertising Research 4 (1964):44-50.

²⁶Herta M. Herzog, "Is Copy Testing a Predictive Tool?" in Proceedings, Tenth Annual Conference of the Advertising Research Foundation (New York: Advertising Research Foundation, 1964), pp. 70-73.

²⁷C. H. Sandage, Vernon Fryburger, and Kim Rotzoll, Advertising Theory and Practice, 11th ed. (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1983), p. 395.

²⁸Ibid., p. 400.

²⁹Ramond, Advertising Research: The State of the Art, p. 17.

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ Sandage, Fryburger, and Rotzoll, Advertising Theory and Practice, p. 401.

³² Ramond, Advertising Research: The State of the Art, p. 17.

³³ See: Aaker and Myers, Advertising Management, p. 159.

³⁴ Ibid., pp. 177-185.

³⁵ Terence A. Shimp, "Attitude Toward the Ad as a Mediator of Consumer Brand Choice," Journal of Advertising 10 (1981):9-10.

³⁶ Richard J. Lutz, "Affective and Cognitive Antecedents of Attitude Toward the Ad: A Conceptual Framework," in Linda F. Alwitt and Andrew A. Mitchell, Psychological Processes and Advertising Effects: Theory, Research, and Applications (Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates., 1985), p. 46.

³⁷ Ramond, Advertising Research: The State of the Art, p. 17.

³⁸ Weilbacher, Advertising, p. 643.

³⁹ Ramond, Advertising Research: The State of the Art, p. 18.

⁴⁰ Herbert E. Krugman, "The Impact of Television Advertising: Learning Without Involvement," Public Opinion Quarterly 29 (1965):349-356.

⁴¹ Weilbacher, Advertising, p. 643.

⁴² Michael L. Ray, "Marketing Communications and the Hierarchy of Effects," in Peter Clarke, ed., New Models for Communication Research (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1973).

⁴³ Scott B. MacKenzie and Richard J. Lutz, "An Empirical Examination of the Structural Antecedents of Attitude Toward the Ad in an Advertising Pretesting Context," Journal of Marketing 53 (April 1989):49.

⁴⁴ Richard E. Petty and John T. Cacioppo, Attitudes and Persuasion: Classic and Contemporary Approaches (Dubuque, Iowa: A. C. Brown, 1981).

⁴⁵ MacKenzie and Lutz, "An Empirical Examination of the Structural Antecedents of Attitude Toward the Ad," p. 49.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 51.

⁴⁷Ibid.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 53.

⁴⁹Ibid.

⁵⁰Ibid., p. 54.

⁵¹Krugman, "The Impact of Television Advertising: Learning Without Involvement," pp. 354-355.

⁵²Leon Festinger, A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1957).

⁵³Ibid., p. 11.

⁵⁴Ray, "Marketing Communications and the Hierarchy of Effects," p. 152.

⁵⁵Harold H. Kelley, "The Processes of Causal Attribution," American Psychologist 28 (February 1973): 107-128.

⁵⁶Weilbacher, Advertising, p. 647.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 648.

⁵⁸Ramond, Advertising Research: The State of the Art, p. 20.

⁵⁹Alan Resnik and Bruce L. Stern, "An Analysis of Information Content in Television Advertising," Journal of Marketing 41 (January 1977):50-53.

⁶⁰Ibid.

⁶¹Bruce L. Stern, Dean M. Krugman, and Alan Resnik, "Magazine Advertising: An Analysis of Its Information Content," Journal of Advertising Research 21 (April 1981):39-44.

⁶²Karen Whitehall King, Leonard N. Reid, Spencer F. Tinkham, and James Pokrywczynski, "The Perceived Informativeness of National and Retail Advertising," Current Issues and Research in Advertising (1987):173-197.

⁶³Norris, "The Economic Effects of Advertising," p. 51.

⁶⁴Ernest F. Larkin, "Consumer Perceptions of the Media and their Advertising Content," Journal of Advertising 8 (Spring 1979):5-7, 48.

⁶⁵Lawrence C. Soley and Leonard N. Reid, "Satisfaction with the Informational Value of Magazine and Television Advertising," Journal of Advertising 12 (1983):27-31.

⁶⁶King et. al., "The Perceived Informativeness of National and Retail Advertising."

⁶⁷D. Aaker and D. Norris, "Characteristics of TV Commercials Perceived as Informative," Journal of Advertising Research 22 (April-May 1982):61-70.

⁶⁸Ibid., p. 70.

⁶⁹Aaker and Norris, "Characteristics of TV Commercials Perceived as Informative," pp. 61-62.

⁷⁰Raymond A. Bauer and Stephen A. Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View (Boston: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1968), p. 131.

⁷¹Ibid., pp. 134-135.

⁷²David A. Aaker and Donald E. Bruzzone, "Causes of Irritation in Advertising," Journal of Marketing 49 (Spring 1985):47-57.

⁷³Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, pp. 130, 107.

⁷⁴Ibid., p. 351.

⁷⁵John McNeil, "Federal Programs to Measure Consumer Purchase Expectations, 1946-1973: A Post-Mortem," Journal of Consumer Research 1 (December 1974):1-9.

⁷⁶Ibid., p. 2.

⁷⁷John F. Gaski and Michael J. Etzel, "The Index of Consumer Sentiment Toward Marketing," Journal of Marketing 50 (July 1986):71-81.

⁷⁸Ibid.

⁷⁹Ibid.

⁸⁰Ibid.

⁸¹Hiram C. Barksdale and William R. Darden, "Consumer Attitudes Toward Marketing and Consumerism," Journal of Marketing 36 (October 1972):28-35.

⁸²Hiram C. Barksdale, William R. Darden, and William D. Perrault, Jr., "Changes in Consumer Attitudes Toward Marketing, Consumerism and Government Regulation: 1971-1975," Journal of Consumer Affairs 10 (Winter 1976):117-139.

⁸³Hiram C. Barksdale and William D. Perrault, Jr., "Can Consumers Be Satisfied?" MSU Business Topics 28 (Spring 1980):19-30.

⁸⁴Barksdale, Darden, and Perrault, "Changes in Consumer Attitudes Toward Marketing, Consumerism and Government Regulation: 1971-1975," pp. 122, 124.

⁸⁵Gaski and Etzel, "The Index of Consumer Sentiment Toward Marketing," p. 72.

⁸⁶Duncan MacRae, Jr., Policy Indicators: Links Between Social Science and Public Debate (Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press, 1985), p. 36.

⁸⁷Paul J. McNulty, "The Consumer and the Producer," Yale Review 58 (Summer 1969):537.

⁸⁸Kim Rotzoll, James E. Haefner, and Charles J. Sandage, "Advertising and the Classical Liberal World View," in Roxanne Hovland and Gary Wilcox, eds., Advertising in Society (Lincolnwood, Illinois: NTC Publishing Group, 1989), p. 40.

⁸⁹Ibid., p. 31.

⁹⁰Mark S. Albion and Paul W. Farris, The Advertising Controversy (Boston: Auburn House Publishing Compnay, 1981), p. 32.

⁹¹Vincent Norris, "Advertising History--According to the Textbooks," Journal of Advertising 3 (1980):3-11.

⁹²Vincent Norris, "The Economic Effects of Advertising," p. 49.

⁹³J. Hirshleifer, "Where are We in the Theory of Information," American Economic Review 63 (May 1973):31-39.

⁹⁴S. I. Ornstein, Industrial Concentration and Advertising Intensity (Washington, D.C.: American Enterprise Institute, 1977), pp. 2-3.

⁹⁵Shelby D. Hunt, "Informational vs. Persuasive Advertising: An Appraisal," Journal of Advertising 5 (Summer 1976):5.

12
Ad
Ma

Pe
Co

an
Ec

Co

Ac

Cor

Int

Job
in
197

Hou

Ne

Row
by

Con

File

Rec
ren

⁹⁶William L. Wilkie and Paul W. Farris, "Consumer Information Processing: Perspectives and Implications for Advertising," Report No. 76-114 (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Marketing Science Institute, August 1976).

⁹⁷John A. Howard and James Hulbert, Advertising and the Public Interest: Staff Report to the FTC (Chicago: Crain Communications, Inc., 1973), p. 80.

⁹⁸Leonard N. Reid and Lawrence C. Soley, "Generalized and Personalized Attitudes Toward Advertising's Social and Economic Effects," Journal of Advertising 11 (1982):3.

⁹⁹Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, p. 106.

¹⁰⁰Reid and Soley, "Generalized and Personalized Attitudes Toward Advertising's Social and Economic Effects."

¹⁰¹Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, pp. 134-135.

¹⁰²Denis McQuail, Mass Communication Theory: An Introduction (London: Sage Publications, 1983), p. 83.

¹⁰³Daniel J. Boorstin, "The Thinner Life of Things," in John S. Wright and John E. Mertes, eds. Advertising's Role in Society (St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Company, 1974), pp. 106-116.

¹⁰⁴J. K. Galbraith, The Affluent Society (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1956).

¹⁰⁵Michael Schudson, Advertising, The Uneasy Persuasion (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1984), p. 240.

¹⁰⁶C. H. Sandage and J. Leckenby, "Student Attitudes Toward Advertising: Institution vs. Instrument," Journal of Advertising 9 (1980):29-32.

¹⁰⁷Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, pp. 101-102.

¹⁰⁸Ibid., pp. 133-136.

¹⁰⁹MacRae, Policy Indicators: Links Between Social Science and Public Debate, p. 32.

¹¹⁰Tom L. Beauchamp and Norman E. Bowie, eds., Ethical Theory and Business (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1983). p. 21.

¹¹¹Ibid.

¹¹²Philip Kotler, Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, and Control 4th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1980), p. 135.

¹¹³See: Samuel Gorovitz, ed., Mill: Utilitarianism, with Critical Essays (New York: Bobbs-Merrill, 1971) or Michael B. Bayles, ed., Contemporary Utilitarianism (Garden City, New Jersey: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1968).

¹¹⁴John A. Howard, "Conceptualizing Adequacy of Information," in Proceedings of the Association of Consumer Research (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1972).

¹¹⁵John A. Howard and James Hulbert, "Advertising and the Public Interest," Journal of Advertising Research 14 (December 1974):34.

¹¹⁶James F. Engel and Roger D. Blackwell, Consumer Behavior, 4th ed. (Chicago: Dryden Press, 1982), pp. 266-273.

¹¹⁷Howard and Hulbert, Advertising and the Public Interest: Staff Report to the FTC, p. 82.

¹¹⁸Ibid.

¹¹⁹Henry Assael, Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action, 3rd ed. (Boston: Kent Publishing Company, 1987). p. 157.

¹²⁰Ibid., pp. 41-44.

¹²¹Howard and Hulbert, "Advertising and the Public Interest," p. 36.

¹²²David A. Aaker and Donald E. Bruzzone, "Viewer Perceptions of Prime-Time Television Advertising," Journal of Advertising Research 21 (1981):15-23.

¹²³Howard and Hulbert, "Advertising and the Public Interest," p. 36.

¹²⁴Assael, Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action, p. 535.

¹²⁵See: W. Watts and William McGuire, "Persistence of Induced Opinion Change and Retention of the Inducing Message Contents," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 68 (1964):233-241 and G. Miller and J. Basehart, "Source Trustworthiness, Opinionated Statements and Response to Persuasive Communication," Speech Monographs 36 (1969):1-7.

¹²⁶Robert B. Settle and Linda L. Golden, "Attribution Theory and Advertiser Credibility," Journal of Marketing Research 11 (1974):181-185.

¹²⁷Howard and Hulbert, "Advertising and the Public Interest," p. 37.

¹²⁸Howard and Hulbert, Advertising and the Public Interest: Staff Report to the FTC, p. 83.

¹²⁹Howard Beals, Michael B. Mazis, Stephen C. Salop, and Richard Staelin, "Consumer Search and Public Policy," Journal of Consumer Research 8 (June 1981):11-22.

¹³⁰Jacob Jacoby, Donald E. Speller, Carol A. Kohn, "Brand Choice Behavior as a Function of Information Load," Journal of Marketing Research 11 (February 1974):63-69.

¹³¹Howard and Hulbert, Advertising and the Public Interest: Staff Report to the FTC, p. 85.

¹³²Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, pp. 210, 219.

¹³³Aaker and Bruzzone, "Causes of Irritation in Advertising," pp. 47-57.

¹³⁴Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, pp. 199-210.

¹³⁵Ibid., pp. 210-219.

¹³⁶Aaker and Bruzzone, "Viewer Perceptions of Prime-Time Television Advertising," pp. 15-23.

¹³⁷Aaker and Bruzzone, "Causes of Irritation in Advertising," p. 47.

¹³⁸Ibid., p. 48.

¹³⁹Ibid.

¹⁴⁰Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, p. 207

¹⁴¹Ibid., p. 220.

¹⁴²Ibid., p. 209.

¹⁴³Aaker and Norris, "Characteristics of TV Commercials Perceived as Informative," p. 63.

¹⁴⁴Brian Sternthal and C. Samuel Craig, "Humor in Advertising," Journal of Marketing 37 (October 1973):12-18.

¹⁴⁵Harold L. Ross, Jr., "How to Create Effective Humorous Commercials Yielding Above Average Brand Preference Changes," Marketing News, March 26, 1976, p. 4.

¹⁴⁶Julie Candler, "Music Takes a Front Seat in Auto Campaigns," Advertising Age, May 5, 1986, pp. 5, 32-33.

¹⁴⁷James J. Kellaris and Anthony D. Cox, "The Effects of Background Music in Advertising: A Reassessment," Journal of Consumer Research 16 (June 1989):113.

¹⁴⁸Assael, Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action, p. 537.

¹⁴⁹Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, p. 206.

¹⁵⁰Timothy C. Block, "Communicator-Recipient Similarity and Decision Change," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 1 (June 1965):650-654.

¹⁵¹Joel B. Cohen and Michael J. Houston, "Cognitive Consequence of Brand Loyalty," Journal of Marketing Research 9 (February 1972):97-99.

¹⁵²Tyzoon T. Tyebjee, "Refinement of the Involvement Concept: An Advertising Planning Point of View," in J. C. Maloney and B. Silverman, eds., Attitude Research Plays for High Stakes (Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1979), p. 106.

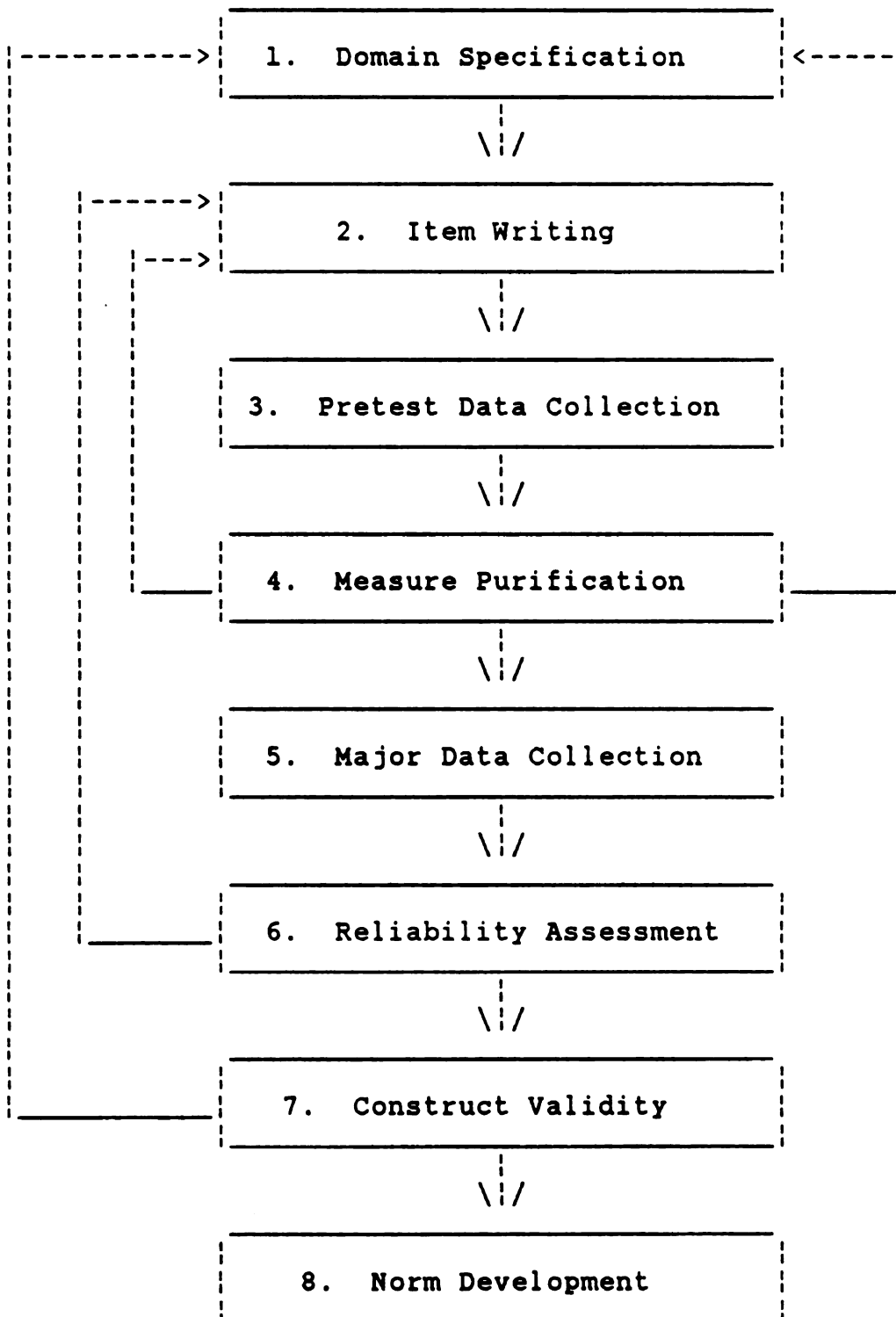
CHAPTER 3. METHOD

The overall approach employed for developing a measurement scale for advertising utility conforms to the procedure recommended by Churchill for developing better measures of marketing constructs.¹ This paradigm is drawn from literature on psychological testing pulling together the many definitions and measures of reliability and validity into an organizing framework for use by marketers. The procedure is only applicable to multi-item measures,² the measurement approach employed here for reasons to be discussed later. Churchill's procedure is presented in Figure 4 below.

The first step in the procedure is domain specification for the construct. This involves defining the construct of interest and delineating both the elements of which it is to be comprised and those to be excluded from the definition. Specifying the domain of a new construct is based on a search of the literature to review existing constructs and an explanation of the reasons behind the proposed new measure. This first step was detailed in Chapters 1 and 2 as a basis for proposing the advertising utility construct.

The second step is item writing to develop a sample of items that will permit the construct to be fully measured as specified. For each of the variables hypothesized to be

Figure 4
Suggested Procedure For Developing Better Measures



Adapted from Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr., "Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," Journal of Marketing Research (February 1979), p. 66.

included in the domain of the construct, items are written or derived from those previously written for related constructs. Once edited, the next step is pretest data collection in order to further refine the measure.

Measure purification is step four. This process involves determining which of the items written should be retained for further testing and which should be excluded from the measure. The assumption made to differentiate "good" from "bad" items is that good items belong to the domain of the construct as specified. There are various approaches to making such determinations. Those employed in this study will be discussed in Chapter 4. Once this stage is reached, it is possible to refine the measure as well as revise the original formulation of the construct if necessary. It should be stressed, however, that measures can always be improved. Purification does not represent a single effort but, rather, a process taking place over time as repeated applications of the scale permit testing and revision.

Additional testing requires major data collection at step five. Data on which to test the scale is collected this second time to control for errors caused by factors that may have been specific to the initial testing situation as well as the possibility that previous findings were due to chance. Then, reliability of the scale is assessed based on the new data collected. After completing steps one through six, the resulting measure should be internally

consistent. Internal consistency is a necessary, but insufficient condition for construct validity.³ Also necessary at this stage is to assess the explanatory power of the model and to determine the relative importance of the variables of which it is comprised. To assess construct validity at step seven requires two determinations: (1) the extent to which the measure correlates with other measures designed to measure the same thing and (2) whether the measure behaves as expected. Again there are various approaches to choose from here; those selected will be discussed in Chapter 4. The final step, norm development, is the process whereby respondent scores on the instrument are compared with one another in order to impute some meaning to each score.

These eight steps form the outline of the method used. The procedures employed, their descriptions, and reasons for selecting them are detailed in the following sections. The intended result of employing this procedure, as Churchill explains, is to "(develop) measures which have desirable reliability and validity properties."⁴

Item Writing

The first consideration in writing items to capture the domain of the construct is whether each item possesses "face validity," that is, on its face, does it appear to measure what it is intended to measure?⁵ This is variously

referred to as an "ad hoc"⁶ or "rational"⁷ approach to item construction. The majority of items to measure advertising utility were written using this approach since no similar scale had been created in the past. In several instances, items were used from previous research. Specifically, the four advertising-related items from the previously-discussed Darden et. al and Gaski and Etzel studies of consumer sentiment toward marketing⁸ and several from Bauer and Greyser's item list⁹ were adapted for use in the scale.

Multiple items were written for each of the ten variables in the measurement model ("timeliness," "intelligibility," "relevance," "truthfulness," "completeness," "proper segmentation," "annoyance," "offensiveness," "enjoyment," and "identification"). By using multiple items to measure each variable, three problems with single-item measures are minimized: (1) specificity--causing any single item to have a low correlation with the hypothesized variable due to the individual nature of that specific item; (2) single-item measures lead to less accurate distinctions between respondents; and (3) single-items have considerably more measurement error, making them less reliable.¹⁰ An average of just under seven items were initially written for each variable ranging from a minimum of four to a maximum of twelve, and resulting in a total of 70 items.

The methodological literature on conceptualization and measurement stresses that items written for each variable

should be "unidimensional," meaning they all should measure the same dimension¹¹ If this is not the case, items will tend to have a weak relationship with one another suggesting the variable be redefined and partitioned into separate scales.

There are numerous guidelines for effective item-writing and various authors have discussed criteria for writing attitude statements in scale construction.¹² These were used to guide item writing here with particular emphasis placed on ensuring that each item was concise and unambiguous. To further edit the initial item list, several faculty members in the Department of Advertising at Michigan State University reviewed items and supplied revisionary comments.

An important purpose of the advertising utility scale will be to permit comparative evaluations of advertising for different kinds of products. Items were initially written referring to advertising at a general level, however, since analysis of the measurement model would likely be confounded if restricted to advertising for a particular product category. While a scale developed to measure attitudes toward a particular kind of product advertising might be more reliable,¹³ it may not be valid for assessing advertising for other categories. In order to assess the utility of advertising across various product categories, a common set of evaluative criteria should be employed. For practical purposes, items were constructed so that transforming them for subsequent measurement of attitudes

toward product-specific advertising would be relatively simple.

To avoid agreement response tendencies from subjects, items were worded to achieve a balance between the number of positive and negative items in the scale.¹⁴ There were 35 positive and 35 negative items in the pretest scale (excluding those measuring exogenous variables). The order in which items appeared in the scale was determined by random selection.

In theory, subjects' summated responses to these 70 items, measuring both positive and negative attributes of advertising, should yield their estimates of advertising utility. The "summative model" of scaling attitudes, most generally useful in the scaling of psychological traits of people,¹⁵ was adopted by adding up responses in this manner.

Summative scales for measuring attitudes were selected for several reasons. The notion underlying advertising utility is that adding up the ways in which advertising is useful and subtracting from this those ways it is not useful will yield an estimate of its overall utility, as discussed in Chapter 2. This parallels what is described as the "appealing" nature of the model underlying Likert scaling of attitudes.¹⁶ Second, summative scales permit clear and reliable ranking of response categories, making it easy to judge the relative intensity of respondent attitudes. Third, such scales are easy to construct and score. Since response categories for all items are uniform, scoring

simply requires assigning numerical values to categories and then summing scores on all items to derive an overall score representing each respondent's attitude.¹⁷ Fourth, they permit a large number of items to be tested in the questionnaire which is important for refining a previously unscaled construct. Finally, they do not require undue effort on the part of subjects who grow quickly accustomed to responding to them.¹⁸ This last reason is especially important if the scale is to be the basis for regularly collecting consumer data for an index series.

An 11-interval scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" was selected to measure the response to each item. This was determined as the best compromise between reliability and practicality. Evidence indicates that scale reliability increases as the number of increments increases, however, after 11 there is little gain in reliability from increasing the number of increments.¹⁹ An odd number of steps was selected since consumers are thought to have truly "neutral" reactions to many items, though there is no definitive evidence that this approach is preferable to the other in all cases.²⁰

Pretest Data Collection

To continue development of the scale, two separate pretests were conducted. The first pretest on the preliminary scale was necessary to collect data to evaluate

the items written to measure each of the ten independent variables in the model. The second pretest served as a test of a scale created to measure the dependent variable, advertising utility.

The preliminary 70-item independent variable scale was prepared with instructions that respondents consider their opinions of "advertising in general" when answering each of the items. (See Appendix A for pretest independent variable scale.) The scale was administered to a sample of 153 students in the College of Communication Arts and Sciences at Michigan State University. Voluntary participants were drawn from courses in advertising, journalism and telecommunications. Though the item pool should usually be administered to the group with whom the final instrument will be used,²¹ and the advertising utility scale is intended for implementation among a variety of consumers, students represented a convenient group of consumers on whom such preliminary tests could be made. The lack of generalizability from selecting a student sample is considered less significant when the intent is not to describe population characteristics but to study theoretical relationships.²²

To develop a scale for the dependent measure, advertising utility, similar procedures as those employed for writing items for the independent variables were followed. A second pretest using a 12-item list was administered to a student sample of 58 persons again drawn

from the College of Communication Arts and Sciences at Michigan State University. (See Appendix B for pretest dependent variable scale.) Results of tests made on these two scales are discussed in the next chapter.

Major Data Collection: Survey

After pretest item analysis and purification of a measure, the reliability of the revised scale should be assessed using new data to control for transient external factors and the possibility that previous findings were due to chance.²³ Of equal, if not more, importance at this stage is testing whether the proposed measurement model based on the theory of advertising utility actually explains how consumers evaluate advertising. As Pedhazur explains:

Explanation is probably the ultimate goal of scientific inquiry, not only because it satisfies the need to understand phenomena, but also because it is the key for creating the requisite conditions for the achievement of specific objectives. Only by identifying the variables and understanding the processes by which they lead to ...(various social and economic phenomena)..., is there promise of creating the conditions most conducive to the eradication of social and individual ills and the achievement of goals deemed desirable and beneficial.²⁴

By explaining how consumers arrive at determinations of advertising utility, a framework will have been established for creating advertising that better suits their needs and the achievement of their individual goals, an aim which has been argued here to be both desirable and beneficial.

Design

Since the purpose of the research here was to investigate how consumers evaluate advertising, data collection among actual consumers was necessary. A mall-intercept survey was determined to be the most appropriate technique for obtaining a large number of completed questionnaires quickly and economically.²⁵ It was further assumed that individuals who are shopping in a mall setting might be somewhat more amenable to completing a survey on advertising and activated to consider their individual roles as consumers as they completed the instrument.

Survey research is probably best adapted to obtaining personal and social facts, beliefs, and attitudes²⁶ of interest in this study. The survey approach also made it feasible to interview a large number of consumers. Whenever several variables are to be analyzed simultaneously, it is essential to have a large number of cases.²⁷ With respect to the number of items on a scale, the number of subjects need be no more than 10 times the number of items.²⁸

Sample

A total of 477 questionnaires were completed for an acceptable subject-to-item ratio of 8.5. The principal concern with mall-intercept data is its lack of

generalizability since mall patrons may not be representative of their communities and interviewers do not randomly select participants.²⁹ An attempt was made to attain as great a diversity as possible in the age, income, and educational levels of respondents although no specific quotas in accordance with census data population characteristics were set in advance.³⁰ Two shopping malls were selected because of their differing clientele; one was located in East Lansing, Michigan, a small, primarily white-collar area with a large university, and the other was located in a larger primarily working-class neighborhood of Livonia, Michigan, a suburb of Detroit.

Potential biases due to the nonrandomness of the sample are acceptable at this stage of the research since it was more important to test a theory of how people evaluate advertising and to uncover any defects in the measurement instrument than it was to describe differences in how various subgroups within the population form such evaluations.³¹ Making definitive statements concerning how broader populations evaluate advertising would obviously be inappropriate given the nature of the sample.³²

Procedure

Participation in the study was voluntary. In accordance with Michigan State University use of human subjects policy, individuals completed a consent form in

advance of filling out the measurement instrument (see Appendix C). The measurement instrument contained instructions that participants respond to statements by considering their opinions about advertising in general, not a single advertisement or advertising for a particular product. The questionnaire contained 55 statements followed by several demographic, mass media usage, and media advertising attitude questions. The complete survey measurement instrument is included in Appendix D.

The author along with several trained interviewers identified themselves as being from Michigan State University and asked shoppers if they would complete the questionnaire. To bolster response rates, participants were given small gift items and balloons were available to occupy children while their parents completed questionnaires. All interviewers were trained in advance to respond to any questions raised by participants. Respondents averaged approximately 10 minutes each to complete the questionnaire.

Major Data Collection: Experiment

Executing the steps in Churchill's recommended procedure to this point may result in a scale that is internally consistent but not necessarily one with construct validity.³³ To the extent that the proposed model for advertising utility is shown to account for the data, it may still not be legitimate to conclude that "advertising

utility" is the proper name for that construct. To establish evidence of "construct validity," it is necessary to establish whether the construct "behaves as expected."³⁴ As Nunnally explains,

...the proof would come from determining the extent to which measures 'fit' in a lawful way into a network of relationships that would be expected on the basis of sensible theories. First would come the test of internal consistency of elements on the domain; then many correlational studies and many controlled experiments would need to be performed. To the extent...the measures met expectations in those regards, there would be proof of construct validity.³⁵

Before it is imbued with construct validity, a new measurement method must prove itself in many applications. To begin testing the construct validity of advertising utility, an experiment was conducted investigating two main issues: (1) does the advertising utility scale permit advertisements to be differentiated from one another in ways that would be deduced from theoretical expectations, or, does it behave as expected?; and (2) how does advertising utility relate to known constructs currently used to evaluate consumer response to advertising?

With respect to the first issue, the intended application for the advertising utility scale requires that it serve as a means of distinguishing advertisements from one another on the basis of their utility to consumers. Therefore, to evaluate scale performance and test construct validity, it was necessary to determine if the scale could

distinguish between "known groups"³⁶ of persons holding differing attitudes on advertising utility. This test of whether the scale behaves as expected involves three steps: (1) suggesting those factors that will account for differences in advertising utility ratings among various experimental groups; (2) deriving testable hypotheses from the theory; and (3) empirically testing these hypotheses.³⁷

To explore the second issue, the relationship between advertising utility and other known measures, it was necessary to collect data on related constructs. The investigation centers here on assessing the "convergent" and "discriminant" validity of the measure. For a measure to have convergent validity, it should correlate highly with other measures designed to measure the same broader construct. For a measure to have discriminant validity, it should demonstrate lower correlations with measures that are not supposed to measure the same broader construct.³⁸ By looking at the relationships between advertising utility and multiple measures in this way, stronger generalizations about advertising utility can be made over those that are possible when employing only one measure.³⁹ For example, a person's attitude toward an ad would be expected to be highly related to its utility. If this proves true, confidence in the validity of the utility measure is heightened. On the other hand, the correlation between utility and a person's intention to purchase would not be expected to be as high since many other factors influence

such intentions.

Design

A controlled laboratory experiment, utilizing a replicated two-by-two factorial model, was conducted to test whether consumers completing the advertising utility scale evaluated experimental advertisements as per theoretical expectations. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of eight treatment groups varied by the nature of the advertisement-stimulus.

To test if the scale could distinguish among "known groups" varying in their attitudes toward advertising utility, it was necessary to expose test subjects to preselected advertisements that fit into each of the categories of the advertising utility taxonomy presented in Chapter 2 as follows: "high informativeness-high entertainment," "low informativeness-high entertainment," "high informativeness-low entertainment," and "low informativeness-low entertainment."

A post-test-only experimental design was used to determine whether exposure to different advertisements would lead to significant differences in subject scores on the advertising utility scale. Random assignment was employed to achieve initial comparability of treatment groups.⁴⁰ Since random assignment does not guarantee that treatment groups are initially equivalent,⁴¹ the two-by-two factorial

design was replicated using two different sets of commercials to control for the chance that the pattern of scores was due to external factors. This also allowed the two-by-two taxonomy test to be replicated. Figure 5 presents a diagram of the experimental design.

Treatments

Selection of test advertisements involved two pretests. The first pretest contained a list of 41 product categories derived from those included in Simmons Market Research Bureau's Study of Media and Markets.⁴² Fifty-eight student respondents were asked to complete two 11-interval semantic differential scales referring to advertising for each product category: a "very informative-not informative at all" scale and a "very entertaining-not entertaining at all" scale. (See Appendix E for product category rating questionnaire.) Mean scores for each product category on "informativeness" and "entertainment value" were then used to rank order categories on the two major dimensions of the taxonomy. This allowed identification of several product categories whose advertising might be clearly described as falling into one of the four categories of the taxonomy. Findings from previous literature on consumer attitudes were consulted as well.⁴³ Pretest mean ratings for the informativeness and entertainment value of advertising for each product category are presented in Appendix F.

Figure 5
Experimental Design

R	X ₁	O ₁		R	X ₅	O ₅
R	X ₂	O ₂		R	X ₆	O ₆
R	X ₃	O ₃		R	X ₇	O ₇
R	X ₄	O ₄		R	X ₈	O ₈

Where:

R = Random Assignment

O_n = Post-test

Groups 1-4:

X₁ = High information-high entertainment advertisement

X₂ = Low information-high entertainment advertisement

X₃ = High information-low entertainment advertisement

X₄ = Low information-low entertainment advertisement

Groups 5-8:

X₅ = High information-high entertainment advertisement

X₆ = Low information-high entertainment advertisement

X₇ = High information-low entertainment advertisement

X₈ = Low information-low entertainment advertisement

Notation adapted from: Thomas D. Cook and Donald T. Campbell, Quasi-Experimentation: Design & Analysis Issues for Field Settings (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1979), p.95.

Approximately 400 television commercials were then video-recorded off-air from several selected categories. Commercials were collected from only one medium to control for consumer evaluations of advertisements confounded by media-type. Television advertising was selected as it is subjected to the majority of criticism for being uninformative and irritating and because it was thought consumers would likely have stronger opinions in regard to television advertising than advertising in other media. Two trained coders evaluated each commercial on the two major dimensions in the taxonomy. This initial screening permitted selection of 42 commercials for pretesting in order to eventually choose two commercials fitting each of the four categories in the taxonomy. These 42 were randomly divided between two videotapes, each with 21 commercials.

Forty-two students viewed each videotape ranking each commercial on the same two 11-interval semantic differential scales: "very informative-not informative at all," and "very entertaining-not entertaining at all" (see Appendix G). Mean scores for each commercial on each dimension were derived. Eight commercials for the experiment were finally selected, two for each category, based on how clearly they fit into the four categories of the taxonomy as defined. The four product categories selected were electronics, soft drinks, retail stores, and feminine hygiene.

Sample

A sample of 284 undergraduate students from various classes in the College of Communication Arts and Sciences at Michigan State University participated in the experiment. The number of subjects selected was based on the standard that there should be 20 to 50 subjects in each cell of the minor experimental breakdowns (see Figure 6).⁴⁴ A student sample was considered adequate since the construct validity test did not mandate generalizations be made to broader populations. Treatments were randomly assigned to groups to control for any systematic bias that might result.⁴⁵

Procedure

Participation in the experiment was voluntary; again in accordance with Michigan State University policy governing use of human subjects, subjects completed a consent form prior to treatment exposure (see Appendix H). Subjects were told they would view a single commercial which would be shown twice--not for the purpose of memorizing its content but simply to give them an opportunity to form stronger impressions before completing the measurement scale. Subjects were also instructed to consider only the advertisement they had seen when responding to the questionnaire. After exposure to the commercial, each treatment group completed the revised advertising utility

Figure 6
Experimental Cell Sizes

Groups 1-4:

		Informativeness	
		High	Low
Entertainment Value	High	Camera n = 37	Soft Drink n = 36
	Low	Department Store n = 33	Feminine Hygiene n = 38

Groups 5-8:

		Informativeness	
		High	Low
Entertainment Value	High	Computer n = 32	Soft Drink n = 33
	Low	Food Store n = 40	Feminine Hygiene n = 35

scale adapted for use in the experiment (see Appendix I).

To assess convergent and discriminant validity, measures of attitude and intention to purchase based on exposure to the ad were included in the questionnaire. To control for order effects potentially influencing responses, two versions of the questionnaire were administered within each treatment group with these additional items placed at the beginning in one version and at the end in the other.⁴⁶ Each treatment session was run in similar classroom settings, using consistent moderator instructions and timing of the post-test scale to lessen discrepancies due to factors other than the commercial stimuli under investigation.⁴⁷

Experimental Hypotheses

To test construct validity of the advertising utility scale requires determining what factors account for test subjects' scores.⁴⁸ The following testable hypotheses were proposed:

- H₁: Advertising utility of ads that are both informative and entertaining will be significantly higher than utility of all other ads.
- H₂: Advertising utility of ads that are neither informative nor entertaining will be significantly lower than utility of all other ads.

H₃: Advertisements that are informative but not entertaining will have significantly less utility than those that are both informative and entertaining and significantly more utility than those that are neither informative nor entertaining.

H₄: Advertisements that are entertaining but uninformative will have significantly less utility than those that are both informative and entertaining and significantly more utility than those that are neither informative nor entertaining.

To test the individual effects of the major breakdowns in the taxonomy, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H₅: The informativeness of an advertisement will have a statistically significant impact on its utility.

H₆: The entertainment value of an advertisement will have a statistically significant impact on its utility.

H₇: Informativeness and entertainment value will have independent influences on utility.

To test the relationship of advertising utility with other measures, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H₈: Advertising utility will be positively related to attitude toward the stimulus advertisement.

H₉: Advertising utility will be positively related to intention to purchase on the basis of the stimulus advertisement though not as highly related as it will be with attitude toward the advertisement.

Developing Norms

The final step in Churchill's paradigm for developing measures involves setting norms based on the collected data. The increments employed in the utility scale permit summated scores which in themselves are not particularly informative because the units in which the scale is expressed are unfamiliar.⁴⁹ To imbue scores with meaning requires that they be individually compared with the total distribution of scores on the basis of their standard deviations from the mean or other statistics.⁵⁰

The stability of norms, and hence their quality, depends on the number of cases on which they are based and the representativeness of the sample.⁵¹ Developing norms will be very important for an index series to ensure they aid consumers in comparatively evaluating different kinds of advertising and for practitioners to comparatively evaluate the utility of alternative advertisements. Since the sample in this study should not be considered representative, norm development was considered imprudent.

ENDNOTES FOR CHAPTER 3

¹Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr., "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs, Journal of Marketing Research XVI (February 1979):64-73.

²Ibid., p. 66.

³Jum C. Nunnally, Psychometric Theory, 2nd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1978), p. 92.

⁴Churchill, "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," p. 65.

⁵Earl Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, 3rd ed. (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1983), p. 369.

⁶John F. Gaski and Michael J. Etzel, "The Index of Consumer Sentiment Toward Marketing," Journal of Marketing 50 (July 1986):72.

⁷J.P. Guilford, Psychometric Methods (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., 1954), p. 415.

⁸See Gaski and Etzel, "The Index of Consumer Sentiment Toward Marketing."

⁹See Raymond A. Bauer and Stephen A. Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View (Boston: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1968), p. 439.

¹⁰Nunnally, Psychometric Theory, pp. 66-67.

¹¹Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, p. 369.

¹²Allen C. Edwards, Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957), p. 13.

¹³Interview with Philip Converse, Director of the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 27 June 1988. Converse explained that when people are asked to respond to an attitude object, the more narrowly defined the object, the greater will be their likelihood to respond similarly on repeated occasions,

thereby enhancing the reliability of the measure. On a broader issue, a person is more likely to respond differently on successive occasions as he or she considers different dimensions of the general issue.

¹⁴Arthur Couch and Kenneth Kenniston, "Yeasayers and Naysayers: Agreeing Response Set as a Personality Variable," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 24 (August 1960):349-354.

¹⁵Nunnally, Psychometric Theory, p. 604.

¹⁶Ibid.

¹⁷Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, p. 380.

¹⁸William J. Lundstrom and Lawrence M. Lamont, "The Development of a Scale to Measure Consumer Discontent," Journal of Marketing Research XXII (November 1976):375.

¹⁹Nunnally, Psychometric Theory, p. 595.

²⁰Ibid., p. 596.

²¹Ibid., p. 605.

²²Earl R. Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, 2nd ed. (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1979), p. 272.

²³Churchill, "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," pp. 69-70.

²⁴Elazar J. Pedazur, Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research: Explanation and Prediction, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1986), p. 174.

²⁵William G. Zikmund, Exploring Marketing Research, 2nd ed. (Chicago: The Dryden Press, 1985), p. 424.

²⁶Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, 3rd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1986), p. 386.

²⁷Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, 3rd ed., p. 237.

²⁸Nunnally, Psychometric Theory, p. 605.

²⁹John P. Murray, Jr., John L. Lastovicka and Gaurav Bhalla, "Demographic and Lifestyle Selection Error in Mail Intercept Data," Journal of Advertising Research (February-March 1989):46.

- ³⁰Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, p. 111.
- ³¹Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, 3rd ed., p. 178.
- ³²Thomas C. Kinnear and James R. Taylor, Marketing Research, 3rd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1987), p. 205.
- ³³Churchill, "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," p. 70.
- ³⁴Nunnally, Psychometric Theory, p. 103.
- ³⁵Ibid.
- ³⁶Lee J. Cronbach and Paul E. Meehl, "Construct Validity in Psychological Tests," Psychological Bulletin 52 (May 1955):281-302.
- ³⁷Lee J. Cronbach, Essentials of Psychological Testing, 2nd ed. (New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1960), p. 121.
- ³⁸Donald R. Campbell and Donald W. Fiske, "Convergent and Discriminant Validation by the Multitrait-Multimethod Matrix," Psychological Bulletin 56 (1959):81-105.
- ³⁹Nunnally, Psychometric Theory, p. 98.
- ⁴⁰Thomas D. Cook and Donald T. Campbell, Quasi-Experimentation: Design and Analysis Issues for Field Settings (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1979), p. 341.
- ⁴¹Ibid.
- ⁴²Simmons Study of Media and Markets (New York: Simmons Market Research Bureau, Inc., 1987).
- ⁴³See: Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, pp. 292-294; Alan Resnik and Bruce L. Stern, "An Analysis of the Information Content of Television Advertising," Journal of Marketing 41 (1977):53.
- ⁴⁴Seymour Sudman, Applied Sampling (New York: Academic Press, 1976), p. 30.
- ⁴⁵Geoffrey Keppel, Design and Analysis: A Researcher's Handbook, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1982), p. 18.
- ⁴⁶Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, 3rd ed., p. 214.

⁴⁷Keppel, Design and Analysis: A Researcher's Handbook, p. 68.

⁴⁸Cronbach, Essentials of Psychological Testing, p. 120.

⁴⁹Churchill, "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," p. 72.

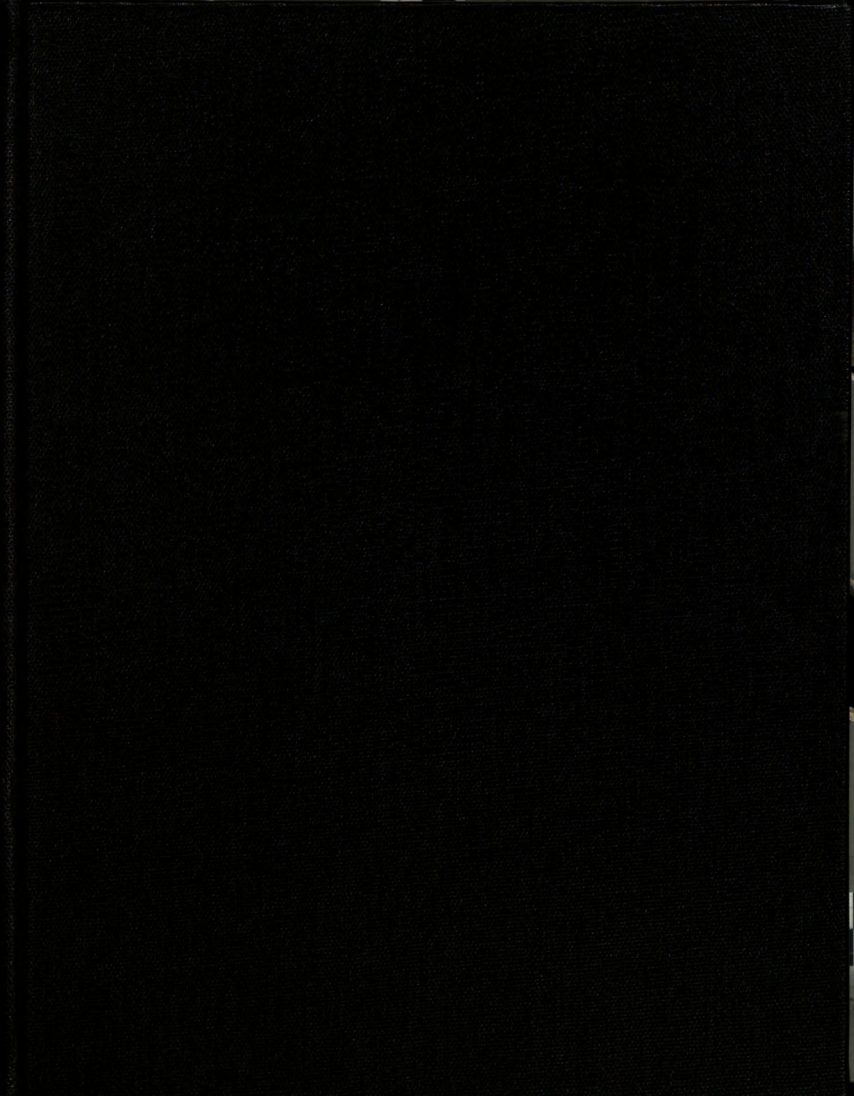
⁵⁰See Edwin E. Ghiselli, Theory of Psychological Measurement (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), pp. 37-102.

⁵¹Churchill, "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," p. 72.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIV. LIBRARIES



31293006901288



26017148



pt. 2



**PLACE IN RETURN BOX to remove this checkout from your record.
TO AVOID FINES return on or before date due.**

DATE DUE	DATE DUE	DATE DUE
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

MSU Is An Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Institution

c:\circ\dtduea.pm3-p.1

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

This chapter presents results on three major design issues bearing on the theory of advertising utility and on the scale developed to assess it. First, the quality of each of the pretest and then the revised variable scales is assessed via coefficient alpha and three tests of unidimensionality. Second, the proposed theoretical model is evaluated in terms of its predictive power and the relative contributions its component variables make toward explaining advertising utility, based on analysis of the mall-intercept data. Third, tests of the construct validity of advertising utility are reported using data collected in the experimental portion of the study.

Measure Purification: Pretests

Purifying a measure involves selecting the best possible sample of items from all those that could be used to measure a construct of interest. For the items measuring each construct to be meaningful, they should constitute alternate measures of the same underlying trait. If this is the case, the cluster or scale for each variable is said to be "unidimensional."¹ Four separate tests were made on the cluster of items written for each variable in the

measurement model: (1) homogeneity of item content; (2) coefficient alpha; (3) internal consistency; and (4) parallelism.²

Homogeneity of Item Content

The first and most important test of unidimensionality is whether the items for each cluster measure the same thing from a substantive point of view. The "content" of an item is the key to determining whether it should be thrown out or retained as part of a cluster. Also referred to as "face" or "logical" validity, this determination is based on review of existing theory and rational judgment.³ The items included in the preliminary scale for each variable were based on consideration of both of these.

Coefficient Alpha

The major source of error in any scale is due to the sampling of items.⁴ Reliability increases as both the number of items and their average correlation increases.⁵ Coefficient alpha is the accepted statistic for estimating reliability representing the expected correlation of one test with an alternative form containing the same number of items.⁶ A low coefficient alpha indicates the sample of items performs poorly in capturing a given construct.⁷ Standards for what is "low" vary depending on the purpose of

the research. Nunnally suggests reliabilities of .70 or higher are adequate for early stages of basic research though for applied research on which important decisions are made .95 is a desirable standard.⁸

Coefficient alpha was calculated for each of the eleven clusters in the pretest. Items with low item-to-total correlations for each cluster suggested they did not measure the same underlying trait and were deleted. Coefficient alpha results for the scales in the preliminary item series are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2
Pretest Coefficient Alpha Results

Variable Scale	Coefficient Alpha
Timeliness	.74
Intelligibility	.64
Relevance	.84
Truthfulness	.79
Completeness	.80
Proper Segmentation	.45
Annoyance	.81
Offensiveness	.77
Enjoyment	.83
Identification	.84
Advertising Utility	.89

The preliminary item analysis of the ten independent and the dependent variable scales using coefficient alpha led to the elimination of several weaker items. Results indicated that nine of the eleven variables were scaled with sufficient reliability to permit further testing. Six

scales had standardized alpha scores at or above .80, and three were between .74 and .79. In the case of "proper segmentation," a low alpha of .45 was interpreted as a definitional problem in the variable. As discussed in Chapter 2, proper segmentation likely represents a variable assessing media efficiency rather than a criterion consumers would naturally employ to evaluate advertising. From a consumer perspective, this variable likely measures the extent to which consumers receive information targeted toward them or, in other words, information they will find "relevant." Since relevance was already adequately scaled, the decision was made at this point to drop proper segmentation from the model. In the case of "intelligibility," a somewhat low alpha of .64 suggested further attempts at improving the scale might yield promising results, so it was retained for further analysis.

Internal Consistency

Hunter recommends two additional tests of cluster unidimensionality--internal consistency and parallelism--based on the argument that the unidimensionality of a scale and its reliability are independent concepts.⁹ Coefficient alpha provides an unbiased estimate of scale reliability only if the scale is unidimensional.¹⁰

If all items written for a scale are internally consistent, they satisfy three assumptions. First, they

measure the same underlying trait. Second, the relationship between each item and the underlying trait is linear. Third, the underlying trait is the only significant causal factor determining item response. If these assumptions are met, the correlations of the items within a scale will satisfy a product rule first stated by Spearman where the correlation between any two items should be equal (within sampling error) to the product of their correlations with the underlying trait (their respective factor loadings). To test for this, the observed correlation matrix for the items within a scale is compared to the matrix generated by the products of their factor loadings. If the deviations between these two matrices are less than what would be expected from sampling error, the scale can be interpreted as internally consistent.¹¹

Internal consistency analysis was performed using the confirmatory factor analysis sub-routine of LIMSTAT,¹² a down-sized version of the PACKAGE computer program of Hunter, Cohen, and Nicol.¹³ This computer program permits specification of an a priori factor structure and provides a matrix of correlations among cluster items, correlations between factors, and factor loadings using communalities in the matrix diagonal.¹⁴

Confirmatory factor analysis provides specific tests the data must meet before the measurement model can be regarded as valid. Since evaluation of the advertising utility scale is theory-driven, exploratory factor analysis,

which relies on a computational algorithm to uncover a structure purely on the basis of correlations amongst items,¹⁵ is not an appropriate statistical test of the model. Exploratory factor analysis typically "underfactors" tending to throw all highly correlated items into the same factor which later must then be subclustered.¹⁶

Results for the nine remaining independent variable scales as well as the dependent variable scale were positive. All ten deviation matrices showed no deviations greater than what would be expected from sampling error, indicating internally consistent scales had been created for the variables remaining in the measurement model.

As subsequent testing of the instrument employed revised scales, it was necessary to resubmit each variable scale to internal consistency analysis. Results of these tests are quite detailed so they are only presented for the final version of each scale later in the chapter.

Parallelism

Parallelism can also be referred to as "external consistency." Whereas internal consistency concerns how items within a cluster correlate, external consistency concerns how items within a cluster correlate with external items or clusters. If items within a cluster are unidimensional, they should all correlate equally (within sampling error) with items from other clusters and other

clusters themselves, hence the term "parallel."

The approach recommended by Hunter for testing parallelism is based on the assumption that parallel items in a given cluster will all have equal item-total correlations with outside clusters within sampling error; that is, they all relate to outside clusters in the same way. The test of parallelism is computed via two steps. First, the correlations between each of the items within a cluster and an outside cluster are averaged. Then, the individual correlations for each item in the cluster with the outside cluster are compared to this average. If deviations are less than what would be expected from sampling error, items are correlated with the outside cluster in a parallel fashion.¹⁷

Parallelism analyses of all internally consistent variable scales were performed using the LIMSTAT program. Parallelism results were generally positive. In four clusters, it was decided that omitting an additional item would significantly improve parallelism for that particular cluster. Once these items were removed, coefficient alpha and internal consistency were rechecked for each variable scale to ensure they remained acceptable. Parallelism results are again quite detailed, thus, they are presented later only on the revised version of each scale.

Purification of the Pretest Measure: Summary

With each of the variable scales submitted to the four tests described in this section, significant refinements were made to the preliminary measurement instrument. For ten of the eleven variable scales, generally positive responses could be given to questions concerning whether the items for each scale were homogeneous in content, whether they measured the same underlying trait, and whether they related equally with other scales. Initial purification of the measure therefore yielded unidimensional scales. In terms of measurement error, coefficient alphas were generally acceptable though it was expected that further improvements could be made through re-editing several items and adding items to some variable scales before advancing to the major data collection phases of the research. The resulting item list employed in the survey and experimental stages of the study, consisting of 55 items, is presented in Table 3.

Survey Sample

The characteristics of the sample obtained from the mall-intercept survey are reported in Table 4. As noted previously, the convenience sampling employed in this study does not permit generalizations to particular populations. However, the diversity in the sample, though not

Table 3
Revised Item Series

Variable	Items
TIMELINESS	Advertisements provide people with product information before they make purchases. Advertising is a convenient source of information on products. Advertising provides timely information on products. Advertising permits purchases to be planned ahead of time. Advertisements remind people about products they need. Advertisements tell people about products when they need the information. People look for advertisements before they go shopping.
INTELLIGIBIL	Advertisements are difficult to understand. Advertisements are straightforward. The meaning of advertisements is not clear. Advertisements are complicated. Advertisements are easy to understand. Advertisements are vague. Advertisements are confusing.
RELEVANCE	Advertisements help people make wise purchase decisions. Advertisements supply important information about products. Advertising is a good source of information on products. Advertising provides information people want to know about products. Advertisements supply relevant information on products.
TRUTHFULNESS	Advertisements are deceptive. Advertising deceives consumers. Advertising tells the truth. Advertising is misleading. Advertisements lie.
COMPLETENESS	Advertising does not supply complete information on products. Advertisements contain adequate information. Important facts about products are left out of advertisements. Advertisements do not supply enough information about products.
ANNOYANCE	There is too much advertising. Advertisements are unwanted interruptions. The same advertisements are shown too often. Advertisements are so unreal they are silly. Advertising is annoying. Advertising is irritating.

Table 3 (cont'd)

OFFENSIVENESS	Advertising is distasteful. Advertising manipulates people. Advertisements insult people's intelligence. Advertisements are offensive. Advertising persuades people to buy products they do not want. Advertising is indecent.
ENJOYMENT	Advertisements are boring. Advertising is enjoyable. Advertisements are entertaining. Advertisements are pleasing.
IDENTIFICAT	People identify with advertisements. People see themselves as similar to persons in advertisements. People relate to the characters in advertisements. People see themselves in advertisements.
UTILITY (dependent measure)	Advertising is useful. Advertising is worthless. Advertising is valuable. Advertising is important. Advertising is useless. Advertising is beneficial. Advertising is essential.

Table 4
Survey Sample Characteristics

	Number	Percentage*
AGE		
15-24	190	40%
25-34	104	22
35-44	79	17
45-54	34	7
55-64	22	5
65 or above	29	6
SEX		
Male	197	41
Female	277	58
MARITAL STATUS		
Single	238	50
Married	200	42
Divorced	22	5
Widowed	7	2
EDUCATION		
Less than High School	15	3
High School Graduate	79	17
Some College	207	43
College Graduate	105	22
Graduate Degree	61	13
OCCUPATION		
Professional/Managerial	109	23
Clerical/Sales	64	13
Skilled-Unskilled Labor	48	10
Government	11	2
Student	126	26
Homemaker	42	9
Retired	34	7
Self-employed	11	2
Unemployed	8	2
Other	10	2
HOUSEHOLD INCOME		
Less than \$15,000	111	23
Between \$15,000 and \$25,000	65	14
Between \$25,001 and \$35,000	72	15
Between \$35,001 and \$45,000	47	10
Between \$45,001 and \$55,000	50	11
More than \$55,000	93	20
CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLD		
One	69	15
Two	75	16
Three	28	6
Four or more	17	4
None	270	57

* Percentages do not add up to 100 due to non-response on some items.

representative of any specific population, permits interpretations relevant to many.

Measure Purification: Survey

The unidimensionality of the revised variable scales was again assessed using Hunter's three criteria for unidimensionality--item content, internal consistency, and parallelism--and scale reliability was reassessed using coefficient alpha. Items found not to be homogeneous in content, internally consistent, or parallel for any given scale were eliminated. Each scale was then reassessed using the same three criteria as well as coefficient alpha.

Internal Consistency of Revised Scales

Internal consistency tests for each of the ten revised variable scales in the measurement model are presented in this section. The first table for each scale presents the items and their factor loadings (Tables 5A-14A). These permit an initial inspection of the equivalence of individual items within scales. The second table for each scale presents the deviation matrix--the differences between the observed inter-item correlations and the expected correlations (Tables 5B-14B). Deviations larger than sampling error ($p > .05$) are indicated by asterisks. Significant deviations violate assumptions of internal

consistency. Inconsistent items were deleted where necessary to revise certain scales. The deviation matrices for these revised scales are presented in Tables 15-19.

It was necessary to eliminate a total of eight items to arrive at internally consistent factor structures for all ten variable scales. One item was eliminated from "timeliness," two from "intelligibility," one from "relevance," two from "offensiveness," and two from "advertising utility." With the exception of the items eliminated from the utility scale, those eliminated from the other scales also possessed the lowest factor loadings, i.e., they were more weakly related to their respective factors. In the case of the utility factor, the two deleted items: "Advertising is essential;" and "Advertising is worthless;" had rather high factor loadings (.69 and .70 respectively), but they caused internal consistency deviations implying they do not measure the same underlying construct as the other items. Although no alternative explanation for this was apparent, it was decided nevertheless to eliminate these two items on practical grounds to simplify subsequent analyses.

Reliability scores for all ten scales using standard score coefficient alpha were .72 or greater suggesting all scales were acceptable for subsequent analysis. The "intelligibility" scale, with a coefficient alpha of .64 in the pretest analysis discussed earlier was modestly improved to .72. Reliability improved for four of the variable

Table 5A
Items and Factor Loadings for Timeliness Scale

Item	Content	Loading
Q3	Advertising permits purchases to be planned ahead of time.	.54
Q9	Advertising is a convenient source of information on products.	.56
Q20	Advertising provides timely information on products.	.56
Q27	Advertisements provide people with product information before they make purchases.	.66
Q36	Advertisements remind people about products they need.	.51
Q39	Advertisements tell people about products when they need the information.	.56
Q51	People look for advertisements before they go shopping.	.41
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .81		

Table 5B
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Timeliness Scale

Items	3	9	20	27	36	39	51
3	---						
9	.05	---					
20	-.06	.03	---				
27	-.04	.01	.08*	---			
36	.02	.00	-.06	-.04	---		
39	.04	-.06	.04	.02	.05	---	
51	.08*	-.03	-.04	-.03	.02	-.01	---

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 6A
Items and Factor Loadings for Intelligibility Scale

Item	Content	Loading
Q12	Advertisements are vague. (Reverse Coding)	.26
Q19	Advertisements are easy to understand.	.40
Q21	Advertisements are straightforward.	.31
Q28	The meaning of advertisements is not clear. (Reverse Coding)	.40
Q30	Advertisements are difficult to understand. (Reverse Coding)	.54
Q48	Advertisements are confusing. (Reverse Coding)	.51
Q54	Advertisements are complicated. (Reverse Coding)	.49
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .70		

Table 6B
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Intelligibility Scale

Items	12	19	21	28	30	48	54
12	---						
19	-.10*	---					
21	.14*	.14*	---				
28	.03	-.05	-.02	---			
30	-.03	.00	-.14*	.04	---		
48	-.02	-.01	-.02	-.01	.06	---	
54	-.02	.01	-.09*	.01	.07	.01	---

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 7A
Items and Factor Loadings for Relevance Scale

Item	Content	Loading
Q7	Advertisements help people make wise purchase decisions.	.52
Q11	Advertisements supply important information about products.	.59
Q35	Advertising is a good source of information on products.	.70
Q49	Advertisements provide information people want to know about products.	.66
Q55	Advertisements supply relevant information on products.	.65
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .83		

Table 7B
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Relevance Scale

Items	7	11	35	49	55
7	---				
11	.02	---			
35	.05	-.01	---		
49	-.05	-.01	.00	---	
55	-.03	.00	-.04	.07*	---

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 8A
Items and Factor Loadings for Truthfulness Scale

Item	Content	Loading
Q1	Advertisements are deceptive. (Reverse Coding)	.50
Q16	Advertisements lie. (Reverse Coding)	.52
Q38	Advertising is misleading. (Reverse Coding)	.64
Q47	Advertising tells the truth.	.53
Q53	Advertising deceives consumers. (Reverse Coding)	.62

Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .79

Table 8B
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Truthfulness Scale

Items	1	16	38	47	53
1	---				
16	.04	---			
38	.01	-.04	---		
47	-.02	-.01	.02	---	
53	-.03	.01	.02	.01	---

All deviations less than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 9A
Items and Factor Loadings for Completeness Scale

Item	Content	Loading
Q10	Advertising does not supply complete information on products. (Reverse Coding)	.52
Q24	Advertisements contain adequate information.	.49
Q34	Important facts about products are left out of advertisements. (Reverse Coding)	.57
Q46	Advertisements do not supply enough information about products. (Reverse Coding)	.64
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .76		

Table 9B
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Completeness Scale

Items	10	24	34	46
10	---			
24	.02	---		
34	-.03	.00	---	
46	.00	-.02	.03	---

All deviations less than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 10A
Items and Factor Loadings for Annoyance Scale

Item	Content	Loading
Q4	Advertising is irritating.	.69
Q6	There is too much advertising.	.59
Q14	Advertisements are unwanted interruptions.	.59
Q18	The same advertisements are shown too often.	.44
Q29	Advertising is annoying.	.72
Q43	Advertisements are so unreal they are silly.	.57
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .83		

Table 10B
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Annoyance Scale

Items	4	6	14	18	29	43
4	---					
6	.05	---				
14	.01	-.03	---			
18	-.03	.03	.00	---		
29	.00	-.03	.02	-.02	---	
43	-.03	-.02	.00	.02	.03	---

All deviations less than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 11A
Items and Factor Loadings for Offensiveness Scale

Item	Content	Loading
Q5	Advertising is distasteful.	.54
Q13	Advertising manipulates people.	.48
Q25	Advertisements insult people's intelligence.	.51
Q32	Advertisements are offensive.	.64
Q40	Advertising is indecent.	.44
Q42	Advertising persuades people to buy products they do not want.	.39
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .76		

Table 11B
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Offensiveness Scale

Items	5	13	25	32	40	42
5	---					
13	-.01	---				
25	-.02	.04	---			
32	.01	-.08*	.01	---		
40	.06	-.09*	-.03	.11*	---	
42	-.04	.13*	.00	-.04	-.05	---

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 12A
Items and Factor Loadings for Enjoyment Scale

Item	Content	Loading
Q26	Advertisements are boring. (Reverse Coding)	.46
Q45	Advertising is enjoyable.	.67
Q50	Advertisements are entertaining.	.65
Q52	Advertisements are pleasing.	.70
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .80		

Table 12B
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Enjoyment Scale

Items	26	45	50	52
26	---			
45	-.02	---		
50	.02	.00	---	
52	.00	.02	-.02	---

All deviations less than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 13A
Items and Factor Loadings for Identification Scale

Item	Content	Loading
Q17	People see themselves as similar to persons in advertisements.	.74
Q22	People relate to the characters in advertisements.	.76
Q33	People see themselves in advertisements.	.81
Q41	People identify with advertisements.	.75
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .89		

Table 13B
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Identification Scale

Items	17	22	33	41
17	---			
22	.02	---		
33	.00	-.02	---	
41	-.02	.00	.02	---

All deviations less than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 14A
Items and Factor Loadings for Utility Scale

Item	Content	Loading
Q2	Advertising is important.	.66
Q8	Advertising is essential.	.69
Q15	Advertising is valuable.	.73
Q23	Advertising is useful.	.79
Q31	Advertising is useless. (Reverse Coding)	.66
Q37	Advertising is worthless. (Reverse Coding)	.70
Q44	Advertising is beneficial.	.69
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .90		

Table 14B
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Utility Scale

Items	2	8	15	23	31	37	44
2	---						
8	.07*	---					
15	.03	.08*	---				
23	.01	-.01	.00	---			
31	-.05	-.09*	-.06	.01	---		
37	-.05	-.08*	-.06*	-.02	.22*	---	
44	.00	.03	.00	.01	-.03	.00	---

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error (p=.05).

Table 15
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Revised Version
of Timeliness Scale

Items	3	9	20	27	36	39
3	---					
9	.06	---				
20	-.05	.01	---			
27	-.03	-.01	.07	---		
36	.04	.00	-.06	-.04	---	
39	-.03	-.07	.03	.01	.05	---
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .81						
All deviations less than expected from sampling error (p=.05).						

Table 16
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Revised Version
of Intelligibility Scale

Items	19	28	30	48	54
19	---				
28	-.02	---			
30	-.01	.02	---		
48	.01	.00	.00	---	
54	.02	.00	.00	-.01	---
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .72					
All deviations less than expected from sampling error (p=.05).					

Table 17
 Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
 (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version
 of Relevance Scale

Items	11	35	49	55
11	---			
35	.03	---		
49	-.02	.00	---	
55	.00	-.02	.03	---

Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .83

All deviations less than expected
 from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 18
 Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
 (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version
 of Offensiveness Scale

Items	5	25	32	40
5	---			
25	.01	---		
32	-.03	.02	---	
40	.01	-.04	.02	---

Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .74

All deviations less than expected
 from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 19
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Revised Version
of Utility Scale

Items	2	15	23	31	44
2	---				
15	.03	---			
23	-.01	-.02	---		
31	-.02	-.02	.04	---	
44	.00	.01	-.01	.00	---
Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .86					

All deviations less than expected
from sampling error ($p=.05$).

scales, stayed the same for one, and slightly decreased for five. This is mostly attributable to the the number of items written for each scale which was kept as low as possible to prevent the survey instrument from becoming unduly long for consumer respondents.

Once the variable scales were refined and the "fit" of the measurement model established, the correlation matrix among the factors was examined. Relations among the factors are henceforth critical since factor correlations are the data for subsequent causal analyses.¹⁸ Inspection of the matrix of zero-order correlations between the ten internally consistent factors yielded three cases of high correlations among variable scales. The correlation between the "relevance" and "timeliness" scales was .93, the correlation between the "truthfulness" and "completeness" scales was

.82, and the correlation between the "annoyance" and "offensiveness" scales was .87. Confirmatory factor analyses were performed to determine if there was evidence to support combining these three pairs of variable scales into three general scales.

The resulting deviation matrix for the combined "timeliness-relevance" scale is presented in Table 20 and includes several significant internal consistency deviations. To arrive at an internally consistent factor structure, three items were deleted. The resulting scale retained seven items and an increased coefficient alpha of .87.

The data imply that when consumers evaluate the adequacy of advertising information they consider both its timeliness and its relevance to be almost the same thing. Although Howard and Hulbert posited these two criteria as independent, a likely explanation for the present finding is that timely information is a subset of information that is relevant. For information to be relevant, it must be available to consumers at or around the time they are in the process of formulating purchase decisions. On the other hand, information which is timely may not always be relevant. The proper interpretation should, therefore, be understood as "timeliness is a necessary but insufficient condition for relevance." The new combined scale is therefore labelled "relevance (II)" to denote its revised composition for the remaining analyses. The deviation

matrix for the revised version is presented in Table 21.

The deviation matrix for the combined version of the "truthfulness-completeness" scale is presented in Table 22 and also includes several significant internal consistency deviations. The elimination of three items resulted in an internally consistent factor structure comprising six items and a coefficient alpha of .81. The high correlation between evaluations of truthfulness and completeness imply that consumers do not distinguish between these criteria when they evaluate advertising, bringing into question Howard and Hulbert's specification of these two variables as mutually exclusive. The data indicate, rather, that when consumers evaluate advertising they not only look for the truth but the "whole truth"; in other words, they regard truthfulness and completeness as part of the same variable which is henceforth labelled "believability." The deviation matrix for the revised version of the "believability" scale is presented in Table 23.

The deviation matrix for the combined version of the "annoyance-offensiveness" scale is presented in Table 24 and includes several significant internal consistency deviations as well. To arrive at an internally consistent factor structure in this case, it was necessary to eliminate four items. The resulting scale retained six items and a coefficient alpha of .84. The high correlation between consumer evaluations of annoyance and offensiveness provides evidence that consumers do not draw a clear distinction

Table 20
 Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
 (Internal Consistency) for Timeliness-Relevance Scale

Items	3	9	11	20	27	35	36	39	49	55
3	---									
9	.10*	---								
11	-.04	.01	---							
20	-.03	.02	.04	---						
27	.00	.01	.03	.04	---					
35	-.01	.01	.03	.01	-.01	---				
36	.08*	.03	-.11*	-.06	-.03	.02	---			
39	.00	-.05	-.04	.01	.00	-.03	.06	---		
49	-.04	-.05	.02	-.02	-.03	-.02	.00	.05	---	
55	-.07	-.08*	.06	-.01	-.02	.00	.02	.00	.09	---

Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .89

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 21
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Relevance (II) Scale

Items	9	11	20	27	35	39	55
9	---						
11	.00	---					
20	.02	.00	---				
27	.02	.00	.01	---			
35	.03	.00	-.01	-.02	---		
39	-.02	-.04	.01	.02	-.01	---	
55	-.05	.05	-.02	-.02	.01	.03	---

Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .87

All deviations less than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 22
Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
(Internal Consistency) for Truthfulness-Completeness Scale

Items	1	10	16	24	34	38	46	47	53
1	---								
10	.02	---							
16	.11*	-.06	---						
24	-.06	.07	-.07	---					
34	-.06	.03	.02	.00	---				
38	.05	-.02	.01	.01	-.04	---			
46	-.08*	.12*	-.08*	.03	.10*	-.05	---		
47	.00	-.07	.01	.10*	-.05	.00	-.01	---	
53	.03	-.08*	.07	-.07	.00	.05	-.03	.02	---

Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .85

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 23
 Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
 (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Believability Scale

Items	1	16	34	38	47	53
1	---					
16	.05	---				
34	-.05	.02	---			
38	.02	-.05	.00	---		
47	-.01	-.02	.01	.02	---	
53	-.02	.00	.01	.01	.00	---

Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .81

All deviations less than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 24
 Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
 (Internal Consistency) for Annoyance-Offensiveness Scale

Items	4	5	6	14	18	25	29	32	40	43
4	---									
5	.10*	---								
6	.07	.06	---							
14	.04	-.04	.00	---						
18	.01	-.08*	.06	.04	---					
25	-.05	-.04	-.02	-.01	.09*	---				
29	.04	-.06	-.01	.07	.03	.00	---			
32	-.09*	.02	-.05	-.04	-.08*	.04	-.01	---		
40	-.06	.08*	-.06	-.05	-.08*	.00	-.07	.17*	---	
43	-.06	-.05	-.04	-.01	.02	.00	.01	.04	.08	---

Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .87

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error (p=.05).

Table 25
 Deviations of Observed from Expected Correlations
 (Internal Consistency) for Revised Version of Annoyance (II) Scale

Items	4	5	6	14	25	29
4	---					
5	.06	---				
6	.01	.05	---			
14	-.01	-.04	-.03	---		
25	-.05	-.01	.00	.02	---	
29	-.01	-.06	-.03	.06	.04	---

Standard Score Alpha for Scale = .83

All deviations less than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

between advertising that merely irritates and advertising which offends their moral sensibilities as Bauer and Greyser suggested when they discretely categorized each on the basis of open-ended responses to reasons people dislike advertising. Results here indicate that advertising which offends consumer morality is a cause of annoyance and a subset of advertising consumers find annoying for a variety of additional reasons. The scale combining these two is therefore labelled "annoyance (II)." The deviation matrix for its revised version is presented in Table 25.

Re-analysis of all scales to this point yielded the following seven revised scales for further analysis: "relevance (II)," "believability," "intelligibility," "annoyance (II)," "enjoyment," "identification," and "advertising utility."

Parallelism of Revised Scales

Parallelism tests of the seven remaining variable scales are presented in this section. To test parallelism between the "relevance (II)" scale and the other six scales, for example, the mean correlations between all "relevance (II)" items combined (Items 9, 11, 20, 27, 35, 39, and 55) and each of the other scales were computed. Then, for each outside scale, the deviations between the actual "relevance (II)" item-to-outside scale correlations and the mean "relevance (II)" item-to-outside scale correlation were computed. The parallelism deviations for this scale are presented in Table 26. Deviations larger than what would be expected due to sampling error are indicated by asterisks. Deviation tables for the remaining six variable scales are presented in Tables 27-32.

Inspection of these tables indicates that the internally consistent scales still possess a number of significant parallelism deviations. This is to be expected, however, since parallelism is a very stringent requirement for a set of variables.¹⁹ Several parallelism deviations result from items having consistently lower or higher correlations than the mean item-to-outside scale correlations. In several instances, these items also possess either the lowest or the highest reliabilities (measured by their communalities). In cases where parallelism deviations could not be attributed to the

reliability of individual items, attempts were made to remove non-parallel items. Only in the case of the "enjoyment" scale could a non-parallel item be removed without negatively affecting the internal consistency or the reliability of the scale. Removing the item "Advertisements are boring" from the "enjoyment" scale did not negatively affect its internal consistency and improved its coefficient alpha to .83. All of the remaining scales were retained as is for subsequent stages of the analysis since they possessed the optimum balance between reliability and unidimensionality attainable on the basis of the current study. Table 33 presents a summary of the confirmatory factor analyses performed on the revised measurement instrument for advertising utility, and lists the 36 items remaining in the purified scale.

Table 26
Parallelism Deviations for Relevance (II) Scale

OUTSIDE FACTOR	Mean Item-Factor Correlation		Deviations (Actual - Mean) for Individual Items					
			9	11	20	27	35	39
BELIEVABILITY	.41	.34	.39	.42	.45	.48	.39	.39
INTELLIGIBILITY	.17	.20	.04*	.29*	.22	.19	.10	.15
ANNOYANCE (II)	-.32	-.36	-.32	-.28	-.33	-.42*	-.27	-.30
ENJOYMENT	.38	.34	.33	.38	.37	.45	.35	.42
IDENTIFICATION	.18	.14	.12	.23	.16	.23	.18	.20
UTILITY	.49	.56*	.44	.49	.56	.55	.35*	.48

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 27
Parallelism Deviations for Believability Scale

OUTSIDE FACTOR	Mean Item-Factor Correlation		Deviations (Actual - Mean) for Individual Items				
			1	16	34	38	47
RELEVANCE (II)	.38	.30	.28*	.35	.41	.51*	.42
INTELLIGIBILITY	.32	.31	.30	.27	.35	.25	.42*
ANNOYANCE (II)	-.49	-.48	-.51	-.47	-.60*	-.39*	-.50
ENJOYMENT	.30	.20*	.22*	.25	.39*	.44*	.32
IDENTIFICATION	.08	-.01	.02	.01	.15	.22*	.04
UTILITY	.30	.22*	.32	.21*	.38	.35	.35

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 28
Parallelism Deviations for Intelligibility Scale

OUTSIDE FACTOR	Mean Item-Factor Correlation		Deviations (Actual - Mean) for Individual Items			
			19	28	30	48
RELEVANCE (II)	.14	.26*	.12	.07	.23	.04*
BELIEVABILITY	.29	.15*	.33	.26	.41*	.31
ANNOYANCE (II)	-.25	-.09*	-.32	-.30	-.34*	-.21
ENJOYMENT	.19	.24	.17	.19	.27	.07*
IDENTIFICATION	.01	.07	.02	-.03	.01	-.05
UTILITY	.22	.21	.24	.22	.31*	.14

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 29
Parallelism Deviations for Annoyance (II) Scale

OUTSIDE FACTOR	Mean Item-Factor Correlation		Deviations (Actual - Mean) for Individual Items				
			4	5	6	14	25
RELEVANCE (II)	-.32	-.35	-.33	-.33	-.29	-.25	-.39
BELIEVABILITY	-.53	-.58	-.53	-.54	-.43*	-.47	-.61*
INTELLIGIBILITY	-.30	-.35	-.31	-.20*	-.19*	-.35	-.39*
ENJOYMENT	-.41	-.41	-.37	-.40	-.43	-.29*	-.53*
IDENTIFICATION	-.08	-.09	.02*	-.10	.10	-.02	-.17*
UTILITY	-.40	-.41	-.41	-.42	-.37	-.30*	-.45

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 30
Parallelism Deviations for Enjoyment Scale

OUTSIDE FACTOR	Mean Item-Factor Correlation		Deviations (Actual - Mean) for Individual Items		
			45	50	52
RELEVANCE (II)	.43		.46	.34*	.48
BELIEVABILITY	.37		.38	.25*	.48*
INTELLIGIBILITY	.25		.24	.26	.27
ANNOYANCE (II)	-.46		-.51	-.32*	-.55*
IDENTIFICATION	.26		.28	.24	.27
UTILITY	.49		.53	.44	.50

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 31
Parallelism Deviations for Identification Scale

OUTSIDE FACTOR	Mean Item-Factor Correlation	Deviations (Actual - Mean) for Individual Items			
		17	22	33	41
RELEVANCE (11)	.22	.20	.20	.20	.27
INTELLIGIBILITY	.10	.07	.09	.07	.17
BELIEVABILITY	.01	-.06	.05	.03	.02
ANNOYANCE (11)	-.09	-.08	-.05	-.05	-.18*
ENJOYMENT	.28	.25	.26	.29	.31
UTILITY	.20	.16	.23	.15	.25

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 32
Parallelism Deviations for Utility Scale

OUTSIDE FACTOR	Mean Item-Factor Correlation		Deviations (Actual - Mean) for Individual Items			
			2	15	23	31
RELEVANCE (11)	.53	.49	.55	.63*	.40*	.58
INTELLIGIBILITY	.35	.33	.33	.36	.40	.36
BELIEVABILITY	.29	.15*	.23	.31	.34	.40*
ANNOYANCE (11)	-.43	-.36	-.46	-.46	-.49	-.36
ENJOYMENT	.47	.39*	.49	.51	.44	.53
IDENTIFICATION	.18	.14	.13	.22	.17	.23

*Deviations greater than expected from sampling error ($p=.05$).

Table 33
Summary of Confirmatory Factor Analyses on Revised Advertising Utility Scale

Variable Scales	Coefficient Alpha	Internal Consistency	Parallelism
<u>RELEVANCE (11)</u>	.87	0 deviations	5 deviations
Advertising is a convenient source of information on products.			
Advertisements supply important information about products.			
Advertising supplies timely information on products.			
Advertisements provide people with product information before they make purchases.			
Advertising is a good source of information on products.			
Advertisements tell people about products when they need the information.			
Advertisements supply relevant information on products.			
<u>BELIEVABILITY</u>	.81	0 deviations	12 deviations
Advertisements are deceptive. (Reverse coding)			
Advertisements lie. (Reverse coding)			
Important facts about products are left out of advertisements. (Reverse coding)			
Advertising is misleading. (Reverse coding)			
Advertising tells the truth.			
Advertising deceives consumers. (Reverse coding)			
<u>INTELLIGIBILITY</u>	.72	0 deviations	8 deviations
Advertisements are easy to understand.			
The meaning of advertisements is not clear. (Reverse coding)			
Advertisements are difficult to understand. (Reverse coding)			
Advertisements are confusing. (Reverse coding)			
Advertisements are complicated. (Reverse coding)			
<u>ANNOYANCE (11)</u>	.84	0 deviations	10 deviations
Advertising is irritating.			
Advertising is distasteful.			
There is too much advertising.			
Advertisements are unwanted interruptions.			
Advertisements insult people's intelligence.			
Advertising is annoying.			
<u>ENJOYMENT</u>	.83	0 deviations	5 deviations
Advertising is enjoyable.			
Advertisements are entertaining.			
Advertisements are pleasing.			
<u>IDENTIFICATION</u>	.90	0 deviations	1 deviation
People see themselves as similar to persons in advertisements.			
People relate to the characters in advertisements.			
People see themselves in advertisements.			
People identify with advertisements.			
<u>ADVERTISING UTILITY</u>	.86	0 deviations	5 deviations
Advertising is important.			
Advertising is valuable.			
Advertising is useful.			
Advertising is useless. (Reverse coding)			
Advertising is beneficial.			

Causal Model Analysis

To investigate the relationships between "advertising utility" and the six remaining hypothesized predictors, multiple regression analysis was employed as a means of analyzing the collective and separate effects of the independent variables on the dependent measure.²⁰ The general multiple regression equation as applied to this study can be written as follows:

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4 + b_5X_5 + b_6X_6 + e$$

where

- Y - is the dependent variable (advertising utility);
- a - is the constant or intercept (the value for Y when all X's equal zero);
- b_1-6 - are partial regression coefficients for each independent variable (representing the impact each independent variable has on the dependent variable while controlling for the influence of other variables in the equation);
- X_1-6 - are the independent variables; and
- e - is the error or residual term (the variability in the dependent variable unexplained by the equation).

The "least squares" solution to the equation is sought by determining the appropriate regression coefficients for each of the independent variables so that the sum of the

squared errors of prediction is minimized.²¹ For the regression coefficients to be linear unbiased estimates of the true population parameters, multiple regression assumes the following: (1) the relationship between the dependent variable and each of its predictors is linear; (2) there is no measurement error; (3) residuals for all variables are normally distributed; and (4) perfect "multicollinearity" does not exist, that is, no independent variable is perfectly correlated with another.²²

Multiple regression analysis and various subroutines under its rubric were performed using the SPSS/PC+ computer program.²³ The correlation matrix among the variables in the theorized model was calculated and is presented in Table 34. The matrix includes the Pearson product moment correlations between "advertising utility" and each independent variable, as well as the correlations among the independent variables themselves. The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) is the standard measure of the degree of association or covariation between any two variables.²⁴ As a standardized measure, its range varies from 1.0 to -1.0. The larger the absolute value of the correlation coefficient, the stronger the linear association and greater importance of either variable as a predictor of the other.²⁵ The correlation coefficient, however, does not distinguish between the independent and dependent variable and, therefore, should not be interpreted as a measure of "causality."²⁶

The correlation coefficients between advertising

utility and each of the independent variables are substantial indicating fairly robust linear associations. Correlations for each of the six are statistically significant ($p < .01$) indicating linear relationships in each case, and the direction of each relationship, as indicated by the sign of the coefficient, is consistent with theoretical expectations.

Table 34
Matrix of Correlations Among Variable Scales

Variable	Relevance(II)	Believabil	Intelligib	Annoy(II)	Enjoyment	Identific	Utility
Relevance(II)	1.00						
Believabil	.49*	1.00					
Intelligib	.19*	.38*	1.00				
Annoy(II)	-.50*	-.63*	-.34*	1.00			
Enjoyment	.53*	.39*	.25*	-.49*	1.00		
Identific	.21*	.20	.01*	-.10	.29*	1.00	
Utility	.61*	.40*	.31*	-.50*	.53*	.21*	1.00

N = 477

1-tailed Significance at .01 denoted by asterisk (*)

Considering each independent variable alone, the correlation coefficients permit an initial evaluation of each independent variable's relative importance in predicting advertising utility.²⁷ A group of three variables are the strongest predictors--"relevance (II)"

($r=.61$), "enjoyment" ($r=.53$), and "annoyance" (II) ($r=-.50$)--followed by a group of somewhat weaker predictors--"believability" ($r=.40$), "intelligibility" ($r=.31$), and "identification" ($r=.21$). With the exception of "annoyance (II)," all are positively related to utility.

To test the collective and separate effects of the six independent variables when all are examined simultaneously, "advertising utility" was regressed on the six independent variable scales using the most commonly employed STEPWISE method supplied by SPSS/PC+.²⁸ The STEPWISE routine has been used when independent variables measuring similar beliefs are highly correlated with one another.²⁹ Stepwise selection performs tests at each step in building the regression model to determine the contribution of each predictor already in the equation if it were to enter last. This permits identification of predictors that were considered to be "good" at an earlier step but have lost their usefulness when additional predictors are brought into the equation.³⁰ Results of this analysis are presented in Table 35.

The multiple correlation coefficient (Multiple R), measuring the correspondence between the observed and predicted values of advertising utility, is reasonably high at .704. The F test associated with the analysis of variance results in the table is a test of the null hypothesis that $b_1=b_2=b_3=b_4=b_5=b_6=0$, or that there is no linear relationship between advertising utility and the

entire set of independent variables.³¹ The F value of 92.686 is significant ($p < .000$) permitting rejection of this null hypothesis.

The "coefficient of determination" represented by R^2 is a measure of the "goodness of fit" of the linear model. It indicates the proportion of variance of the dependent variable accounted for by the independent variables.³² The R^2 value is .496, indicating that just under 50 percent of the variance in advertising utility is accounted for by the five variables entered in the equation. Since a model does not usually fit the population as well as it fits the sample, the "adjusted R^2 " statistic corrects the R^2 value to more closely reflect the goodness of fit of the model with the population.³³ The adjusted R^2 value corrected the initial estimate slightly downward to .491.

Five of the six postulated predictors of advertising utility entered the regression equation. Evaluating the relative importance of each must be done prudently since the estimates used to make these determinations are distorted by the intercorrelations between the independent variables and the order in which variables enter the equation. Intercorrelations among the independent variables cause information provided by some of the variables to be redundant with information provided by others,³⁴ making it difficult to measure the unique contribution of any given predictor. In regard to the order of entry, the selection criteria used to admit variables are purely statistical. A

Table 35
Results of Multiple Regression Analysis

Step	Variable	b	SE b	Beta	SE Beta	Sig F	Mult R	Rsquared	Adj Rsquared
<u>Variables in the Equation</u>									
1	Relevance(II)	.326	.030	.432	.040	.000	.606	.367	.366
2	Enjoyment	.344	.061	.227	.040	.000	.670	.449	.446
3	Annoyance(II)	-.176	.036	-.223	.045	.000	.694	.481	.478
4	Intelligibility	.140	.040	.127	.036	.001	.702	.492	.488
5	Believability	-.078	.041	-.087	.046	.059	.704	.496	.491
	(Constant)	7.237	2.734			.008			
<u>Variable not in the Equation</u>									
	Identification			.033		.347			
<u>Analysis of Variance</u>									
	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares		Mean Square			F	Sig F	
Regression	5	19967.594		3993.519			92.686	.000	
Residual	471	20293.651		43.086					

predictor with a slight edge over another with which it is highly correlated will be selected in preference to another equally useful predictor.³⁵

These qualifications aside, the regression analysis suggests several findings. Partial rather than standardized regression coefficients were used to make direct comparisons since all variables were scaled in equal units. An added benefit of partial coefficients is that they are generalizable across populations and settings unlike Beta coefficients which are sample specific.³⁶ The two strongest predictors of consumer evaluations of advertising utility are "relevance(II)" ($b=.326$, $p < .000$) and "enjoyment" ($b=.344$, $p < .000$). Both relevance and enjoyment operate in the hypothesized direction in addition to supporting the two-dimensional taxonomy of the theory. Since relevance is a measure of the adequacy of information and enjoyment is a measure of entertainment value, together they support the notion that consumers consider the usefulness of advertising not only in terms of its information quality but also in terms of its entertainment quality.

The next two somewhat weaker predictors to enter the equation were "annoyance(II)" ($b=-.176$, $p < .000$) and "intelligibility" ($b=.140$, $p < .001$). In direction, these too support the hypothesized relationships. Specifically, results indicate that annoyance, a measure of the entertainment value of advertising, acts as a negative influence on consumer evaluations of utility.

Intelligibility, on the other hand, increases valuations of utility by heightening the informativeness of advertising.

The fifth and sixth predictors play only nominal roles. "Identification" failed to meet minimum significance requirements and was not entered in the equation ($p=.347$). It was significantly, though weakly related to utility in comparison to the other predictors ($r=.21$, $p < .01$), but its collinearity with "enjoyment" ($r=.29$, $p < .01$) was sufficient to render its contribution to the regression equation redundant.

Interpretation of the role of "believability" at this stage is problematic. "Believability" entered the equation at step 5 only after the default criterion for the F-statistic (probability of F-to-enter) on the stepwise routine was modified to .06. Its moderate positive correlation with the dependent measure ($r=.40$, $p < .01$) was transformed to a small and negative regression coefficient in the equation ($b=-.078$, $p=.059$).

To investigate whether specification error accounted for this discrepancy, several variable transformations were attempted on the believability variable to determine if a non-linear relationship would more accurately account for the data (i.e., $\log X$, $\ln X$, X^2 , and believability-by-annoyance(II) interaction). No significant improvements were found. It was decided in view of the strength and significance of the variables already in the equation that transforming the entire model would unnecessarily complicate

the analysis.

The explanation for the unusual behavior of the "believability" variable is probably attributable to its correlations with others in the model. Multicollinearity often leads to counterintuitive results in which a regression coefficient may have a negative sign when the variable with which it is associated is expected to have a positive effect.³⁷ In this case, the correlation between "believability" and "annoyance(ii)" ($r = -.63$, $p < .01$), is the likely culprit. This finding is not overly surprising. Bauer and Greyser reported that consumers who are annoyed with advertising sometimes attributed their feelings to what the authors categorized as "information failures," dealing mostly with the deceptiveness of advertising.³⁸ The fairly-large negative correlation between "believability" and "annoyance(II)" suggests that inadequate information, obviously a measure of information quality, is also a cause of annoyance. This tends somewhat to "blur" the clear distinction made between the information and entertainment dimensions proposed to account for evaluations of advertising utility. Unfortunately, there is no satisfactory way to distinguish between the effects of these two variables in a field study. Further research using an experimental design controlling for these variables will be necessary to properly detect their unique effects.

Overall, the significant findings of the regression analysis should be qualified in view of the assumptions of

this technique mentioned earlier. The size and significance of the regression coefficients for the variables in the model support the hypothesis that their effects are substantial and linear. However, the standard error estimates of the regression coefficients (see Table 35) indicate that each coefficient is properly interpreted within a confidence interval bounded by its b-value plus or minus the value of its error estimate. In the case of "intelligibility" ($b=.14$, $SE\ b=.040$), its true regression coefficient may lie anywhere between .100 and .180, not an inconsiderable range in view of the magnitude of the coefficient. The third assumption stipulates that the residuals, what is left after the model is fit, should be normally distributed.³⁹ This assumption was upheld. Appendix J displays a histogram of the standardized residuals indicating a fairly normal distribution. Finally, the assumption that perfect multicollinearity must not exist is upheld, though the extent of its effects have been noted.

Construct Validity Analysis

Results in this section are based on the experimental data and focus on whether the theory of advertising utility, operationalized and refined through various tests already discussed, can be successfully used to predict how consumers actually evaluate different advertisements. In essence, this is a critical test of the model's practical benefit and

one of the two main approaches to assessing construct validity. The other concerns whether the construct correlates in expected ways with other constructs.⁴⁰ Greater attention was devoted to establishing whether the theory "works" in an experimental situation since this is the more immediately pressing issue. The task of relating advertising utility to existing measures, while treated briefly at the end of this section, is proposed as an issue for subsequent research based on evidence that it holds promise for explaining how consumers behave.

The central validity issue requires determining whether consumers employ the two main theorized criteria when evaluating a number of experimental advertisements. If "informativeness" and "entertainment" are independent determinants of utility evaluations, consumers would then be expected to employ both criteria simultaneously when they evaluate advertising. In terms of the experiment, subjects should differentiate between advertisements that are informative and those that are not and advertisements that are entertaining and those that are not. Further, their evaluations should be predictable using the mathematical model of advertising utility derived from the regression analysis. The standardized equation can be expressed as follows:

$$Y = .432B_1 + .127B_2 - .087B_3 + .227B_4 - .223B_5 + e$$

where

Y = advertising utility;

B₁ = relevance;

B₂ = intelligibility;

B₃ = believability;

B₄ = enjoyment;

B₅ = annoyance; and

e = error.

To ensure the eight treatment advertisements (two groups of four) possessed the appropriate attributes, each was compared with the three others in its group to verify that it belonged in its designated cell. As previously noted, the replicated two-by-two factorial model corresponds with the two-by-two theoretical taxonomy (see Figure 7). Table 36 contains a summary of the manipulation check of the experimental advertisements.

T-tests were performed on all possible pairs of commercials in each of the two groupings to determine if subjects' mean ratings from the pretest of informativeness or entertainment for designated pairs of commercials significantly differed as intended.⁴¹ For example, to verify whether the camera advertisement fulfilled its intended role as a high-utility stimulus, its mean rating on informativeness should be significantly higher than the mean ratings on informativeness for the soft drink and feminine hygiene commercials both selected to be low on this

Figure 7
Pretest Ratings of Treatment Advertisements*

Groups 1-4:

		Informativeness	
		High	Low
Entertainment Value	High	Camera	Soft Drink
		Info - $\bar{x} = 1.93$ Enter - $\bar{x} = 3.26$	Info - $\bar{x} = 8.26$ Enter - $\bar{x} = 2.64$
	Low	Department Store	Feminine Hygiene
		Info - $\bar{x} = 2.45$ Enter - $\bar{x} = 8.33$	Info - $\bar{x} = 8.50$ Enter - $\bar{x} = 8.81$

Groups 5-8:

		Informativeness	
		High	Low
Entertainment Value	High	Computer	Soft Drink
		Info - $\bar{x} = 3.64$ Enter - $\bar{x} = 2.24$	Info - $\bar{x} = 7.57$ Enter - $\bar{x} = 1.79$
	Low	Food Store	Feminine Hygiene
		Info - $\bar{x} = 3.21$ Enter - $\bar{x} = 8.45$	Info - $\bar{x} = 7.29$ Enter - $\bar{x} = 6.88$

* Responses based on 11-interval scales: Where 1=very informative, 11=not informative at all; 1=very entertaining and 11=not entertaining at all.

dimension. On the other hand, it should not differ significantly from the department store advertisement which was selected to be high on informativeness. The camera advertisement's mean rating on entertainment should be significantly higher than the mean ratings on entertainment for the feminine hygiene and department store advertisements while not significantly different from the soft drink advertisement which was selected because it was also highly entertaining.

With one exception, T-tests of all paired comparisons indicated the experimental stimuli had been appropriately selected. The feminine hygiene and food store advertisements in the second grouping (groups 5-8) were chosen to be low on entertainment. The feminine hygiene ad was slightly more entertaining, however this difference was not thought to be a threat to the design.

Testing hypotheses H_1 - H_4 involved two issues: (1) testing the null hypothesis that mean ratings of advertising utility for each group are equal; and (2) testing which group means are different from one other.

Employing the equation derived for advertising utility theory, significant differences among subjects' mean evaluations of utility for the experimental advertisements should occur. The statistical procedure commonly used to test the null hypothesis that several population means are equal is "analysis of variance (ANOVA)."⁴² Oneway ANOVAs were performed on advertising utility for groups 1-4 and

Table 36
Manipulation Check of Experimental Commercials (n=42)

Treatment Ad	Dimension	Mean*	St Dev	T-Value	DF	Sig P (2-tailed)
Groups 1-4						
Camera	Information	1.93	1.28	-16.27	41	.000
Soft Drink	Information	8.26	2.18			
Camera	Information	1.93	1.28	-15.81	41	.000
Feminine Hygiene	Information	8.50	2.37			
Camera	Information	1.93	1.28	-1.71	41	.080
Department Store	Information	2.45	1.52			
Department Store	Information	2.45	1.52	-13.30	41	.000
Soft Drink	Information	8.26	2.18			
Department Store	Information	2.45	1.52	-15.51	41	.000
Feminine Hygiene	Information	8.50	2.37			
Soft Drink	Information	8.26	2.18	-.52	41	.607
Feminine Hygiene	Information	8.50	2.37			
Camera	Entertainment	3.26	1.50	1.55	41	.130
Soft Drink	Entertainment	2.64	2.12			
Camera	Entertainment	3.26	1.50	-15.50	41	.000
Feminine Hygiene	Entertainment	8.81	1.77			
Camera	Entertainment	3.26	1.50	-13.06	41	.000
Department Store	Entertainment	8.33	2.02			
Soft Drink	Entertainment	2.64	2.12	-14.59	41	.000
Feminine Hygiene	Entertainment	8.81	1.77			
Soft Drink	Entertainment	2.64	2.12	-13.43	41	.000
Department Store	Entertainment	8.33	2.02			
Feminine Hygiene	Entertainment	8.81	1.77	1.66	41	.105
Department Store	Entertainment	8.33	2.02			

Table 36 continued

Treatment Ad	Dimension	Mean*	St Dev	T-value	DF	Sig P (2-tailed)
Groups 5-8						
Computer	Information	3.64	1.72	-11.45	41	.000
Soft Drink	Information	7.57	2.58			
Computer	Information	3.64	1.72	-10.98	41	.000
Feminine Hygiene	Information	7.29	2.21			
Computer	Information	3.64	1.72	1.33	41	.190
Food Store	Information	3.21	1.35			
Food Store	Information	3.21	1.35	-10.11	41	.000
Soft Drink	Information	7.57	2.58			
Food Store	Information	3.21	1.35	-11.32	41	.000
Feminine Hygiene	Information	7.29	2.21			
Soft Drink	Information	7.57	2.58	.63	41	.534
Feminine Hygiene	Information	7.29	2.21			
Computer	Entertainment	2.24	1.56	1.93	41	.060
Soft Drink	Entertainment	1.79	.90			
Computer	Entertainment	2.24	1.56	-11.36	41	.000
Feminine Hygiene	Entertainment	6.88	2.40			
Computer	Entertainment	2.24	1.56	-17.75	41	.000
Food Store	Entertainment	8.45	1.84			
Soft Drink	Entertainment	1.79	.90	-12.97	41	.000
Feminine Hygiene	Entertainment	6.88	2.40			
Soft Drink	Entertainment	1.79	.90	-21.65	41	.000
Food Store	Entertainment	8.45	1.84			
Feminine Hygiene	Entertainment	6.88	2.40	-3.76	41	.001
Food Store	Entertainment	8.45	1.84			

* Responses based on 11-interval scales: Where 1 = very informative, 11 = not informative at all;
and 1 = very entertaining and 11 = not entertaining at all.

then groups 5-8. Results of these analyses are presented in Tables 37, 38, 40, and 41.

Significant F-ratios of 30.445 ($p < .000$) for groups 1-4 and 42.685 ($p < .000$) for groups 5-8 were obtained. Thus, in both instances the null hypothesis can be rejected and the alternative hypothesis, that some population means are not equal or that some treatment effects are present, can be accepted.⁴³ For ANOVA to be properly applied, homogeneity of variance and normality among the populations from which samples are drawn is assumed.⁴⁴ Cochran's C Test was performed on both groupings with insignificant levels obtained in each case (Groups 1-4: $p = .816$ and Groups 5-8, $p = .217$); therefore, the assumption that variances were homogeneous was upheld.

Having established evidence of treatment effects, the direction in which they occur was investigated. The following pattern was expected: ratings of advertising utility would be highest for groups 1 and 5 who viewed advertisements that were both informative and entertaining, lowest for groups 3 and 7 who viewed advertisements that were neither informative nor entertaining, and in between for the remaining groups (2, 4, 6, and 8) who saw advertisements high on one dimension and low on the other.

The Scheffe test was employed as a conservative means of making these multiple post-hoc comparisons since it requires larger differences between means than most other methods before significance can be accepted.⁴⁵ Results of

the Scheffe post-hoc comparisons are presented in Tables 39 and 42. Paired comparisons that are statistically significant ($p < .05$) are indicated by asterisks. In all cases, the expected differences between group means can be observed. Taking as an example the comparisons for groups 1-4, utility ratings for group 1 (high-information-high entertainment stimulus) were significantly higher than utility ratings for the other three groups. Utility ratings for group 3 (low-information-low entertainment stimulus) were significantly lower than those for the other three groups. Finally, as expected, group 2 ratings (low-information-high entertainment stimulus) were not significantly different from those of group 4 (high-information-low entertainment).

These results permit acceptance of hypotheses $H_1 - H_4$, namely, that respondents evaluate advertisements that are both informative and entertaining as having the greatest utility, advertisements that are neither informative nor entertaining as having the least utility, and those either informative or entertaining as having moderate utility.

The preceding analyses confirmed the hypothesized pattern for the dependent measure across each cell. To explicitly examine the role of the two major dimensions, information and entertainment, two-way ANOVAS were performed on each of the two groupings using informativeness and entertainment as independent variables. When cell sizes are unequal, as was the case here, the "hierarchical approach"

Table 37
Oneway ANOVA Summary Table for Advertising Utility: Groups 1-4

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig F
Between Groups	226.465	3	75.489	30.445	.000
Within Groups	347.128	140	2.480		
Total	573.593	143			

Table 38
Oneway ANOVA Summary Statistics: Groups 1-4

Group	Count	Mean	St Dev	St Error	95% Conf Int for Mean
1	37	1.182	1.226	.202	.773 to 1.591
2	36	2.533	1.682	.280	1.964 to 3.102
3	38	4.602	1.704	.276	4.042 to 5.162
4	33	2.412	1.645	.286	1.828 to 2.995
Total	144	2.704	2.003	.167	2.374 to 3.034

Table 39
Scheffe Post-Hoc Comparisons: Groups 1-4

	Mean	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Group 1	1.182				
Group 2	2.533	*			
Group 3	4.602	*	*		
Group 4	2.412	*		*	

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at .05 alpha level.

Table 40
Oneway ANOVA Summary Table for Advertising Utility: Groups 5-8

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig F
Between Groups	179.043	3	59.681	42.685	.000
Within Groups	190.152	136	1.398		
Total	369.195	139			

Table 41
Oneway ANOVA Summary Statistics: Groups 5-8

Group	Count	Mean	St Dev	St Error	95% Conf Int for Mean
5	32	.552	1.063	.188	.169 to .936
6	33	1.516	1.038	.181	1.148 to 1.884
7	35	3.703	1.368	.231	3.233 to 4.172
8	40	2.291	1.210	.191	1.904 to 2.678
Total	140	2.064	1.630	.138	1.792 to 2.336

Table 42
Scheffe Post-Hoc Comparisons: Groups 5-8

	Mean	Group 5	Group 6	Group 7	Group 8
Group 5	.552				
Group 6	1.516	*			
Group 7	3.703	*	*		
Group 8	2.291	*		*	

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at .05 alpha level.

to decomposing the sum of squares is employed to ensure orthogonality among the main and interaction effects.⁴⁶ Results of these analyses are presented in Tables 43 and 44.

Results for groups 1-4 indicate significant main effects for information ($F=48.784$, $p < .000$) and entertainment ($F=40.005$, $p < .000$). The two-way interaction, informativeness-by-entertainment, however, is insignificant ($F=2.547$, $p=.113$) indicating that each dimension independently affects evaluations of advertising utility. These results are confirmed by those from groups 5-8 where both main effects are again significant--information ($F=31.567$, $p < .000$) and entertainment ($F=95.242$, $p < .000$) --and the interaction effect is not ($F=1.246$, $p=.266$).

Therefore, it is possible to accept hypotheses H_5 and H_6 that both the informativeness and the entertainment value of an advertisement influence consumer evaluations of its utility. Furthermore, each of these dimensions clearly represents an independent influence on such evaluations permitting H_7 to be accepted.

Turning finally to the issue of the relationship between advertising utility and other existing constructs, two preliminary findings are possible. The first concerns the relationship between respondent evaluations of the utility of experimental advertisements and their attitudes toward these advertisements. The zero order correlations between utility and the attitude toward the advertisement item for groups 1-4 was .74 ($p < .01$) and for groups 5-8 was

Table 43
ANOVA Summary Table for Advertising Utility by
Information and Entertainment Effects: Groups 1-4

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig F
Main Effects	220.151	2	110.075	44.394	.000
Information	120.959	1	120.959	48.784	.000
Entertainment	99.192	1	99.192	40.005	.000
Two-way Interaction	6.315	1	6.315	2.547	.113
Inform by Entertain	6.315	1	6.315	2.547	.113
Explained	226.465	3	75.488	30.445	.000
Residual	347.128	140	2.479		
Total	573.593	143	4.011		

Table 44
ANOVA Summary Table for Advertising Utility by
Information and Entertainment Effects: Groups 5-8

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig F
Main Effects	177.301	2	88.651	63.405	.000
Information	44.136	1	44.136	31.567	.000
Entertainment	133.165	1	133.165	95.242	.000
Two-way Interaction	1.742	1	1.742	1.246	.266
Inform by Entertain	1.742	1	1.742	1.246	.266
Explained	179.043	3	59.681	42.685	.000
Residual	190.152	136	1.398		
Total	369.195	139	2.656		

.75 ($p < .01$). As expected, respondent evaluations of utility and their overall attitudes toward experimental advertisements were quite highly related, supporting convergent validity, but not so high as to discredit the measure's discriminant validity. With respect to the relationship between utility and responses to the item measuring intention to purchase, the zero order correlation for groups 1-4 was .66 ($p < .01$) and for groups 5-8 was .55 ($p < .01$). Again, these correlations imply that respondents' reported intentions to purchase are significantly related to their evaluations of advertising utility, but not as highly related as their attitudes toward the ads. This is understandable since additional considerations outside of the advertising itself weigh on intentions to purchase. These results indicate qualified acceptance of hypotheses H_8 and H_9 since single-item measures of attitudes and intentions employed in this study are not particularly reliable and responses to both were not collected through truly independent methods which likely inflated correlations with utility.

Summary of Findings

In summary, the major findings of this study bear on the theory and the measurement scale developed to assess advertising utility. Analyses of the measurement structure of the pretest and revised scales using confirmatory factor

analysis permitted examination of the relationships among the theoretically defined variables and responses to items on the scale. Results indicated that three pairs of variables in the theoretical model--relevance and timeliness, truthfulness and completeness, and annoyance and offensiveness--are not discrete criteria consumers employ when evaluating advertising, as had been originally predicted. These three pairs of variables were collapsed successfully to form three general variable scales measuring "relevance," "believability," and "annoyance," respectively. Re-analysis of the six retained independent variable scales and the scale created to measure the dependent variable indicated that the revised measurement model adequately fit the data. This conclusion is based on the statistical analyses performed on the measurement model and on each of the variable scales yielding the following results: (1) all scales met or exceeded minimum coefficient alpha standards; (2) all scales were internally consistent; (3) all scales were reasonably parallel; and (4) all scales displayed intercorrelations among themselves and with the dependent variable interpretable in a manner consistent with theoretical expectations.

With the variable scales refined and purified, multiple regression analyses were performed to explain the correlations among the variables in the model. Results indicate that four of the six predictors--relevance, intelligibility, enjoyment, and annoyance--are substantially

and linearly related to advertising utility. The fifth predictor, believability, could not be unambiguously interpreted as its role in the regression model was nominal and its influence failed to operate in the predicted direction. This finding was attributed to this variable's collinearity with other variables in the model which made it difficult to interpret its unique role in the current analysis. The sixth hypothesized predictor, identification, was weakly related to utility in comparison to the other variables and its collinearity with enjoyment usurped any contribution it could make to improving the model. With the exception of the believability variable, the regression model is generally efficient employing five independent variables to explain approximately 50% of the variability in utility. In addition, of the five independent variables in the model, three pertain to the information dimension and two to the entertainment dimension supporting the theoretical notion that utility is a function of both informativeness and entertainment.

To explicitly investigate the role of these two theoretical dimensions in explaining advertising utility, an experiment using a replicated two-by-two factorial design controlling for "informativeness" and "entertainment" was conducted. Results indicate that informativeness and entertainment had independent and significant effects on utility, a finding which merits confidence since the experimental design permitted it to be replicated. Finally,

the relationships between advertising utility and two other established constructs, namely attitude toward the ad and intention to purchase, indicate that utility is a related though distinct construct requiring additional research to clarify its appropriate place within existing theoretical networks of advertising effectiveness.

ENDNOTES FOR CHAPTER 4

¹John E. Hunter and David W. Gerbing, "Unidimensional Measurement, Second Order Factor Analysis, and Causal Models," Research in Organizational Behavior 4 (1982):267-320.

²Ibid., pp. 276-281.

³Earl R. Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, 3rd ed. (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1983), p. 369.

⁴Jum C. Nunnally, Psychometric Theory, 2nd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1978), p. 226.

⁵Ibid., p. 212.

⁶Ibid., p. 214.

⁷Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr., "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," Journal of Marketing Research XVI (February 1979):68.

⁸Nunnally, Psychometric Theory, pp. 245-246.

⁹John E. Hunter, "Methods of Recording the Correlation Matrix to Facilitate Visual Inspection and Preliminary Cluster Analysis," Journal of Educational Measurement 10 (1973):51-61.

¹⁰Hunter and Gerbing, "Unidimensional Measurement, Second Order Factor Analysis, and Causal Models," p. 283.

¹¹Ibid., pp. 276-278.

¹²John E. Hunter and Tau-Seop Lim, LIMSTAT Version 2.0 Computer Program and Manual (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University).

¹³John E. Hunter, Stanley H. Cohen, and Thomas S. Nicol, PACKAGE Computer Program and Manual (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, May 15, 1982).

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Hunter and Gerbing, "Unidimensional Measurement, Second Order Factor Analysis, and Causal Models," p. 272.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 273.

¹⁷Ibid., pp. 278-281.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 274.

¹⁹John E. Hunter, "Cluster Analysis and Reliability, Construct Validity, and the Multiple Indicators Approach to Measurement," presented at the Workshop on Advanced Statistics, the U. S. Civil Service Commission, March 21, 1977, p. 28.

²⁰Elazar J. Pedhazur, Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1983), p. 6.

²¹Ibid., p. 46.

²²Michael S. Lewis-Beck, Applied Regression (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc., 1980), pp. 26-30, 58-62.

²³Marija J. Norusis, ed., SPSS/PC+ V2.0 Base Manual (Chicago, Illinois: SPSS Inc., 1988), pp. B-196-B-243.

²⁴Aaron C. Johnson Jr., Marvin B. Johnson, and Rueben C. Buse, Econometrics--Basic and Applied (New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, 1987), pp. 90-91.

²⁵Norusis, SPSS/PC+ V2.0 Base Manual, p. B-219.

²⁶Pedhazur, Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research, p. 40.

²⁷Norusis, SPSS/PC+ V.2.0 Base Manual, p. B-219.

²⁸Ibid., pp. B-227-228.

²⁹Darrel D. Muehling, "An Investigation of Factors Underlying Attitude-Toward-Advertising-in-General," Journal of Advertising 16 (1987):37.

³⁰Pedhazur, Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research, p. 160.

³¹Norusis, SPSS/PC+ V.2.0 Base Manual, p. B-218.

³²Pedhazur, Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research, p. 55.

³³Norusis, SPSS/PC+ V. 2.0 Base Manual, p. B-202.

³⁴Pedhazur, Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research, p. 235.

³⁵Ibid., p. 162.

³⁶Ibid., p. 247.

³⁷Ibid., p. 245.

³⁸Raymond A. Bauer and Stephen A. Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View (Boston: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1968), p. 214.

³⁹Norusis, SPSS/PC+ V.2.0 Base Manual, pp. B-207, B-228.

⁴⁰Nunnally, Psychometric Theory, p. 98.

⁴¹James L. Bruning and B. L. Kintz, Computational Handbook of Statistics, 2nd ed. (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1977), p. 10.

⁴²Norusis, SPSS/PC+ V.2.0 Base Manual, p. B-154.

⁴³Geoffrey Keppel, Design and Analysis--A Researcher's Handbook, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1982), p. 52.

⁴⁴Norusis, SPSS/PC+ V.2.0 Base Manual, pp. B-158-159.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. B-156.

⁴⁶Norman H. Nie, C. Hadlai Hull, Jean G. Jenkins, Karin Steinbrenner, and Dale H. Bent, SPSS--Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 2nd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1975), pp. 403-404.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION

This dissertation began with the observation that advertising is likely to serve as the preferred means of uniting buyers and sellers in the foreseeable future as it has done since commercial trade began thousands of years ago. Moreover, as technology-spurred development continues to heighten the interconnectedness of societies, the number and variety of trade opportunities will increase as well. Interest in advertising, therefore, is likely to grow as firms increasingly depend on communicating with more individuals to purchase more and more different things.

In the last thirty years, the sophistication with which buying and selling transactions are made underwent major improvements as the marketing concept, the notion that businesses operate successfully by satisfying the needs of consumers, became widely accepted. Research in marketing has endeavored to build the requisite knowledge base on which businesses currently depend by "analyzing, organizing, planning, and controlling (the) firm's customer-impinging resources, policies, and activities with a view to satisfying the needs and wants of chosen customer groups at a profit."¹

As a sub-discipline within marketing, advertising research has focused on discovering "principles by which

advertisements and general strategies and schedules can be constructed"² with the purpose of "striving to alter (consumer) behavior and/or levels of awareness, knowledge, attitude, and so on in a manner that would be beneficial to (advertisers)."³ These efforts have been fueled by the desire to further the "persuasive intent" of sales messages.

The review of existing theories in Chapter 2 demonstrated, however, that there is no generally accepted theory of how advertising functions to accomplish this end. The logical question is whether such a theory is attainable and, if so, what are the impediments stifling attempts at an integrative approach? Though full answers to these issues are beyond the scope of the current research effort, the major argument here is that deriving a unified theory of advertising persuasion will not be found by studying how advertising leads to the accomplishment of business goals but by focusing on why and how it furthers the aims of consumers.

The problem that has beset advertising research seems to be due largely to its divergence in fundamental emphasis from its parent discipline, marketing. The study of marketing is based on the search for ways to satisfy consumer needs while advertising research has focused on searching for ways to satisfy the needs of firms to get people to try their products. Advertising research has erred by limiting its endeavor to answering the question: "How can people be made to do what firms want them to do?",

instead of the question properly posed in a form consistent with its parent discipline, "How can advertising be created to satisfy the needs of the consumers it serves?"

Though its formative ideas came from psychology, advertising theory detached itself from the search for a fundamental principle of psychological behavior involved in consumer decision-making, concentrating instead on the "mechanics" of persuasion through a series of processes within the domain of "persuasive communications." As Tan explains, "In the late 1940s and the 1950s persuasion research was communication research. Scholars were primarily interested in analyzing how communication changed people's attitudes and behaviors."⁴ The major issues in persuasion research have since been concerned with defining "the nature of change." Early persuasion research by Hovland focused on "attitude change" as the major dependent variable or effect.⁵ More recent models, such as McGuire's, dissected attitude change into discrete components like attention, understanding, yielding or acceptance, retention, and finally action.⁶ Later, the persuasion process was again reconceptualized as the study of attitudes, beliefs, behavioral intentions, and overt behavior.⁷

In focusing on "how" persuasion occurs, advertising research untethered itself from its psychological foundation where the answer to "why" persuasion occurs is found. Without an agreed upon unifying principle explaining why persuasion occurs, advertising theory evolved into a series

of competing explanations of alternative persuasion processes, i.e., the learning hierarchies. The principle advanced here is that in all cases the common explanation for why advertising works should be viewed first in terms of a single issue: "To what extent does it satisfy consumer needs?" The dilemma over how advertising persuades is not first a communications-process issue but a psychological one. In addition, when conceptualized in this manner, advertising persuasion is inherently ethical since it explains persuasion in terms of consumer need satisfaction rather than in terms of a series of manipulative communications strategies designed to service the needs of firms.

Marketing theories are sturdier than those of advertising because they regard behavior as a function of need-satisfaction. It is argued here that this should apply equally to developing advertising theory. Though in many instances consumers do not follow an explicitly rational calculus of alternative options, over time they act to maximize their happiness in one form or another. Through this approach, advertising effects are logically understood as a function of "advertising utility" to consumers who generally act to satisfy their needs. The results of this study provide strong support that explaining advertising in these terms potentially offers unifying answers to the questions of advertising effects. The remaining sections of this chapter address the research questions posed at the end

of Chapter 2 including specific implications, future research directions, and applications of the findings from the current study.

Do Consumers Think About the "Utility" of Advertising?

The "theory-then-research" strategy⁸ employed in this study began by stating that consumers evaluate advertising in terms of its utility and then proceeded to empirically test this proposition. Results from the experiment provide clear evidence that subjects differentiated among experimental advertisements on the basis of perceptions of their utility. With the Theory of Advertising Utility remaining intact, three functions generally served by theories may now be discussed: (1) prediction; (2) explanation; and (3) intervention.⁹

With respect to prediction, the theory holds several practical benefits. For advertisers, accurate prediction of whether advertising campaigns will be perceived as useful by consumers will serve as one measure of their potential effectiveness. This knowledge may be applied to pretesting alternative campaign advertisements to determine in advance which will be most useful to targetted consumers. The scale developed to measure advertising utility, proven to be both a reliable and valid measure of consumer reactions to advertisements, can be implemented as a straightforward paper-and-pencil test among groups of

consumers to make unambiguous distinctions among alternative executions.

To further study the predictive power of the theory, additional research will need to investigate the relationships between advertising utility and existing behavioral measures of advertising effects. Primary among these should be sales. Relational data on advertising utility ratings and sales achievements should be collected along with similar data on other behavioral measures of advertising effects to evaluate the relative predictive power of this new measure. Predictive power can also be bolstered by incorporating exogenous variables like demographics, product usage, and/or media usage into the regression equation to achieve higher multiple correlations with utility. The choice of which variables to include can be guided simply by their contribution to the prediction of the criterion.¹⁰

The second main function the theory may serve is explanation. In contrast to prediction, where the primary emphasis is on practical application, explanation focuses on understanding the phenomenon.¹¹ The main efforts in this area will require further studies of advertising utility itself and this construct's relationship to existing theoretical networks of advertising effects. With respect to the former, an immediate concern is the role of "believability" in consumer evaluations of advertising utility.

Intuitively, the believability of an advertisement seems necessarily linked to its utility. If the data are to be taken at face value, however, the interpretation to be drawn is that consumers do not distinguish among advertisements based on whether or not they believe them. This may mean one of three things: (1) consumers do not think about believability when considering advertisements; (2) consumers think all advertisements are believable; or (3) consumers think no advertisements are believable. Neither of the first two options appears plausible. The likely and troubling explanation is probably closest to the third implying that consumers, recognizing the intent of all advertisements is to sell, do not expect to be supplied with believable information. This interpretation is supported by data from surveyed consumers in the present study whose overall mean rating on believability was 7.00 on the 11-interval positive-to-negative scale, by far the most negatively rated attribute of those studied. (The overall mean ratings for the other variables were as follows: utility - 3.70, relevance - 4.82, intelligibility - 4.99, annoyance - 5.18, and enjoyment - 5.63.) To study the role of believability, future research will require manipulation of this variable and measurement of its effects using controlled designs.

The larger issue for future explanatory research will require examination of advertising utility within a causal network of advertising effects. Statistical approaches to

causal analyses, like path analysis, cannot be used to discover causes but can be used to test theoretically defined causal processes.¹² As Sewall Wright, the founder of path analysis, explained, "It is intended to combine the quantitative information given by the correlations with such qualitative information as may be at hand on causal relations to give a quantitative interpretation."¹³

As the discussion at the outset of this chapter suggested, advertising utility may serve as an anchor variable upon which existing networks of advertising effects may be attached. In the effort to understand how utility explains advertising effects, assistance may come from "functionalist" theory. Functional analysis is concerned with examining those consequences of social phenomena which affect the normal operation, adaptation, or adjustment of a given system of individuals, subgroups, societies or cultures.¹⁴

The notion that advertising should be evaluated in terms of the uses (or functions) it serves for consumers places the present research within the functionalist tradition which views one consequence of a communications activity as the satisfaction of users' needs.¹⁵ Specifically, this research supports the study of advertising within a "uses and gratifications" paradigm which has concentrated on investigating the extent to which certain personal needs are fulfilled by one or another of the communications media.¹⁶

A typology of audience uses of the media suggested by McQuail¹⁷ contains both of the dimensions that advertising utility theory posits are of major concern to consumers when they evaluate advertising. The framework included the following four uses: (1) information; (2) personal identity; (3) integration and social interaction; and (4) entertainment. For each, there is sufficient empirical evidence to indicate that it represents one element in the general pattern of motivation supporting audience behavior with respect to the mass media.¹⁸ In some measure, this study supplies evidence that information and entertainment are the two major audience uses of advertising.

The third application of advertising utility theory concerns intervention, or, in other words, how can the theory be applied to modify advertising to heighten its utility for consumers and its effectiveness for businesses? These issues are the subjects of the two final research questions treated individually later in this chapter.

Are the Determinants of Advertising Utility Measurable?

Results of confirmatory factor analyses indicated that nine of the ten hypothesized independent variables, as well as the dependent variable, could be scaled with sufficient reliability and validity. The regression analyses indicated that eight of these variables

(combined into five) are significant predictors of advertising utility and that, together, they form a reasonably powerful and parsimonious explanation for consumer responses. Thus, the question of whether there are measurable determinants of advertising utility can be answered affirmatively.

The five determinants of utility uncovered in this study--relevance, intelligibility, believability, enjoyment, and annoyance--offer both practical and interesting opportunities to "diagnose" evaluations of advertising unavailable using more commonly-employed general measures of attitudes and preferences.

For example, analysis of utility ratings of the advertisements administered to experimental groups 1-4 permit a number of distinctions helpful in explaining how consumers arrived at evaluations of each advertisement. Table 45 contains the mean ratings for each experimental advertisement on utility and the five predictor variables.

Note first that the higher an advertisement scored on utility, the higher it was rated on the other five attributes, as would be expected since utility is a function of these attributes. Looking at relevance, both the camera and department store advertisements scored much higher on this attribute than either the soft drink or feminine hygiene advertisements. The camera ad, describing a technologically-advanced product with multiple features accounting for its performance, contained information

Table 45
Comparative Evaluations of Experimental Advertisements

Advertisement	Mean Ratings*					
	Utility	Relevance	Intelligib	Believabil	Enjoyment	Annoyance
Canera	1.18	3.75	3.46	3.56	3.62	8.48
Soft Drink	2.53	7.55	3.52	5.15	3.69	7.31
Feminine Hygiene	4.60	8.58	5.81	5.87	7.25	5.93
Department Store	2.41	3.82	3.53	4.79	6.80	7.35

* Responses to utility based on scale ranging from -2.0 (most useful) to 9.0 (least useful). Responses to independent variables based on 11-interval scale where 1 = highest possible rating and 11 = lowest possible rating.

respondents considered relevant. Performance here was likely bolstered by the ad's 90-second length, a longer than usual amount of time which afforded the advertiser the opportunity to communicate the necessary information. The department store ad, though only 30 seconds in length, was of the "talking-head" variety using a rational appeal via an announcer who explained the store's policy of purchase guarantees. The message here was brief and to the point and concerned a specific issue relevant to store customers.

In contrast, the soft drink and feminine hygiene ads contained far less relevant information. It is debatable whether there is much relevant to say about most soft drinks today except for those that do or do not contain additives of interest to consumers. The particular beverage ad in this case made no attempt to communicate any relevant information but employed the common approach of associating

consumption of the beverage with a pleasurable experience. (In this case, the protagonist, a male pop-singer, was surrounded by several adoring females who assisted him in partaking of the advertised brand!) The feminine hygiene ad, in the customary respect for network standards of decency in matters of this kind, employed a serious spokeswoman who said absolutely nothing while managing to talk for 30 seconds!

The preceding description underscores the important role that relevance plays in explaining utility. The large and easily interpretable differences in information relevance between advertisements makes this a very useful measurement criterion.

Of the four advertisements, only the feminine hygiene ad differed markedly on intelligibility. As with relevance, the advertiser of this personal hygiene product so delicately handled discussion of the product's inherent benefits that the meaning of the ad was seriously compromised. Interestingly, the other three ads, for very different products, nevertheless managed in a similarly effective manner to clearly communicate their intended meanings. Though constraints to the marketing of certain products may inhibit the clarity with which advertisers communicate, they should be well-advised that such practices can limit the utility of their advertising.

Believability ratings tended to follow similar patterns as did those for relevance and annoyance which obscured its

unique influence. That is, the most believable ad (camera) was also the most relevant and least annoying, while the least believable ad (feminine hygiene) was also the least relevant and most annoying. While this study did not permit a clear description of the unique influence of believability, this criterion still has a fairly strong influence on how useful an ad is perceived to be. The data clearly demonstrate that the most believable ad was perceived as the most useful while the least believable ad was the least useful. Again, alternative scaling approaches should be attempted in future research to accurately measure the role of this criterion.

The ratings on enjoyment indicate large differences amongst the four advertisements. The camera and soft drink ads were both perceived as very enjoyable while the feminine hygiene and department store ads were not. Apart from the clear differences among ads and the importance these differences play in utility ratings, is the finding that an informative ad can also be very enjoyable. The camera ad managed not only to impart relevant, intelligible, and believable information, it did so in a manner subjects found enjoyable as well. Previous research has argued that informative commercials represent a "distinct commercial type" tending not to be "entertaining" or "warm."¹⁹ While this may be the case generally, results here indicate there is no inherent reason why advertising must be "either/or"; moreover, possessing both these characteristics together

leads to increased perceptions of utility. It is not illogical to assume, furthermore, that ads which are both informative and enjoyable are likely to be more effective than those which manage to be only one or the other. This, of course, is an important issue for further research.

Finally, annoyance ratings indicate that consumers were irritated by the nebulous character of the feminine hygiene ad. This probably resulted from the oblique copy approach, leading to a reaction Bauer and Greyser characterized as "Do they really expect me to believe this?"²⁰ In addition, the personal nature of the subject matter was offensive to certain subjects who indicated they would prefer such products not be advertised at all. The least annoying commercial, the camera ad, happened to be an award-winning spot combining visually exciting special effects and detailed but understandable copy delivered in an impassioned tone by a credible actor. Any direct inverse relationship one might expect between annoyance and enjoyment was dispelled by evaluations of the soft drink ad which was simultaneously judged as both annoying and enjoyable. A possible explanation is that commercials associating product use with lifestyles perceived as unrealistic or unattainable evoke ambivalent responses from consumers who enjoy what they see but are annoyed as they realize such hedonistic behavior is beyond their grasp. Lastly, in regard to the department store ad, respondents evaluated the straight-talk approach, though inoffensive in and of itself, as annoying,

perhaps representing their wish that such commercials make greater efforts to be entertaining.

The practical benefit in measuring each determinant of utility is that causes of consumer utility evaluations can be individually examined. Practitioners may use these criteria as measures of how their advertisements will perform and as a means for distinguishing among alternative campaign executions. Academics may study these variables within larger contexts to explain advertiser and consumer behavior as well as the consequences differing levels have on other behavioral measures.

Is the Information-Entertainment Taxonomy Valid?

The validity of the two-dimensional taxonomy for advertising utility is supported by two specific findings. First, the regression analysis indicated that relevance, intelligibility, and believability, criteria measuring the adequacy of information, were significant predictors of utility along with enjoyment and annoyance which are criteria measuring entertainment value. Together these variables support the theory that consumers consider utility to be a function of both informativeness and entertainment value. Second, the two-way ANOVA results from both groupings in the experiment supply additional evidence that the dimensions are strong independent predictors of consumer valuations of utility. Both dimensions demonstrated

significant main effects while the interaction in each case was insignificant. The predicted patterning in mean utility scores for the experimental advertisements is evident in Table 46.

Table 46
Cell Means for Advertising Utility*

Groups 1-4		Groups 5-8					
		Informativeness				Informativeness	
		High	Low			High	Low
Entertainment	High	1.18 (1)	2.53 (2)	Entertainment	High	.55 (5)	1.52 (6)
	Low	2.41 (4)	4.50 (3)		Low	2.29 (8)	3.70 (7)

* Possible values for utility using the standardized equation range from approximately -2.0 to 9.0 where -2.0 = highest possible score and 9.0 = lowest possible score. Numbers in parentheses are group numbers, where: (1) camera, (2) soft drink, (3) feminine hygiene, (4) department store, (5) computer, (6) soft drink, (7) feminine hygiene, and (8) food store.

The results clearly demonstrate that utility was highest when an advertisement was both informative and entertaining, lowest when an advertisement was neither informative nor entertaining, and moderate when an advertisement was either informative or entertaining.

The conceptually simple nature of the taxonomy should enhance its practical value. In a given marketing communications context, practitioners considering the proper balance their advertising should strike between informativeness and entertainment will benefit from the knowledge that to be most useful, their advertising should be both informative and entertaining. William Bernbach emphasized the latter when he said, "The facts are not

enough...don't forget that. Shakespeare used some pretty hackneyed plots, yet his message came through with great execution."²¹ Speaking in support of the former, Adolph Ochs noted, "Advertising in the final analysis should be news. If it is not news it is worthless."²² This study demonstrated that both men were only partially correct.

The challenge for the copywriter is to search for creative strategies that optimize an advertisement's performance on both dimensions while operating within the constraints of the product marketing context. Putting aside for now the challenge confronting any effort to create a message that is both lucid as well as compelling, each product situation will possess an inherently unique set of circumstances presenting both obstacles and opportunities.

As always, the marketer of a truly superior product has real information to communicate and can easily discern what Leo Burnett called the "inherent drama," or the thing about the product that makes people buy it.²³ This was successfully accomplished by the advertisers of both the camera and the computer in this study. For parity products, represented here by the soft drink advertisements, the now common approach is to focus on entertainment and assume that consumers will buy the product if its advertising is entertaining. This one-dimensional strategy subjects such products to rapid wearout, as occurs for all entertainment without substance, or leaves them vulnerable to competitor offers since brand loyalty is predicated on a product's

ability to offer a tangible consumer benefit. The chief obstacle facing the copywriter for a parity product (and ultimately the advertiser if the copywriter is unsuccessful) is to uncover something in the brand's make-up that can be communicated to consumers in a manner that will convince them it offers a clear practical benefit. Here, advertisers walk the fine line between relevance and annoyance. If the benefit is "manufactured," consumers will perceive it as a mere contrivance and be annoyed by the advertiser's attempt to suggest otherwise.

By linking these two major dimensions to utility, this study goes beyond previous efforts because it adopts a "predictive" rather than merely a "descriptive" approach to consumer evaluations. Previous research describing consumer reactions to advertising has simply cataloged a variety of factors that represent components of viewer perceptions or attitudes. Studies by Aaker and Bruzzone,²⁴ Wells et. al,²⁵ Leavitt,²⁶ and Schlinger,²⁷ have generated a laundry list of factors labelled variously as: entertainment, personal relevance, dislike, warm, energetic/amusing, sensual, novel, familiar, authoritative, relevant news, alienation, empathy, confusion, and brand reinforcement. These factors simply confirm that people react in various cognitive and affective ways to advertising just as they react to any form of communication. In defining utility as the operative criterion, and informativeness and entertainment as its main dimensions, this study assumed there are principle functions

advertising serves for consumers and that consumer reactions are more constructively studied in relation to how they bear on these functions.

An Index of Advertising Utility

In Chapter 1, creating an index of advertising utility was advanced as a means of improving the expertise with which consumers evaluate advertising to which they are exposed. Given the positive results of the study, it is now possible to discuss several of the practical issues involved in creating and implementing such a system. The two main stages of indicator development can be referred to as "conceptual development" and "data development."²⁸

Conceptual Development

In other areas where indicators have been applied, conceptual development involved specification of abstract notions, like health, employment, security, and environment, into concrete and, in principle, quantifiable entities.²⁹ The concepts adopted were expressions of general "end-values" derived from judgments as to what is of intrinsic value.³⁰ Such end-values included subjective well-being, quality of life, and equity. In each case, the value-judgments on which concepts are based should be

explicitly stated so they can be exposed to critical examination.³¹ The intrinsic value argued for in this research is the utilitarian notion that advertising should lead to the greatest possible balance of good consequences for consumers, in other words, consumer satisfaction.

Having proposed an end-value, an indicator or series of indicators is derived to serve as a measure or measures of its achievement.³² To explain and ultimately influence progress toward that goal requires an explicit or implicit causal model.³³ The "contributory variables" in such a model may serve as individual indicators which may or may not be manipulable for certain purposes.³⁴

In cases like unemployment, poverty, and health, major definitional problems occurred since there was no consensus on what constituted these entities.³⁵ Furthermore, when indicators are used as a basis for optimizing important public policy decisions, political debates necessarily become a part of the adoption process.³⁶

A significant first step toward developing a causal model for advertising utility can be reasonably reported. Of course, additional research discussed earlier will be required to improve the model. Yet, in relation to whatever forthcoming debate on its validity may ensue, there are several reasons why the adoption process will not be as long as was the case for other more ambitious efforts at social accounting.

An index measuring the utility of advertising is

conceived first to be a measure of use to anyone interested in broad systematic evaluations of how advertising is evaluated by consumers. For this purpose, an index based on the causal model as currently specified can be defended with strong evidence of both the validity of the theory and of four of the five contributory variables. Furthermore, adoption will not require large-scale governmental or private sector financing, but will be spurred instead by consumerists who seek some means of evaluating advertising and by media suppliers who endeavor to cater to these interests by publishing results. Although public attitudes toward advertising have been surveyed for over 50 years,³⁷ there has been little systematic replication, a well-documented gap in advertising research.³⁸

By addressing this need, the proposed index is likely to benefit by speedier adoption. Organizations which regularly poll citizens' attitudes on various issues, and some which specifically investigate consumer attitudes toward advertising, may be interested in integrating the scale developed to measure advertising utility into their periodic data collection activities. One example is The Roper Organization, a Starch INRA Hooper Company, which employs a multiple-item scale measuring consumer attitudes for and against various advertising-related issues. Results are published as supplements to the organization's periodical, The Public Pulse.³⁹

Regardless of the length of the adoption process, the

importance of developing a sound concept on which measures can be based should remain a priority. There are examples of indicators which proceeded without the requisite theoretical basis because the data were conveniently available or because they served some administrative function.⁴⁰ A critical measure of the appropriateness of the indicator concept is whether it relates to the purpose of the analysis.⁴¹ In selecting utility as the concept for evaluating advertising, this research has expressed the concern that much advertising is not as useful as it could be and has, therefore, defined the issue in a manner relevant to the problem. If consumer cynicism toward advertising is caused by its lack of utility (an issue deserving of further research), there will be increased chances of widespread agreement on whether its presence in advertising is good or bad, a necessary requirement for a useful concept.⁴²

Data Development

Data collection and reporting must reflect the nature of the concept.⁴³ Since advertising utility is defined as a measure of consumer satisfaction, "subjective data" from consumers must be collected. Differing procedures for data collection offer inherently different degrees of reliability, bias, costs, and speed of obtaining results. When decisions of importance are based on indicator results

and the costs of errors are large, high reliability is critical.⁴⁴ Also, the adoption and continued use of any indicator leads to escalating demands for detail, reliability and timeliness.⁴⁵ This section will address several data development issues considered important for the eventual implementation of an index of advertising utility: (1) data collection method; (2) sampling; (3) developing norms; (4) aggregation; (5) time period; and (6) other implementation issues.

Data Collection Method

The three alternative methods commonly employed to collect time-series data from consumers are face-to-face, mail, and telephone surveys. Each approach, though not homogeneous by any means, tends to be suited for particular purposes. No specific method is recommended here but each is discussed in relation to the benefits it will potentially afford future data collection efforts. To systematically evaluate each method on a range of performance characteristics, the comparative study of these methods by Dillman⁴⁶ is employed. Table 47 summarizes Dillman's evaluations of each method's performance on a selected range of performance characteristics. His evaluations have been adapted for the purposes here by devising weights for each performance characteristic to reflect its importance for future data collection for the advertising utility index.

The first performance category is "sample representativeness." If the index measure is to be a valid representation of consumer opinions, obtaining a representative sample will be very important. Selection criteria for deriving survey samples will need to be specified. Several populations are likely to be of interest: the general public, demographically-defined subgroups within the general population, and specialized populations. Results of surveys of the general population will be used to calculate index measures of general public attitudes intended for publication by media attracting a general audience. Surveys of specific demographic subgroups and/or specialized audiences like regulators will be of interest to practitioners and/or academics who wish to comparatively evaluate utility ratings among various sub-groups. Face-to-face interviewing generally performs better than either mail or telephone methods for ensuring sample representativeness. For specialized audiences, however, where all population members are listed in directories, telephone surveys offer similarly efficient means of ensuring representativeness. Due to the self-administered nature of mail surveys, this method does not offer similar control over selection of specific respondents or response rates, nor does it offer simple means of avoiding unknown bias in the results from refusals to complete the survey.

The next category concerns the design of the survey.

Table 47
Comparative Evaluation of Survey Methods

Performance Characteristics	Importance Weighting	Method		
		Face-to-Face	Mail	Telephone
I. Sample Representativeness		(51)	(36)	(48)
A. Opportunity for all members of population to be included in the sample.				
(i) Completely listed populations.	3	3	3	3
(ii) Populations not completely listed (e.g., household occupants).	3	3	2	2
B. Control over selection of respondents within sampling units.	3	3	2	3
C. Response rates; (i) General public.	3	3	2	3
(ii) Specialized samples (e.g., practitioners, regulators).	2	3	3	3
D. Likelihood unknown bias from refusals will be avoided.	3	3	1	3
II. Questionnaire Design		(21)	(13)	(16)
A. Allowable length.	1	3	2	2
B. Allowable complexity.	2	3	2	1
C. Success with open-ended questions.	1	3	1	3
D. Success in avoiding item non-response.	3	3	2	3
III. Accuracy		(8)	(20)	(13)
A. Likelihood that social desirability bias can be avoided.	3	1	3	2
B. Likelihood that interviewer distortion can be avoided.	3	1	3	2
C. Likelihood that consultation will be obtained when needed.	1	2	2	1
IV. Administrative Requirements		(10)	(28)	(24)
A. Likelihood personnel requirements can be met.	3	1	3	3
B. Speed of implementation.	1	1	1	3
C. Costs; (i) Potential for low interview costs.	3	1	3	2
(ii) Insensitivity of costs to increasing geographical dispersion.	3	1	3	2
TOTAL RATING		90	97	101

Adapted from Don A. Dillman, Mail and Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1978). Evaluations of each method on each performance characteristic should be interpreted as follows: 3 = high; 2 = medium; and 1 = low. Importance weightings of each performance characteristic should be interpreted as follows: 3 = very important; 2 = important; and 1 = not very important.

In its current format, the utility scale requires under ten minutes to complete and is comprised wholly of closed-ended questions. For these reasons, length constraints and the need for open-ended questions are not considered very important. The 11-interval scales employed to measure response to utility-related items are probably too complex to be adequately administered via telephone, though reduction to standard five-interval likert scales could be accomplished easily without serious compromises made to the reliability of the instrument. Avoiding item non-response is very important and either face-to-face or telephone methods are superior to mail for this purpose.

Accuracy of results is also very important if the survey is to yield valid indicator measures. On social desirability bias and interviewer distortion, the mail technique is superior to either face-to-face or telephone approaches since it is self-administered. Respondents to the utility scale, owing to its straightforward nature, are not likely to require consultation with others so this characteristic is not considered very important.

Administratively, personnel and cost requirements for face-to-face interviews are high and probably unnecessary in view of the length and nature of the survey. With appropriate planning, speed will not be a very important issue since data collection at yearly intervals is recommended (see Timing section). Nevertheless, telephone surveys are the fastest to complete,⁴⁷ while mail surveys

usually require approximately eight weeks.⁴⁸ On the other hand, collecting national samples is more costly via telephone than mail.

In sum, either telephone or mail survey methods offer suitable characteristics for collecting data for the index series. Unnecessarily high costs would be involved using face-to-face interviews. In terms of accuracy and administrative demands, mail surveys are slightly preferable to telephone, while telephone offers more representative sampling and is slightly more appropriate in view of the design of the survey. The decision of which to employ will depend upon future financing and institutionalization factors.

Sampling

Sample quality is dependent on the nature and application of the research.⁴⁹ For surveys of the general public, on which indicator measures will be based, a useful referrent is the Gallup Poll which has reported on U.S. presidential elections and major public issues as they arise. The sample Gallup employs consists of 1500 adults selected from 320 locations, using area sampling methods.⁵⁰ Election predictions, when compared to actual results, indicate general accuracy in the sample.⁵¹

The appropriate universe for the general survey is the total adult population of the United States. For attitudes

on public issues, the minimum age is usually 18 and ordinarily there is no maximum age.⁵² Systematic sampling from local directories, using an appropriate sampling interval and a random start, will yield precision similar to simple random samples.⁵³ Local telephone directories may be used or lists published by R.L. Polk and Company (6400 Monroe Boulevard, Taylor, Michigan 48180). For specialized populations, appropriate membership directories should be consulted.

With respect to sample size, a review of samples used in several hundred studies indicates that for national studies of public attitudes, samples of 1000 or more persons are usually employed.⁵⁴ For the general survey, where interest is in how the total population evaluates advertising utility, 1000 or more subjects is desirable. For future studies comparing how various subgroups evaluate utility, sample sizes of the sub-groups of interest should be equal to minimize the standard error of the difference.⁵⁵ Sample sizes employed are influenced by the perceived importance of the research, uncertainty about the results, availability of prior research, and the needs of the granting agency involved. These will merit further consideration as this research advances to the practical proposal-writing stage.

Developing Norms

To effectively communicate the results of consumer responses to the utility scale, norms for these responses will need to be derived. Normative standards for utility should be based on data from representative groups of consumers. There will also be differing standards for advertising in different media as well as advertising for different products. Media vary in their inherent capacities for informing and entertaining which will translate into differing normative standards for advertising utility in these media. As for products, some require advertising with little information and lots of entertainment while others rely mostly on information with comparatively less attention given to entertainment. Much additional study will be required to derive appropriate norms for advertising utility in these specific areas.

Attention should also be paid to how statistics are reported so that results can be clearly and accurately communicated. Which particular measures are reported as well as graphic portrayal of results are important issues to be decided upon in the future. It will also be necessary to transform the scale into meaningful increments so that results will be understandable to consumers and other users. For time series data, utility ratings for the base period may be set at 100 with additional measures represented as a proportion of the initial measures multiplied by 100.

By way of example, mean ratings on utility and its

predictors for the experimental advertisements in this study are compared with the ratings of advertising in general derived from the mall-intercept data. Note again, that the convenience sample on which these statistics are based is not intended to yield generalizable results. Results are presented here only to demonstrate one appropriate format for communicating them. The following graphs (Figures 8-13) indicate that clear differences are evident between how advertising is generally perceived and how individual advertisements are perceived on specific utility-related criteria. Data have been recoded for these graphs so that higher ratings of each variable are represented by higher numbers. Strategies reflected in individual advertisements likely reflect general approaches by advertisers within the product categories to which they belong. Measures based on category-specific advertising will enable consumers to comparatively evaluate utility for the advertising of different products.

The horizontal line across each graph represents the mean rating on that criterion for advertising in general derived from the mall-intercept data. Notice that for each criterion consumers tended to evaluate advertising in general lower than the experimental subjects evaluated specific advertisements to which they were exposed. This signifies that a person's overall attitude toward advertising is more negative than his or her evaluations of one specific advertisement. This may be due to the fact

Figure 8
Comparative Relevance Ratings

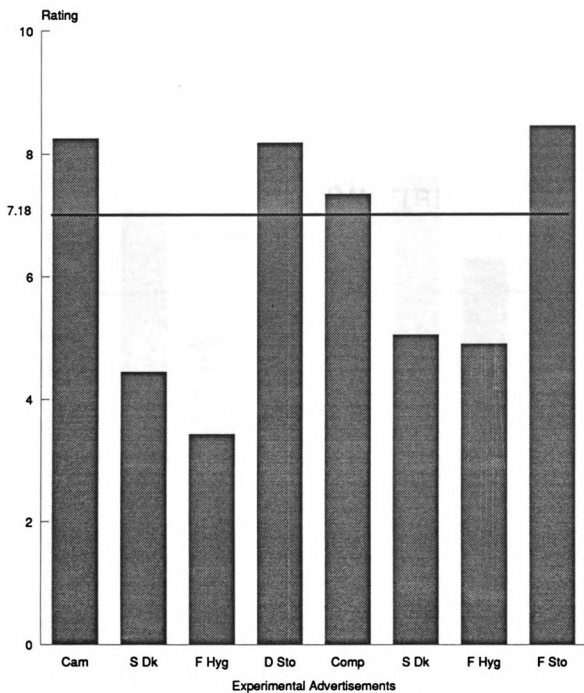


Figure 9
Comparative Intelligibility Ratings

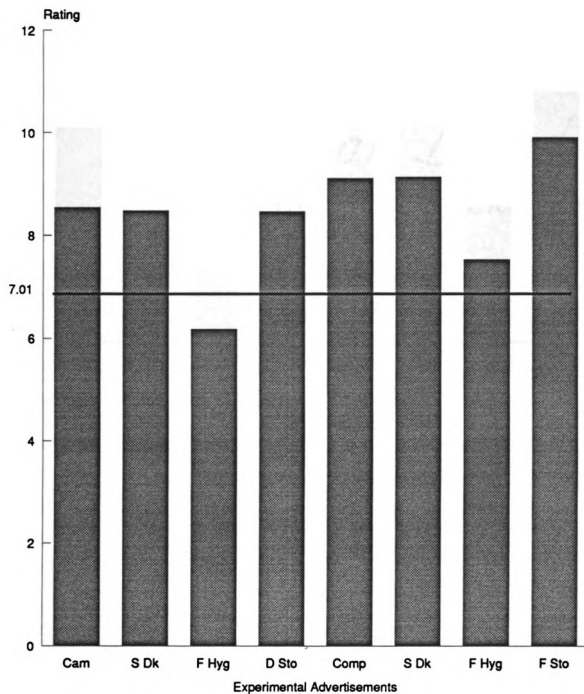


Figure 10
Comparative Believability Ratings

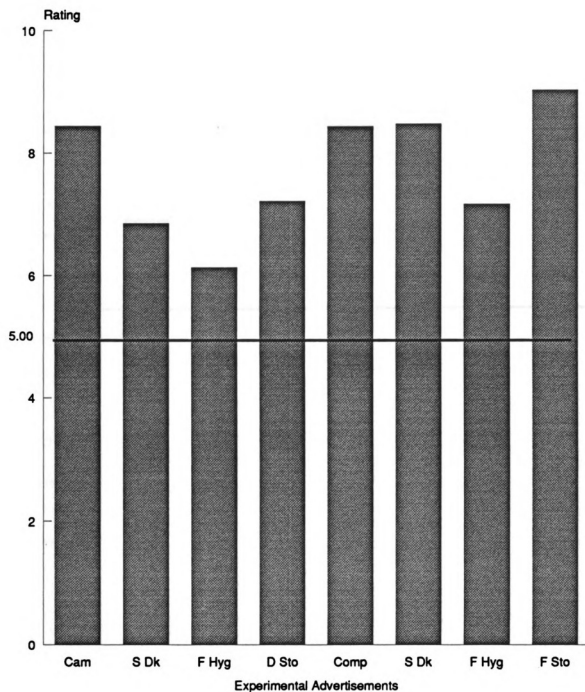


Figure 11
Comparative Enjoyment Ratings

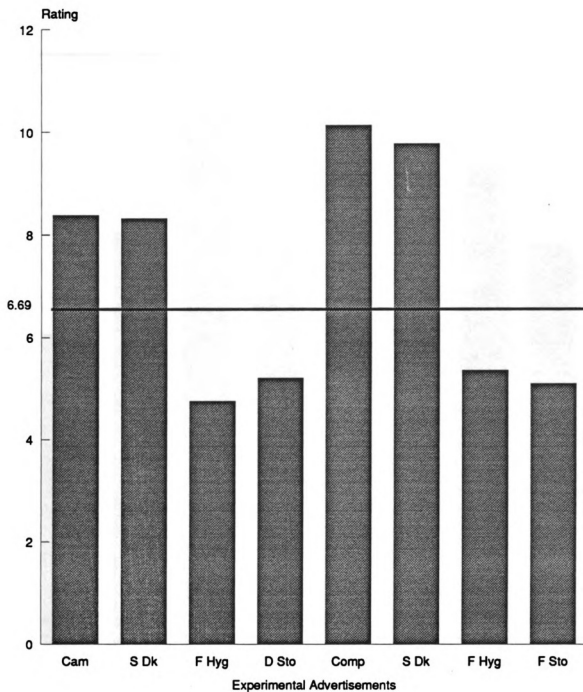


Figure 12
Comparative Annoyance Ratings

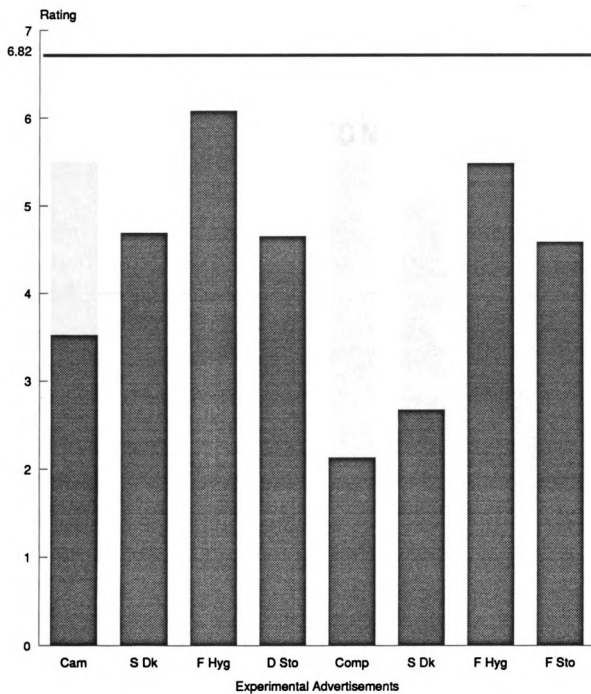
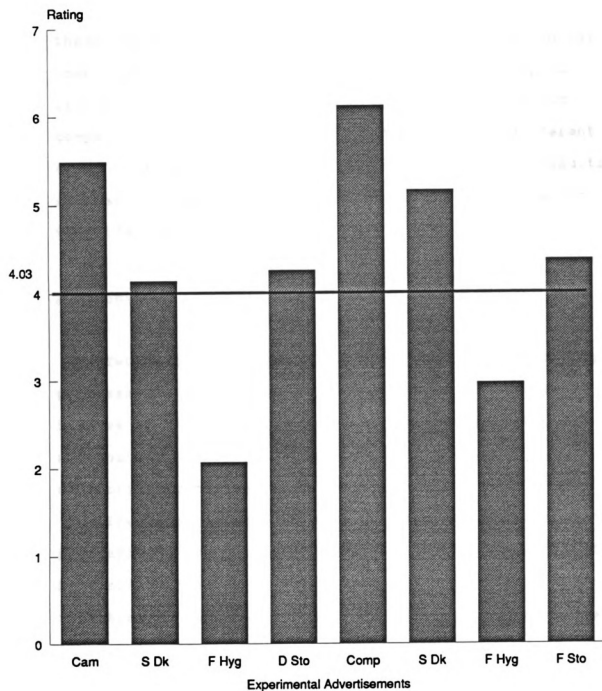


Figure 13
Comparative Utility Ratings



that experimental subjects viewed ads in artificial circumstances where they neither interrupted programming nor were repeated sufficient times to be annoying.

It should also be noted, that the samples on which these comparisons are based are not equivalent which may have distorted these comparisons somewhat. By way of illustration, however, they indicate that interesting comparisons on utility and its antecedents for different types of advertising are possible from the data. Results similar to these should be considered for incorporation into the index series.

Aggregation

Two methods of aggregating data for index reporting purposes are recommended: (1) aggregation to calculate indexes of advertising utility in general; and (2) aggregation by product category to calculate category-specific indexes.

The general index will be the most appropriate means of portraying a broad public reaction to advertising utility. As a single number, it will be easy for news organizations reporting on the state of the economy or on social issues to incorporate it into periodic reviews of the state of society. Importance of such measures of public attitudes was noted by Bauer and Greyser when they commented that,

...the inadequacy of data on trends on overall attitudes, and the general importance which so many people...attach to the impact of advertising on our lives certainly suggest the desirability of one or more institutions inaugurating a continuing series of measurements...⁵⁶

General measures of the performance of institutions, owing to their simplicity, usually attract widespread attention. If the index is to generate increased interest in advertiser performance, such attention will be beneficial.

Reporting utility ratings for specific product categories will be the most efficient means of supplying consumers with practical yardsticks to aid them in forming judgments about specific advertisements to which they are exposed on a daily basis. Again, Bauer and Greyser noted the importance of such data since products have direct effects on the nature of advertisements and campaigns.⁵⁷ Their investigation of consumer attitudes toward 78 different product categories,⁵⁸ as well as the study by Aaker and Norris,⁵⁹ demonstrate that wide differences among categories exist. Furthermore, such data are intricately related to consumers' interest and use of products⁶⁰ and will, therefore, provide valuable information for further research into campaign effectiveness and consumer behavior in specific contexts.

Time Period

Two alternative approaches to timing of data collection surveys are recommended. The first approach would be conducting a large annual survey of general attitudes and attitudes toward a selected number of product categories. The second approach would be spreading data collection over yearly intervals by conducting the general survey and then surveys of each product category at separate times. To meet minimum sample requirements referred to earlier, each sample should include 1000 or more respondents and all should be similar in size to ensure comparability. Depending on the number of product categories included, overall sample requirements would probably range from 20,000 to 50,000 annually.

From a design standpoint, the one-shot annual survey would better control for short-term "historical effects" that might distort consumer attitudes from their norms under more mundane circumstances.⁶¹ Events that might occur during the period in which samples are being collected for various product categories over time could abnormally influence estimates for certain samples and thereby invalidate inter-category comparisons.

Of course, this same threat to internal validity will exist for longitudinal data on which annual comparisons will be made. Other drawbacks of time series data include multicollinearity, the tendency of series to move together

in the same trends even though their association is spurious, and violations of the *ceteris paribus* assumptions which require that differential periods of time are homogeneous.⁶² The usual suggestion for dealing with these problems is to collect cross-sectional data. Techniques for combining cross-sectional and time series data are discussed by Walters.⁶³

Administratively, the one-shot approach requires a larger temporary organization while the lagged alternative could be managed by a smaller permanently-employed staff.

Other Implementation Issues

A number of other practical issues concern institutionalization of data development procedures for the indicator series. These are discussed by De Neufville as guidelines that enhance the likelihood that an index will be successfully implemented⁶⁴ and are listed below.

1. The concept of the measure meshes with a public perception, whether it changes the perception or is changed by it.

2. The agencies that collect and manipulate the data are respected and not subject to immediate political control.

3. Long-term financing and regular production of measures can be depended upon.

4. The data are presented in a nonpolitical

(non-biased) context.

5. There are informed, active interest groups who use and support continuance of the data series.

6. The media and the public are conscious of the measure's existence and its role.

7. There are processes established and followed for orderly change in concepts and methods.

8. The indicator is tied into particular programs as a criterion for funding or a trigger for its operation.

9. The indicator is tied into the analysis and conduct of policy to which government is committed.

10. Institutional arrangements exist to use and analyze the measure in connection with policies.

Campaign Evaluation Via the Advertising Utility Scale

The importance of pretesting alternative campaign executions employing the utility scale was previously discussed as an advance means of determining how useful consumers will perceive various advertisements. This final section discusses the scale's application in evaluation research used after campaign implementation. Evaluation research generally concerns three issues: (1) Were objectives for the campaign met?; (2) What was the return on the campaign investment?; and (3) What corrective revisions can be made to future campaigns?⁶⁵

Since communication of messages is the goal of most

campaigns, evaluation research usually measures communication effects like awareness or knowledge via "recall" measures, liking via "attitude" measures, preference, and convictions or intention to purchase, as discussed in Chapter 2. Utility ratings may be integrated into such data collection activities to bolster current measures which only assess whether messages get through or consumers' attitudes about products.

Two basic evaluative approaches are commonly employed-- concurrent evaluation and post-test evaluation. Concurrent evaluation takes place while a campaign is in progress to assess how it is unfolding in the marketplace in order to make adjustments to maximize results. Post-tests endeavor to measure the final results of a campaign against preset objectives.⁶⁶

Concurrent evaluation is often conducted via coincidental telephone surveys where consumers are contacted while advertising is broadcast via television or radio.⁶⁷ Another concurrent technique is a tracking study consisting of a series of consumer interviews over the course of the campaign's duration. Telephone surveys are the most common form of tracking study though face-to-face interviews and diaries are also employed.⁶⁸ Post-tests also are conducted through diaries, face-to-face interviews, telephone surveys, and consumer panels.⁶⁹ The relative brevity of the utility scale would permit it to be administered via any of these methods.

Several companies conduct research, results of which are then syndicated and sold to clients who desire the information. A potentially effective way to disseminate utility ratings would be through adoption of the scale by one of these companies. For television, AdTel, offered by the Test Marketing Group subsidiary of SAMI-BURKE, Inc., tests advertisements under normal conditions in consumer homes. In AdTel markets, commercials are broadcast over split-cable television systems and the effectiveness of the advertising is gauged by analyzing consumer purchase data.⁷⁰ Another television service offered by Gallup & Robinson provides three basic measures of commercial impact: (1) intrusiveness of the commercial; (2) idea communication; and (3) persuasion.⁷¹ Utility could easily be added as a fourth measure.

Message evaluation in print proceeds differently. Since readers see given advertisements at widely disparate times, advance arrangements are made to insure that respondents have been exposed to the actual advertisements.⁷² Gallup & Robinson's Magazine Impact Research Service (MIRS) places a magazine in respondent homes and asks them to read the magazine the same day. The next day, telephone interviews are conducted to assess "proved name registration," "idea communication," and "favorable buying attitude."⁷³ Starch INRA Hooper conducts The Starch Impression study measuring the meaning that readers attach to given advertisements by asking readers to

relate the meanings of ads to determine how well they communicate.⁷⁴ Readex Readership Research uses mailed questionnaires to measure "reader interest" in advertisements and editorials.⁷⁵

Several other print syndication services exist which are also possible candidate organizations to target for adoption of the utility scale. Aside from syndicated services, there are also research organizations conducting customized research for specific clients as well. Since results of these studies are proprietary, they do not benefit a wide audience but initial field testing of the utility scale may proceed more easily through these more limited efforts.

ENDNOTES FOR CHAPTER 5

¹Philip Kotler, Marketing Management (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1967), p. 12.

²Alan D. Fletcher and Thomas A. Bowers, Fundamentals of Advertising Research, 3rd ed. (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1988), p. 5.

³C. H. Sandage, Vernon Fryburger, and Kim Rotzoll, Advertising Theory and Practice, 11th ed. (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1983), p. 6.

⁴Alexis S. Tan, Mass Communication Theories and Research (Columbus, Ohio: Grid Publishing, Inc., 1981), p. 79.

⁵Carl Hovland, A. Lumsdaine, and Fred Sheffield, Experiments in Mass Communication (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1949).

⁶William McGuire, "The Nature of Attitudes and Attitude Change," in G. Lindzey and E. Aronson, eds., The Handbook of Social Psychology, 2nd ed., V. 3 (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1969), pp. 136-314.

⁷Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen, Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1975).

⁸Paul Davidson Reynolds, A Primer in Theory Construction (Indianapolis: ITT Bobbs-Merrill Educational Publishing Company, Inc., 1985), p. 144.

⁹Virginia McDermott, "The Literature on Classical Theory Construction," Human Communication Research (Fall 1975):83.

¹⁰Elazar J. Pedhazur, Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1982), p. 136.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Ibid., p. 580.

¹³S. Wright, "The Method of Path Coefficients," Annals of Mathematical Statistics 5 (1934):161-215.

¹⁴Charles R. Wright, "Functional Analysis and Mass Communication," Public Opinion Quarterly 24 (1960):605-620.

¹⁵Charles R. Wright, "Functional Analysis and Mass Communication Revisited," Chapter 9 in Jay G. Blumler and Elihu Katz, eds. Current Perspectives On Gratifications Research (Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1974), p. 209.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 210.

¹⁷D. McQuail, ed., Sociology of Mass Communications (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin, 1972).

¹⁸Denis McQuail, Mass Communication Theory: An Introduction (London: Sage Publications, 1983), p. 83.

¹⁹David A. Aaker and Donald Norris, "Characteristics of TV Commercials Perceived as Informative," Journal of Advertising Research 22 (April-May 1982):65.

²⁰Raymond A. Bauer and Stephen A. Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View (Boston: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1968), p. 223.

²¹Michael L. Ray, Advertising and Communications Management (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1982), p. 276.

²²Michael Jackman, ed., The Macmillan Book of Business and Economic Quotations (New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, 1984), p. 3.

²³Dennis Higgins, The Art of Writing Advertising (Chicago: Crain Books, 1965), p. 94.

²⁴David A. Aaker and Donald E. Bruzzone, "Viewer Perceptions of Prime-Time Television Advertising," Journal of Advertising Research 21 (October 1981):15-23.

²⁵William D. Wells, Clark Leavitt, and Maureen McConville, "A Reaction Profile for TV Commercials," Journal of Advertising Research 11 (1971):11-15.

²⁶Clark Leavitt, "A Multidimensional Set of Rating Scales for Television Commercials," Journal of Applied Psychology 54 (1970):427-429.

²⁷Mary Jane Schlinger, "A Profile of Responses to Commercials," Journal of Advertising Research 19 (1979):37-46.

²⁸Henri Verwayen, "Social Indicators: Actual and Potential Uses," Social Indicators Research 14 (1984):13.

²⁹Ibid.

³⁰Duncan MacRae, Jr., Policy Indicators: Links Between Social Science and Public Debate (Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press, 1985), p. 33.

³¹Michael Carley, Social Measurement and Social Indicators (London: George Allen and Unwin, 1981), p. 54.

³²Ibid.

³³MacRae, Policy Indicators: Links Between Social Science and Public Debate, p. 33.

³⁴Ibid.

³⁵Judith Innes De Neufville, Social Indicators and Public Policy (Amsterdam: Elsevier Scientific Publishing Company, 1975), p. 121.

³⁶Peter J. Henriot, "Political Questions About Social Indicators," The Western Political Quarterly 23 (June 1970):202.

³⁷E. Zanot, "Public Attitudes Toward Advertising," in H. Keith Hunt, ed., Advertising in a New Age (Provo, Utah: American Academy of Advertising, 1981), pp. 142-146.

³⁸See: Leonard N. Reid, Herbert J. Rotfeld, and Roger D. Wimmer, "How Researchers Respond to Replication Requests," Journal of Consumer Research 9 (September 1982):216-218; Leonard N. Reid, Lawrence C. Soley, and Roger D. Wimmer, "Replication in Advertising Research, 1977, 1978, 1979," Journal of Advertising 10 (1981):3-13.

³⁹For a recent report on attitudes toward advertising, see the supplement to: The Public Pulse, V. 4, N. 6 (New York: The Roper Organization, Inc., 1989), pp. 1-8.

⁴⁰De Neufville, Social Indicators and Public Policy, p. 129.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 122.

⁴²MacRae, Policy Indicators: Links Between Social Science and Public Debate, p. 47.

⁴³De Neufville, Social Indicators and Public Policy, p. 143.

⁴⁴Ibid.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 144.

⁴⁶Don A. Dillman, Mail and Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1978).

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 67.

⁴⁸Ibid.

⁴⁹Seymour Sudman, Applied Sampling (New York: Academic Press, 1976), p. 6.

⁵⁰See: George H. Gallup, ed., The Gallup Poll: Public Opinion 1935-1971 (New York: Random House, 1972).

⁵¹Sudman, Applied Sampling, p. 6.

⁵²Ibid., p. 12.

⁵³Ibid., p. 57.

⁵⁴See: Seymour Sudman and Norman M. Bradburn, Response Effects in Surveys: A Review and Synthesis (Chicago: Aldine, 1974).

⁵⁵Sudman, Applied Sampling, p. 111.

⁵⁶Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, p. 355.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 268.

⁵⁸See: Ibid., pp. 292-293 for results.

⁵⁹See: Aaker and Norris, "Characteristics of TV Commercials Perceived as Informative," p. 64.

⁶⁰Bauer and Greyser, Advertising in America: The Consumer View, p. 268.

⁶¹Thomas D. Cook and Donald T. Campbell, Quasi-Experimentation: Design and Analysis Issues for Field Settings (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1979), p. 74.

⁶²Ralph B. D'Agostino, "Social Indicators: A Statistician's View," Social Indicators Research 1 (1975):468-469.

⁶³A. A. Walters, An Introduction to Econometrics (New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1970).

⁶⁴De Neufville, Social Indicators and Public Policy, p. 181.

⁶⁵Don E. Schultz, Dennis Martin, and William P. Brown, Strategic Advertising Campaigns, 2d ed. (Chicago: Crain Books, 1984), p. 436.

⁶⁶See: Ibid., pp. 442-445.

⁶⁷Ibid., p. 442.

⁶⁸Ibid., pp. 442-443.

⁶⁹Ibid., p. 445.

⁷⁰Fletcher and Bowers, Fundamentals of Advertising Research, pp. 192-193.

⁷¹Ibid., p. 200.

⁷²Ibid., p. 205.

⁷³Ibid., pp. 206-207.

⁷⁴Ibid., p. 212.

⁷⁵Ibid., pp. 223-226.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A. PRETEST INDEPENDENT VARIABLE SCALE

CONSUMER OPINION SURVEY

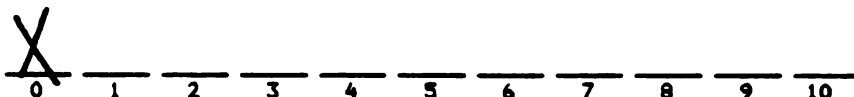
This is a survey of consumer opinions about automobile advertising. Your responses will be a part of a continuing effort to evaluate automobile advertising from the public's point of view.

The following statements refer to advertising for automobiles. When you respond to each, consider only your opinion about advertising for automobiles, not your opinion of advertising in general, or your opinion of advertising for other types of products. When you respond to each statement, think of your feelings toward automobile advertising only.

Please give your own opinion about each of these statements by placing an "X" in the space along the line that most closely reflects your feeling. For example, if your feeling is closely related to one end of the scale, mark the space closest to that end. If your feeling is neutral, or you feel that both ends of the scale are equally associated with the statement, you should mark the space in the middle of the scale. A sample statement is completed below as an example.

EXAMPLE

People spend too much time watching television.

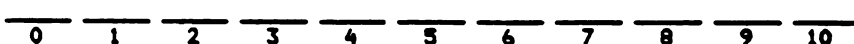
Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree

Now, please complete the survey by marking the response to each statement which most closely resembles your opinion.

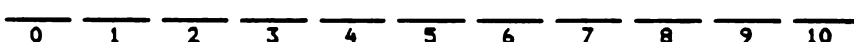
1. Automobile advertisements are deceptive.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree

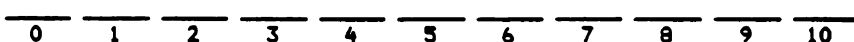
2. Automobile advertisements inform people of special one-time deals.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree

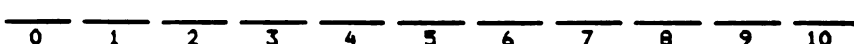
3. People pay attention to automobile advertising when they intend to purchase a car.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree

4. Automobile advertisements are amusing.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree

5. Automobile advertising should be banned.

Strongly Agree  Strongly Disagree

Please continue. . .

6. Automobile advertisements demonstrate what kinds of people buy certain cars.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Disagree

7. There is too much automobile advertising.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Disagree

8. Automobile advertisements help people make wise purchase decisions.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Disagree

9. The vocabulary used in automobile advertisements is easy to understand.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Disagree

10. Automobile advertisements are unclear.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Disagree

11. Advertising for automobiles is run when people are in the market for them.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Disagree

12. Automobile advertisements only reach people who intend to buy.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Disagree

13. Automobile advertisements supply important information.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Disagree

14. Automobile advertisements can be interpreted in several ways.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Disagree

Please continue. . .

15. Automobile advertising manipulates people.

Strongly Agree 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Strongly Disagree

16. Automobile advertisements are unwanted interruptions.

Strongly Agree 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Strongly Disagree

17. Automobile advertisements provide as much product information as possible.

Strongly Agree 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Strongly Disagree

18. Automobile advertisements tell people about products they do not need.

Strongly Agree 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Strongly Disagree

19. People see themselves as similar to persons in automobile advertisements.

Strongly Agree 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Strongly Disagree

20. Automobile advertisements imply there are differences between brands when there really are none.

Strongly Agree 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Strongly Disagree

21. The same automobile advertisements are shown too often.

Strongly Agree 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Strongly Disagree

22. Automobile advertisements leave people wishing they knew more about cars.

Strongly Agree 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Strongly Disagree

23. People do not base purchases on what automobile advertisements say.

Strongly Agree 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Strongly Disagree

Please continue. . .

24. Automobile advertisements alert people to products they need.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

25. People relate to the characters in automobile advertisements.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

26. People do not believe automobile advertisements.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

27. Automobile advertisements contain adequate information.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

28. Automobile advertising insults people's intelligence.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

29. Automobile advertisements are not boring.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

30. Automobile advertisements provide people with product information before they make purchases.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

31. Automobile advertisements present appealing images.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

32. Automobile advertising is annoying.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

Please continue. . .

33. Automobile advertisements are difficult to understand.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

34. People do not remember what automobile advertisements say when they decide to purchase cars.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

35. Automobile advertisements are not offensive.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

36. People see themselves in automobile advertisements.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

37. Important facts are left out of automobile advertisements.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

38. Automobile advertising is a good source of information on cars.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

39. Automobile advertisements remind people about products they need.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

40. Automobile advertisements show situations people can relate to.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

41. Automobile advertising should be closely regulated.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

Please continue. . .

42. Automobile advertisements tell people about cars when they need the information.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

43. Automobile advertising does not overexaggerate.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

44. Automobile advertisements do not show realistic situations.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

45. Automobile advertising persuades people to buy cars they do not want.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

46. Automobile advertisements are so unreal they are silly.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

47. People see automobile advertising for cars that do not interest them.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

48. Automobile advertisements are so alike people cannot tell one from another.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

49. Automobile advertisements give only positive information about cars.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

50. Women are often exposed to automobile advertisements for cars men buy.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

Please continue. . .

51. Automobile advertising to adolescents should be banned.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

52. The main point in automobile advertisements is made very clear.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

53. Automobile advertisements provide no real information about the cars advertised.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

54. Automobile advertising is enjoyable.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

55. Automobile advertising promotes positive values.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

56. Automobile advertisements fail to supply enough information about cars.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

57. The music in automobile advertisements is enjoyable.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

58. Automobile advertising tells the truth.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

59. Men are often exposed to automobile advertisements for cars women buy.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

60. Automobile advertisements are not confusing.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

Please continue. . .

61. Automobile advertisements provide information people want to know about cars.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

62. Automobile advertisements are not entertaining.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

63. People look for automobile advertisements before they go shopping.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

64. Automobile advertisements tell people about cars they are interested in buying.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

65. Automobile advertising appeals to people's insecurities.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

66. Automobile advertisements are pleasing.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

67. Automobile advertising is intended to deceive consumers.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

68. Automobile advertisements are too loud.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

69. Automobile advertisements lie.

Strongly Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----------------------

Please continue. . .

70. Automobile advertisements supply relevant information on cars.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Disagree

Would you now please complete a few last questions which will help us classify your responses with others who complete this survey?

71. Sex: (circle one) Male Female
72. Marital Status: (circle one) Single Married Divorced Widowed
73. Race: (circle one) White Black Oriental Hispanic Other
74. What is your occupation? _____
75. How much education have you had the opportunity to complete? (Check one)

Less than high school ()
 High school graduate ()
 Some college ()
 College graduate ()
 Graduate degree ()

76. What is your age? _____
77. What is your household income? (Check one)
- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----|
| Less than \$15,000 | () |
| Between \$15,000 and \$25,000 | () |
| Between \$25,001 and \$35,000 | () |
| Between \$35,001 and \$45,000 | () |
| Between \$45,001 and \$55,000 | () |
| More than \$55,000 | () |
78. How many automobiles have you purchased? _____
79. Of the following six sources of automobile advertising, rank each (from one to six) in terms of how useful you consider them to be. Indicate a one (1) next to the most useful source, a two (2) next to the second most useful source, etc.

Newspapers _____

Radio _____

Television _____

Magazines _____

Outdoor billboards _____

Catalogs/Direct mail _____

Thank you very much for your time!

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B. PRETEST DEPENDENT VARIABLE SCALE

THE FOLLOWING WORDS REFER TO ADVERTISING IN GENERAL. PLEASE INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH EACH WORD REFLECTS YOUR OPINIONS ABOUT ADVERTISING BY COMPLETING THE SCALE NEXT TO EACH WORD.

EXAMPLE

ADVERTISING IS.....

...REPETITIVE
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

Now, please complete the next few.

ADVERTISING IS.....

...USEFUL
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...HELPFUL
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...WORTHLESS
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...VALUABLE
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...UNNECESSARY
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...RUBBISH
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...IMPORTANT
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...INSTRUMENTAL
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...USELESS
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...BENEFICIAL
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...UNNEEDED
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

...ESSENTIAL
Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly disagree

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C. SURVEY CONSENT FORM

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF ADVERTISING

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1212

CONSENT FORM

The purpose of this study is to measure consumers' opinions about advertising. It will be part of a continuing effort to evaluate advertising from the public's point of view. The survey will take approximately ten minutes to complete.

I, _____, understand that
(please print your name)
participation in this survey is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without penalty. I understand that there are no physical, psychological, or social risks involved, and that any responses that I make will remain anonymous and will be reported only in aggregate form. With the above understanding, I agree to complete this survey.

(subject's signature)

(date)

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D. SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

CONSUMER OPINION SURVEY

This is a survey of consumer opinions about advertising. Your responses will be a part of a continuing effort to evaluate advertising from the public's point of view.

The following statements refer to advertising in general. When you respond to each statement, think about advertising in general, not a single advertisement or advertising for a particular product.

Please respond to each statement by placing an "X" in the space along the line that most closely reflects your opinion. If your opinion is closely related to one end of the scale, mark a space close to that end. If your opinion is neutral, mark a space in the middle of the scale. A sample statement is completed below as an example.

EXAMPLE

Completing surveys carefully is important.

Strongly Agree	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

Now, please complete each of the following statements.

1. Advertisements are deceptive.

Strongly Agree	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

2. Advertising is important.

Strongly Agree	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

3. Advertising permits purchases to be planned ahead of time.

Strongly Agree	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

4. Advertising is irritating.

Strongly Agree	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

5. Advertising is distasteful.

Strongly Agree	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

6. There is too much advertising.

Strongly Agree	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

Please continue. . .

7. Advertisements help people make wise purchase decisions.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

8. Advertising is essential.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

9. Advertising is a convenient source of information on products.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

10. Advertising does not supply complete information on products.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

11. Advertisements supply important information about products.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

12. Advertisements are vague.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

13. Advertising manipulates people.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

14. Advertisements are unwanted interruptions.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

15. Advertising is valuable.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

16. Advertisements lie.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

Please continue. . .

17. People see themselves as similar to persons in advertisements.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

18. The same advertisements are shown too often.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

19. Advertisements are easy to understand.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

20. Advertising provides timely information on products.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

21. Advertisements are straightforward.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

22. People relate to the characters in advertisements.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

23. Advertising is useful.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

24. Advertisements contain adequate information.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

25. Advertisements insult people's intelligence.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

26. Advertisements are boring.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

Please continue. . .

27. Advertisements provide people with product information before they make purchases.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

28. The meaning of advertisements is not clear.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

29. Advertising is annoying.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

30. Advertisements are difficult to understand.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

31. Advertising is useless.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

32. Advertisements are offensive.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

33. People see themselves in advertisements.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

34. Important facts about products are left out of advertisements.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

35. Advertising is a good source of information on products.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

36. Advertisements remind people about products they need.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

Please continue. . .

37. Advertising is worthless.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

38. Advertising is misleading.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

39. Advertisements tell people about products when they need the information.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

40. Advertising is indecent.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

41. People identify with advertisements.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

42. Advertising persuades people to buy products they do not want.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

43. Advertisements are so unreal they are silly.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

44. Advertising is beneficial.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

45. Advertising is enjoyable.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

46. Advertisements do not supply enough information about products.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

Please continue. . .

47. Advertising tells the truth.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly Disagree

48. Advertisements are confusing.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly Disagree

49. Advertisements provide information people want to know about products.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly Disagree

50. Advertisements are entertaining.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly Disagree

51. People look for advertisements before they go shopping.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly Disagree

52. Advertisements are pleasing.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly Disagree

53. Advertising deceives consumers.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly Disagree

54. Advertisements are complicated.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly Disagree

55. Advertisements supply relevant information on products.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Strongly Disagree

Would you now please complete a few last questions which will help us classify your responses with others who complete this survey?

56. Sex: (circle one) Male Female

Please continue. . .

57. Marital Status: (circle one) Single Married Divorced Widowed
58. What is your occupation? _____
59. How much education have you had the opportunity to complete? (Check one)
- ☐ Less than high school ☐ High school graduate ☐ Some college
☐ College graduate ☐ Graduate degree
60. What is your age? _____
61. What is your household income? (Check one)
- ☐ Less than \$15,000 ☐ Between \$15,000 and \$25,000
☐ Between \$25,001 and \$35,000 ☐ Between \$35,001 and \$45,000
☐ Between \$45,001 and \$55,000 ☐ More than \$55,000
62. How many children do you have living in your household? _____
63. Of the following six sources of advertising, rank each (from one to six) in terms of how useful you consider them to be. Indicate a one (1) next to the most useful source, a two (2) next to the second most useful source, etc.
- Newspapers _____
 Radio _____
 Television _____
 Magazines _____
 Outdoor billboards _____
 Catalogs/Direct mail _____
64. How often do you read the newspaper? (check one)
- ☐ everyday ☐ almost everyday ☐ 2-3 times a week ☐ once a week
☐ less than once a week
65. How often do you listen to the radio? (check one)
- ☐ more than 3 hours a day ☐ 2-3 hours a day ☐ 1 hour a day
☐ a few times a week ☐ once a week or less
66. How often do you watch television? (check one)
- ☐ more than 4 hours a day ☐ 2-4 hours a day ☐ 1 hour a day
☐ a few times a week ☐ once a week or less
67. How many different magazines do you read each month? (check one)
- ☐ more than 8 ☐ 6-7 ☐ 4-5 ☐ 2-3 ☐ 1 or less
68. How often do you use catalogs to shop for products? (check one)
- ☐ very often ☐ often ☐ sometimes ☐ seldom ☐ never
69. How would you describe your overall attitude toward advertising? (check one)
- ☐ very favorable ☐ favorable ☐ neutral ☐ not very favorable
☐ very unfavorable

Thank you very much for your time!

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E. PRODUCT CATEGORY RATING QUESTIONNAIRE

THE FOLLOWING IS A LIST OF VARIOUS PRODUCT AND SERVICE CATEGORIES. COMPLETE THE TWO SCALES FOR EACH PRODUCT OR SERVICE CATEGORY BY INDICATING THE EXTENT TO WHICH, IN YOUR OPINION, ADVERTISING ASSOCIATED WITH EACH CATEGORY IS INFORMATIVE OR ENTERTAINING.

AUTOMOBILES												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
AIRLINES												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
BANKS/INVESTMENT FIRMS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
CREDIT CARDS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
BEER												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
REAL ESTATE												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
DEODORANTS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
COSMETICS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
HOUSEHOLD CLEANERS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
SOFT DRINKS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all

CIGARETTES												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
CAMERAS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
OPTICAL GOODS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
HEADACHE/PAIN REMEDIES												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
HOTELS/MOTELS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
CEREALS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
COFFEE/TEA												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
DISTILLED SPIRITS (LIQUOR)												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
WINE												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
CLOTHING												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
CAR RENTAL												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all

AUTO REPAIR/SERVICE												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
FEMININE HYGIENE												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
INSURANCE												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
HOME ELECTRONICS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
COMPUTERS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
SPORTING GOODS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
FOOD (PACKAGED AND CANNED)												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
HOME APPLIANCES												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
TOOTHPASTE												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
LAUNDRY PRODUCTS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
PET FOOD												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all

COLD REMEDIES												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
HAIR CARE												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
FAST FOOD												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
MOUTHWASH												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
FOOD WRAPS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
TELEPHONE												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
CANDY												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
HOUSEHOLD CLEANSERS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all
CONDIMENTS												
very informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not informative at all
very entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	not entertaining at all

THANK YOU!!!

APPENDIX F

Appendix F
Mean Ratings on Informativeness and Entertainment
by Product Category (PRETEST)*

Product Category	Informativeness ($\bar{x}_1$)	Entertainment ($\bar{x}_2$)
Automobiles	4.72	5.84
Airlines	5.17	6.21
Banks/Investment	4.67	8.14
Credit Cards	5.90	6.33
Beer	6.74	2.48
Real Estate	5.83	7.79
Deodorants	5.26	6.83
Cosmetics	6.19	6.50
Household Cleaners	4.79	6.55
Soft Drinks	7.02	2.59
Cigarettes	7.31	7.45
Cameras	4.53	5.86
Optical Goods	4.31	7.88
Headache/Pain Remedies	4.03	7.40
Hotels/Motels	4.79	6.12
Cereals	4.98	4.45
Coffee/Tea	5.86	6.00
Liquor	7.53	4.79
Wine	7.33	5.69
Clothing	6.79	4.62
Car Rental	4.19	5.79
Auto Repair/Service	4.55	6.93
Feminine Hygiene	5.40	9.14
Insurance	5.38	8.00
Home Electronics	4.81	6.04
Computers	4.07	6.19
Sporting Goods	5.53	4.95
Food (packaged and canned)	5.43	5.81
Home Appliances	4.78	6.52
Toothpaste	3.81	5.60
Laundry Products	4.48	5.76
Pet Food	4.84	5.45
Cold Remedies	3.95	6.24
Hair Care	4.95	6.03
Fast Food	6.10	3.05
Mouthwash	4.90	5.93
Food Wraps	5.59	6.33
Telephone	4.19	4.55
Candy	7.36	4.60
Household Cleansers	4.72	6.47
Condiments	6.02	6.05

* Mean ratings based on scales as follows: 1 = very informative and 11 = not informative at all; and 1 = very entertaining and 11 = not entertaining at all.

APPENDIX G

APPENDIX G. PRETESTS OF EXPERIMENTAL COMMERCIALS

PRETEST: EXPERIMENTAL COMMERCIALS

INSTRUCTIONS: You will be shown a number of television commercials. After each commercial is played the videotape will be stopped for several seconds to allow you to respond to two items. The first item asks for your opinion of how **INFORMATIVE** the commercial was and the second item asks for your opinion of how **ENTERTAINING** the commercial was. The same procedure will be followed for each of the commercials you will be shown.

Each commercial is identified on this handout. Underneath the sponsor of each commercial are two scales, one relating to how informative it is and one relating to how entertaining it is. If you feel a given commercial is very informative or very entertaining mark an "X" on the scale close to that side. If you feel a commercial is not informative at all or not entertaining at all, mark the appropriate scale close to the other side. If your feelings are neutral or less extreme, mark the scale closer to the middle as you feel best reflects your opinion.

Definitions:

- a. **informative:** a commercial which is informative supplies information that helps consumers evaluate the nature of a product or service.
- b. **entertaining:** a commercial which is entertaining engages your attention in an agreeable manner.

1. JEWELRY STORE

very informative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 not informative at all

very entertaining 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 not entertaining at all

2. VERNORS

very informative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 not informative at all

very entertaining 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 not entertaining at all

3. U.S. SPRINT

very informative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 not informative at all

very entertaining 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 not entertaining at all

4. DIET COKE

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

5. RIVAL ELECTRONICS

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

6. COKE CLASSIC

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

7. SPARTAN TOYOTA

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

8. COKE

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

9. CAPITOL CARWASH

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

10. COMMONWEALTH EDISON

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

11. FACT PLUS

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

12. WATERBEDS

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

13. PLAYTEX TAMPONS

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

14. PEPSI

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

15. SURE & NATURAL

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

16. MEIJER

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

17. LUMBER

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

18. FIBERCON LAXATIVE

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

19. DEPEND UNDERGARMENTS

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

20. PHILLIPS LIGHTING

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

21. SUMMER'S EVE

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

PRETEST: EXPERIMENTAL COMMERCIALS

INSTRUCTIONS: You will be shown a number of television commercials. After each commercial is played the videotape will be stopped for several seconds to allow you to respond to two items. The first item asks for your opinion of how **INFORMATIVE** the commercial was and the second item asks for your opinion of how **ENTERTAINING** the commercial was. The same procedure will be followed for each of the commercials you will be shown.

Each commercial is identified on this handout. Underneath the sponsor of each commercial are two scales, one relating to how informative it is and one relating to how entertaining it is. If you feel a given commercial is very informative or very entertaining mark an "X" on the scale close to that side. If you feel a commercial is not informative at all or not entertaining at all, mark the appropriate scale close to the other side. If your feelings are neutral or less extreme, mark the scale closer to the middle as you feel best reflects your opinion.

Definitions:

- a. **informative:** a commercial which is informative supplies information that helps consumers evaluate the nature of a product or service.
- b. **entertaining:** a commercial which is entertaining engages your attention in an agreeable manner.

1. PICWAY SHOES

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

2. TRUE VALUE HARDWARE

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

3. CAREFREE PANTY SHIELDS

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

4. APPLE COMPUTER

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

5. N.Y. CARPET

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

6. MASSENGILL DOUCHE

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

7. PEPSI

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

8. LAW FIRM

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

9. DIET COKE

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

10. ART VAN

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

11. COKE CLASSIC

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

12. WATERBEDS

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

13. PREPARATION-H

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

14. APPLE COMPUTER

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

15. ART VAN

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

16. SEVEN-UP

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

17. ACTION AUTO

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

18. SPARTAN STORES

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

19. PEPSI

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

20. POLORDID

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

21. MCI

very informative	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not informative at all
very entertaining	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	not entertaining at all

Thank you very much!!!

APPENDIX H

APPENDIX H. EXPERIMENT CONSENT FORM

GROUP # _____

CONSENT FORM

The purpose of this experiment is to measure consumers' evaluations of specific advertisements. It will be part of a continuing effort to evaluate advertising from the public's point of view. You will be asked to view a television commercial and then complete a questionnaire.

I. _____, understand that
(please print your name)
participation in this experiment is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without penalty. I understand that there are no physical, psychological, or social risks involved, and that any responses that I make will remain anonymous and will be reported only in aggregate form. With the above understanding, I agree to complete this experiment.

(subject's signature)

(date)

APPENDIX I

APPENDIX I. EXPERIMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION 1:

Please respond to each question by placing an "X" in the space along the line that most closely reflects your opinion. If your opinion is closely related to one end of the scale, mark a space close to that end. If your opinion is neutral, mark a space in the middle of the scale. A sample statement is completed below as an example.

EXAMPLE

Completing questionnaires carefully is important.

Strongly Agree	X											Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

Now, please complete the following questions.

1. How would you describe your overall attitude toward the advertisement you have just seen?

Very Favorable												Very Unfavorable
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

2. Considering the advertisement you have just seen, how would you describe its impact on your intention to purchase the product (or shop at the store) advertised?

Strong Positive Impact												Strong Negative Impact
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

Please continue on to Section 2.....

Strongly Agree **Strongly Disagree**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11

THE ADVERTISEMENT I HAVE JUST SEEN.....

6.is a convenient source of information.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

7.does not supply complete information.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

8.supplies important information.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

9.is vague.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

10.manipulates people.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

11.is an unwanted interruption.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

12.lies.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

13.portrays characters similar to actual people.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

14. is shown too often.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

THE ADVERTISEMENT I HAVE JUST SEEN.....

15. is easy to understand.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

16.provides timely information.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

17. is straightforward.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

18. portrays characters people can relate to.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

19.contains adequate information.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

20.insults people's intelligence.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

21.is boring.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

22.provides people with information before they make purchases.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

23.does not have a clear meaning.

Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----------------------

THE ADVERTISEMENT I HAVE JUST SEEN.....

24.is annoying.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

25.is difficult to understand.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

26.is offensive.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

27.permits people to see themselves.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

28.leaves out important facts.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

29.is a good source of information.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

30.reminds people about something they need.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

31.is misleading.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

32.supplies information when people need it.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

THE ADVERTISEMENT I HAVE JUST SEEN.....

33.is indecent.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

34.permits people to identify with it.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

35.persuades people to buy something they do not want.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

36.is so unreal it is silly.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

37.is enjoyable.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

38.does not supply enough information.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

39.tells the truth.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

40.is confusing.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

41.provides information people want to know.

Strongly Agree	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------------------

THE ADVERTISEMENT I HAVE JUST SEEN.....

42.is entertaining.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

43.is something people look for before they go shopping.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

44.is pleasing.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

45.deceives consumers.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

46.is complicated.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

47.supplies relevant information.

Strongly												Strongly
Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Disagree

Would you now please complete a few last questions which will help us classify your responses with others who complete this questionnaire?

48. Sex (circle one): MALE FEMALE

49. How often do you use the "kind" of product (or shop in the "kind" of store) advertised in the commercial you viewed?

Often												Never
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

50. If you use this kind of product (or shop in this kind of store), how often do you use the specific brand (or shop in the specific store) advertised in the commercial you viewed?

Often												Never
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	

SECTION 3:

Please complete the following questions by marking an "X" next to the statement that best reflects your response to each question.

1. How would you evaluate the usefulness of the advertisement you have just seen?

- ☐ Extremely useful
- ☐ Very useful
- ☐ Somewhat useful
- ☐ Not very useful
- ☐ Not useful at all

2. How would you describe your feeling about the advertisement you have just seen?

- ☐ Extremely positive
- ☐ Very positive
- ☐ Somewhat positive
- ☐ Somewhat negative
- ☐ Very negative

3. How likely are you to purchase the product (or visit the store) on the basis of the advertisement?

- ☐ I definitely will buy./I definitely will visit the store.
- ☐ I probably will buy./I probably will visit the store.
- ☐ I might buy./I might visit the store.
- ☐ I probably will not buy./I probably will not visit the store.
- ☐ I definitely will not buy./I definitely will not visit the store.

APPENDIX J

[illegible]

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aaker, David A. and Bruzzone, Donald E. "Causes of Irritation in Advertising." Journal of Marketing 49 (Spring 1985):47-57.
- Aaker, David A. and Bruzzone, Donald E. "Viewer Perceptions of Prime-Time Television Advertising." Journal of Advertising Research 21 (1981):15-23.
- Aaker, David A. and Myers, John G. Advertising Management. 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1982.
- Aaker, David A. and Myers, John G. Advertising Management. 3rd ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1987.
- Aaker, David A. and Norris, Donald. "Characteristics of TV Commercials Perceived as Informative." Journal of Advertising Research 22 (April-May 1982):61-70.
- Ackoff, Russell L. and Emshoff, James R. "Advertising Research at Anheuser-Busch Inc., (1963-68)." Sloan Management Review 16 (Winter 1975):1-15.
- Adams, Anthony J. "The Role of Research in the Future." Transcript Proceedings: Advertising 2010: The Next 25 Years. New York: Advertising Research Foundation, 1986.
- Adler, Lee; Greenberg, Alan; and Lucas, D. B. "What Do Big Agency Men Think of Copy Testing Methods?" Journal of Marketing Research 2 (November 1965):339-345.
- Albion, Mark S. and Farris, Paul W. The Advertising Controversy. Boston: Auburn House Publishing Company, 1981.
- Alter, Jennifer. "Public is Still Wary of Ads: Study." Advertising Age, June 23, 1980, pp. 3, 94.
- American Association of Advertising Agencies. "The American Association of Advertising Agencies' Response to the Federal Trade Commission's Inquiry in the Advertising Substantiation Program." New York: July 13, 1983.

- Armstrong, G. M. and Ozanne, J. L. "An Evaluation of NAD/NARB Purpose and Performance." Journal of Advertising 12 (1983):15-26, 52.
- Armstrong, Gary M. and Russ, Frederick A. "Detecting Deception in Advertising." MSU Business Topics 23 (Spring 1975):21-31.
- Assael, Henry. Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action. 3rd ed. Boston: Kent Publishing Company, 1987.
- Babbie, Earl R. The Practice of Social Research. 2nd ed. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1979.
- Babbie, Earl R. The Practice of Social Research. 3rd ed. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1983.
- Barksdale, Hiram C. and Darden, William R. "Consumer Attitudes Toward Marketing and Consumerism." Journal of Marketing 36 (October 1972):28-35.
- Barksdale, Hiram C.; Darden, William R.; and Perrault, Jr., William D. "Changes in Consumer Attitudes Toward Marketing, Consumerism and Government Regulation: 1971-1975." Journal of Consumer Affairs 10 (Winter 1976):117-139.
- Barksdale, Hiram C. and Perrault, Jr., William D. "Can Consumers Be Satisfied?" MSU Business Topics 28 (Spring 1980):19-30.
- Bartos, R. and Dunn, T. Advertising and Consumers. New York: American Association of Advertising Agencies, 1976.
- Bauer, Raymond A., ed. Social Indicators. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The M.I.T. Press, 1966.
- Bauer, Raymond A. and Greyser, Stephen A. Advertising in America: The Consumer View. Boston, Massachusetts: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1968.
- Baum, Herbert M. "Jaded Americans Won't Buy Boring Advertising Anymore." Advertising Age, July 13, 1984, p. 4.
- Bayles, Michael B., ed. Contemporary Utilitarianism. Garden City, New Jersey: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1968.

- Beauchamp, Tom L. and Bowie, Norman E., eds. Ethical Theory and Business. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1983.
- Beals, Howard; Mazis, Michael B.; Salop, Stephen C.; and Staelin, Richard. "Consumer Search and Public Policy." Journal of Consumer Research 8 (June 1981):11-22.
- Bell, H. H. "Self-Regulation by the Advertising Industry." California Management Review XVI (Spring 1974):58-63.
- Block, Timothy C. "Communicator-Recipient Similarity and Decision Change." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 1 (June 1965):650-654.
- Boddewyn, J. J. Advertising Self-Regulation and Outside Participation: A 12 Country Comparison. Westport, Connecticut: Quorum Books, 1988.
- Boorstin, Daniel J. "The Thinner Life of Things." In Wright, John S. and Mertes, John E., eds. Advertising's Role in Society. St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Company, 1974.
- Bovee, Courtland L. and Arens, William F. Advertising. Homewood, Illinois: Richard V. Irwin, Inc., 1972.
- Boyd, Jr., Harper W. and Ray, Michael L. "What Big Agency Men in Europe Think of Copy Testing Methods?" Journal of Marketing Research 8 (May 1971):219-223.
- Brandt, Michael T. and Preston, Ivan L. "The Federal Trade Commission's Use of Evidence to Determine Deception." Journal of Marketing 41 (January 1977):54-62.
- Bruning, James L. and Kintz, B. L. Computational Handbook of Statistics. 2nd ed. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1977.
- Brunk, Max E. "The Anatomy of Consumerism." Journal of Advertising 2 (1973):9-11, 46.
- Caffyn, John M. "On Methods: Psychological Laboratory Techniques in Copy Research." Journal of Advertising Research 4 (1964):44-50.
- Campbell, Donald R. and Fiske, Donald W. "Convergent and Discriminant Validation by the Multitrait-Multimethod Matrix." Psychological Bulletin 56 (1959):81-105.

- Candler, Julie. "Music Takes a Front Seat in Auto Campaigns." Advertising Age, May 5, 1986, pp. 5, 32-33.
- Carley, Michael. Social Measurement and Social Indicators. London: George Allen and Unwin, 1981.
- Central Hudson Gas & Electric Corp. v. Public Service Commission, 6 Med. L. Rept. 1497 (1980).
- Charles of the Ritz Distributors Corp. v. FTC, 143 F. 2d. 676 (2d. Cir. 1944).
- Churchill, Jr., Gilbert A., "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs." Journal of Marketing Research XVI (February 1979):64-73.
- Coen, Robert J. "Ad Spending Outlook Brightens." Advertising Age, May 15, 1989, p. 24.
- Cohen, Dorothy. "The FTC's Advertising Substantiation Program." Journal of Marketing 44 (Winter 1980):26-35.
- Cohen, Dorothy. "Remedies for Consumer Protection: Prevention, Restitution, or Punishment." Journal of Marketing 39 (October 1975):24-31.
- Cohen, Joel B. and Houston, Michael J. "Cognitive Consequence of Brand Loyalty." Journal of Marketing Research 9 (February 1972):97-99.
- Colley, Russell H. Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Advertising Results. New York: Association of National Advertisers, 1961.
- Consumer Credit Protection Act. 15 U.S.C.A. ss 1601.
- Consumer Product Warranties. Pub. L. No. 93-637, 88 Stat. 218.
- Converse, Philip. Director of the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan. Interview, 27 June 1988.
- Cook, Thomas D. and Campbell, Donald T. Quasi-Experimentation: Design and Analysis Issues for Field Settings. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1979.
- Couch, Arthur and Kenniston, Kenneth. "Yeasayers and Naysayers: Agreeing Response Set as a Personality Variable." Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 24 (August 1960):349-354.

- Cronbach, Lee J. Essentials of Psychological Testing. 2nd ed. New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1960.
- Cronbach, Lee J. and Meehl, Paul E. "Construct Validity in Psychological Tests." Psychological Bulletin 52 (May 1955):281-302.
- Cunningham, Isabella C. and Cunningham, William H. "Standards for Advertising Regulation." Journal of Marketing 41 (October 1977):92-97.
- D'Agostino, Ralph B. "Social Indicators: A Statistician's View." Social Indicators Research 1 (1975):459-484.
- De Neufville, Judith Innes. Social Indicators and Public Policy. Amsterdam: Elsevier Scientific Publishing Company, 1975.
- Dillman, Don A. Mail and Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1978.
- Durand, Richard M. and Lambert, Zarrel V. "Alienation and Criticisms of Advertising." Journal of Advertising 14 (1985):9-17.
- Edwards, Allen C. Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957.
- Ekelund, Jr., Robert B. and Saurman, David S. Advertising and the Market Process: A Modern Economic View. San Francisco, California: Pacific Research Institute for Public Policy, 1988.
- Engel, James F. and Blackwell, Roger D. Consumer Behavior. 4th ed. Chicago: Dryden Press, 1982.
- Fair Packaging and Labeling Act. 15 U.S.C.A. ss 1453.
- Federal Trade Commission Act. 15 U.S.C.A. ss 45.
- Festinger, Leon. A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1957.
- Fishbein, Martin and Ajzen, Icek. Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1975.
- Fletcher, Alan D. and Bowers, Thomas A. Fundamentals of Advertising Research. 3rd ed. Belmont, California, Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1988.

- Galbraith, J. K. The Affluent Society. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1956.
- Gallup, George H., ed. The Gallup Poll: Public Opinion 1935-1971. New York: Random House, 1972.
- Gardner, David M. "Deception in Advertising: A Conceptual Approach." Journal of Marketing 39 (January 1975):40-46.
- Gaski, John F. and Etzel, Michael J. "The Index of Consumer Sentiment Toward Marketing." Journal of Marketing 50 (July 1986):71-81.
- Gerbner, George and Gross, Larry. "Living with Television: The Violence Profile." Journal of Communication 26 (1976):173-199.
- Ghiselli, Edwin E. Theory of Psychological Measurement. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.
- Gordon, Richard L. "FTC Vote Jettisons Former Deception Policy," Advertising Age, April 2, 1984, pp. 6, 64.
- Gorovitz, Samuel, ed. Mill: Utilitarianism, with Critical Essays. New York: Bobbs-Merrill, 1971.
- Greyser, Stephen A. "Business Re Advertising: 'Yes, But....'" Harvard Business Review, May-June 1962, pp. 22-28, 141-146.
- Greyser, Stephen A. and Reece, Bonnie B. "Businessmen Look Hard at Advertising." Harvard Business Review, May-June 1971, pp. 18-26, 157-165.
- Groesbeck, K. "Testing Advertising in the Laboratory." Advertising and Selling 15 (1930):19.
- Guilford, J. P. Psychometric Methods. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., 1954.
- Henriot, Peter J. "Political Questions About Social Indicators." The Western Political Quarterly 23 (June 1970):235-255.
- Herzog, Herta M. "Is Copy Testing a Predictive Tool?" in Proceedings, Tenth Annual Conference of the Advertising Research Foundation. New York: Advertising Research Foundation, 1964, pp. 70-73.

- Higgins, Dennis. The Art of Writing Advertising. Chicago: Crain Books, 1965.
- Hirshleifer, J. "Where are We in the Theory of Information." American Economic Review 63 (May 1973):31-39.
- Honigwachs, Joshua. "Is It Safe to Call Something Safe? The Law of Puffing in Advertising." Journal of Public Policy and Marketing 6 (1987):157-170.
- Hovland, Carl; Lumsdaine, A.; and Sheffield, Fred. Experiments in Mass Communication. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1949.
- Howard, John A. "Conceptualizing Adequacy of Information," in Proceedings of the Association of Consumer Research. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1972.
- Howard, John A. and Hulbert, James. "Advertising and the Public Interest." Journal of Advertising Research 14 (December 1974):33-39.
- Howard, John A. and Hulbert, James. Advertising and the Public Interest: Staff Report to the FTC. Chicago: Crain Communications, Inc., 1973.
- Hughes, G. David. "Marketers' Potential Contribution to Regulatory Reform." Marketing Science Institute Working Paper. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Marketing Science Institute, 1980.
- Hunt, Shelby D. "Informational vs. Persuasive Advertising: An Appraisal." Journal of Advertising 5 (Summer 1976):5-8.
- Hunter, John E. "Cluster Analysis and Reliability, Construct Validity, and the Multiple Indicators Approach to Measurement," presented at the Workshop on Advanced Statistics. U. S. Civil Service Commission, March 21, 1977.
- Hunter, John E. "Methods of Recording the Correlation Matrix to Facilitate Visual Inspection and Preliminary Cluster Analysis." Journal of Educational Measurement 10 (1973):51-61.
- Hunter, John E.; Cohen, Stanley H.; and Nicol, Thomas S. PACKAGE Computer Program and Manual. East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University. May 15, 1982.

- Hunter, John E. and Gerbing, David W. "Unidimensional Measurement, Second Order Factor Analysis, and Causal Models." Research in Organizational Behavior 4 (1982):267-320.
- Hunter, John E. and Lim, Tau-Seop. LIMSTAT Version 2.0 Computer Program and Manual. East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University.
- Independent Directory Corp. v. FTC, 188 F. 2d. 468, 470 (2d. Cir. 1951).
- ITT Continental Baking Co. v. FTC, 532 F. 2d. 207 (2d. Cir. 1976).
- Jacoby, Jacob; Speller, Donald E.; and Kohn, Carol A. "Brand Choice Behavior as a Function of Information Load." Journal of Marketing Research 11 (February 1974):63-69.
- Jackman, Michael, ed. The Macmillan Book of Business and Economic Quotations. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, 1984.
- Johnson, Jr., Aaron C.; Johnson, Marvin B.; and Buse, Rueben C. Econometrics--Basic and Applied. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, 1987.
- Katz, Benjamin J., ed. Advertising and Governmental Regulation. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Marketing Science Institute, 1979.
- Kellaris, James J. and Cox, Anthony D. "The Effects of Background Music in Advertising: A Reassessment." Journal of Consumer Research 16 (June 1989):113-118.
- Kelley, Harold H. "The Processes of Causal Attribution." American Psychologist 28 (February 1973):107-128.
- Keppel, Geoffrey. Design and Analysis: A Researcher's Handbook. 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1982.
- Kerlinger, Fred N. Foundations of Behavioral Research. 3rd ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1986.
- Kinnear, Thomas C. and Taylor, James R. Marketing Research. 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1987.
- Heinz W. Kirchner v. FTC, 3 Trade Reg. Rep. 16664 (FTC, November 7, 1963).

- Kotler, Philip. Marketing Management. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1967.
- Kottman, E. John. "The Parity Product--Advertising's Achilles Heel." Journal of Advertising 6 (1977):34-39.
- Krugman, Herbert E. "The Impact of Television Advertising: Learning Without Involvement." Public Opinion Quarterly 29 (1965):349-356.
- Larkin, Ernest F. "Consumer Perceptions of the Media and their Advertising Content." Journal of Advertising 8 (Spring 1979):5-7, 48.
- Lavidge, Robert J. and Steiner, Gary A. "A Model for Predictive Measurements of Advertising Effectiveness." Journal of Marketing 24 (October 1961):59-62.
- Leavitt, Clark. "A Multidimensional Set of Rating Scales for Television Commercials." Journal of Applied Psychology 54 (October 1970):427-429.
- Lewis-Beck, Michael S. Applied Regression. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc., 1980.
- Lundstrom, William J. and Lamont, Lawrence M. "The Development of a Scale to Measure Consumer Discontent." Journal of Marketing Research XXII (November 1976):373-381.
- Lutz, Richard J. "Affective and Cognitive Antecedents of Attitude Toward the Ad: A Conceptual Framework." In Alwitt, Linda F. and Mitchell, Andrew A. Psychological Processes and Advertising Effects: Theory, Research, and Applications. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates., 1985.
- MacKenzie, Scott B. and Lutz, Richard J. "An Empirical Examination of the Structural Antecedents of Attitude Toward the Ad in an Advertising Pretesting Context." Journal of Marketing 53 (April 1989):48-65.
- MacRae, Jr., Duncan. Policy Indicators: Links Between Social Science and Public Debate. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press, 1985.
- Mason, Robert D. Business and Economic Statistics. Homewood, Illinois: Learning Systems Company, 1978.

- Mazis, Michael B. "Can and Should the FTC Restrict Advertising to Children?" Advances in Consumer Research 6 (1979):3-6.
- McDermott, Virginia. "The Literature on Classical Theory Construction." Human Communication Research 2 (Fall 1975):83-103.
- McGuire, William. "The Nature of Attitudes and Attitude Change." In Lindzey, G. and Aronson, E., eds. The Handbook of Social Psychology. 2nd ed. V. 3. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1969.
- McNeil, John. "Federal Programs to Measure Consumer Purchase Expectations, 1946-1973: A Post-Mortem." Journal of Consumer Research 1 (December 1974):1-9.
- McNulty, Paul J. "The Consumer and the Producer." Yale Review 58 (Summer 1969):537-548.
- McQuail, Denis. Mass Communication Theory: An Introduction. London: Sage Publications, 1983.
- McQuail, Denis, ed. Sociology of Mass Communications. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin, 1972.
- Mendenhall, William and Reinmuth, James E. Statistics for Management and Economics. 4th ed. Boston: Duxbury Press, 1982.
- Miller, Delbert C. Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement. 3rd ed. New York: David McKay, 1964.
- Miller, G. and Basehart, J. "Source Trustworthiness, Opinionated Statements and Response to Persuasive Communication." Speech Monographs 36 (1969):1-7.
- Millstein, Ira J. "The Federal Trade Commission and False Advertising." Columbia Law Review 64 (March 1964):439-499.
- Miracle, Gordon E. "A Brief History of US Advertising Self-Regulation to 1970." In Proceedings of the 1985 Conference of the American Academy of Advertising. Tempe, Arizona: Arizona State University, 1985.
- Morton, Anton S. "You Can Count Your Ad's Chickens Before They Hatch." Business Marketing, December 1986, pp. 82, 84, 86-87.

- Muehling, Darrel D. "An Investigation of Factors Underlying Attitude-Toward-Advertising-in-General," Journal of Advertising 16 (1987):43-49.
- Murray, Jr, John P.; Lastovicka, John L.; and Bhalla, Gaurav. "Demographic and Lifestyle Selection Error in Mall Intercept Data." Journal of Advertising Research (February-March 1989):46-52.
- National Advertising Review Board. "Statement of Organization and Procedures of the National Advertising Review Board is Amended to June 19, 1980." New York, 1985.
- Nie, Norman H.; Hull, C. Hadlai; Jenkins, Jean G.; Steinbrenner, Karin and Bent, Dale H. SPSS--Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1975.
- Norris, Vincent. "Advertising History--According to the Textbooks." Journal of Advertising 3 (1980):3-11.
- Norris, Vincent P. "The Economic Effects of Advertising: A Review of the Literature." Current Issues and Research in Advertising (1984):39-134.
- Norusis, Marija J., ed. SPSS/PC+ V2.0 Base Manual. Chicago, Illinois: SPSS Inc., 1988.
- Nunnally, Jum C. Psychometric Theory. 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1978.
- Nylen, David W. Advertising: Planning, Implementation, and Control. 3rd ed. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Company, 1986.
- Ornstein, S. I. Industrial Concentration and Advertising Intensity. Washington, D. C.: American Enterprise Institute, 1977.
- Pedazur, Elazar J. Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research: Explanation and Prediction. 2nd ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1986.
- Petty, Richard E. and Cacioppo, John T. Attitudes and Persuasion: Classic and Contemporary Approaches. Dubuque, Iowa: A. C. Brown, 1981.
- Pitofsky, Robert. "Beyond Nader: Consumer Protection and the Regulation of Advertising." Harvard Law Review 90 (February 1977):661-701.

Preston, Ivan L. The Great American Blow-up. Madison, Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1975.

The Public Pulse. V. 4. New York: The Roper Organization, Inc., 1989.

Ramond, Charles. Advertising Research: The State of the Art. New York: Association of National Advertisers, Inc., 1976.

Rao, Ambar G. and Miller, Peter B. "Advertising/Sales Response Functions." Journal of Advertising Research 15 (April 1975):7-15.

Ray, Michael L. Advertising and Communications Management. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1982.

Ray, Michael L. "Marketing Communications and the Hierarchy of Effects." In Peter Clarke, ed. New Models for Communication Research. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1973.

Reid, Leonard N.; Rotfeld, Herbert J.; and Wimmer, Roger D. "How Researchers Respond to Replication Requests." Journal of Consumer Research 9 (September 1982):216-218.

Reid, Leonard N. and Soley, Lawrence C. "Generalized and Personalized Attitudes Toward Advertising's Social and Economic Effects." Journal of Advertising 11 (1982):3-7.

Reid, Leonard N.; Soley, Lawrence C.; and Wimmer, Roger D. "Replication in Advertising Research, 1977, 1978, 1979." Journal of Advertising 10 (1981):3-13.

Resnik, Alan and Stern, Bruce L. "An Analysis of the Information Content of Television Advertising." Journal of Marketing 41 (1977):50-53.

Restatement (Second): Torts. (St. Paul, Minnesota: American Law Institute Publishers, 1977), Section 542, Comment e.

Reynolds, Paul Davidson. A Primer in Theory Construction. Indianapolis: ITT Bobbs-Merrill Educational Publishing Company, Inc., 1985.

Robinson, Glen D.; Gellhorn, Ernest; and Bruff, Harold H. The Administrative Process. 2nd ed. St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Company, 1982.

- Rosden, George Eric and Rosden, Peter Eric. The Law of Advertising. Volume 2. New York: Matthew Bender and Company, 1987.
- Ross, Jr., Harold L. "How to Create Effective Humorous Commercials Yielding Above Average Brand Preference Changes." Marketing News, March 26, 1976, p. 4.
- Rotfeld, Herbert J. and Preston, Ivan L. "The Potential Impact of Research on Advertising Law." Journal of Advertising Research 21 (April 1981):9-17.
- Rotfeld, Herbert J. and Rotzoll, Kim B. "Is Advertising Puffery Believed?" Journal of Advertising 9 (1980):16-20, 45.
- Rotzoll, Kim; Haefner, James E.; and Sandage, Charles J. "Advertising and the Classical Liberal World View." In Hovland, Roxanne and Wilcox, Gary eds. Advertising in Society. Lincolnwood, Illinois: NTC Publishing Group, 1989.
- Russell, J. Thomas; Verrill, Glenn; and Lane, W. Ronald. Kleppner's Advertising Procedure. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1988.
- Sandage, C. H.; Fryburger, Vernon; and Rotzoll, Kim. Advertising Theory and Practice. 11th ed. Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1983.
- Sandage, C. H. and Leckenby, J. "Student Attitudes Toward Advertising: Institution vs. Instrument." Journal of Advertising 9 (1980):29-32.
- Doris Savitch v. FTC, 218 F. 2d. 817 (2d. Cir. 1955).
- Schlenger, Mary Jane. "A Profile of Responses to Commercials." Journal of Advertising Research 19 (1979):37-46.
- Schmalensee, Diane H. "Today's Top Priority Advertising Research Questions." Journal of Advertising Research 23 (April-May 1983):49-60.
- Schudson, Michael. Advertising, The Uneasy Persuasion: Its Dubious Impact on American Society. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1984.
- Schultz, Don E.; Martin, Dennis; and Brown, William P. Strategic Advertising Campaigns. 2d ed. Chicago: Crain Books, 1984.

Schutz, Howard A. and Casey, Marianne. "Consumer Perceptions of Advertising as Misleading." Journal of Consumer Affairs 15 (Winter 1981):340-357.

Settle, Robert B. and Golden, Linda L. "Attribution Theory and Advertiser Credibility." Journal of Marketing Research 11 (1974):181-185.

Shimp, Terence A. "Attitude Toward the Ad as a Mediator of Consumer Brand Choice." Journal of Advertising 10 (1981):9-15, 48.

Simmons Study of Media and Markets. New York: Simmons Market Research Bureau, Inc., 1987.

Simon, Todd F. "The Commercial Speech Doctrine: Unsupported, Unworkable, and Undesirable." Unpublished manuscript. East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1987.

Sinclair, Upton. The Jungle. New York: New American Library, 1905.

Sixth Annual Veronis, Suhler & Associates Communications Industry Report. New York: Veronis, Suhler & Associates, December 1988.

Soley, Lawrence C. and Reid, Leonard N. "Satisfaction with the Informational Value of Magazine and Television Advertising." Journal of Advertising 12 (1983):27-31.

Stern, Bruce L.; Krugman, Dean M.; and Resnik, Alan. "Magazine Advertising: An Analysis of Its Information Content." Journal of Advertising Research 21 (April 1981):39-44.

Sternthal, Brian and Craig, C. Samuel. "Humor in Advertising." Journal of Marketing 37 (October 1973):12-18.

Sudman, Seymour. Applied Sampling. New York: Academic Press, 1976.

Sudman, Seymour and Bradburn, Norman M. Response Effects in Surveys: A Review and Synthesis. Chicago: Aldine, 1974.

Swanson, Lauren. "Doceatur Emptor." Journal of Advertising 4 (1975):23-28.

Tan, Alexis S. Mass Communication Theories and Research. Columbus, Ohio: Grid Publishing, Inc., 1981.

Tyebjee, Tyzoon T. "Refinement of the Involvement Concept: An Advertising Planning Point of View." In Maloney, J. C. and Silverman, B., eds. Attitude Research Plays for High Stakes. Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1979.

Valentine v. Chrestensen, 316 U.S. 42 (1942).

Verwayen, Henri. "Social Indicators: Actual and Potential Uses." Social Indicators Research 14 (1984):1-27.

Virginia Pharmacy Board v. Virginia Citizen's Consumer Council, 425 U.S. 748 (1976).

Walters, A. A. An Introduction to Econometrics. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1970.

Watts, W. and McGuire, William. "Persistence of Induced Opinion Change and Retention of the Inducing Message Contents." Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 68 (1964):233-241.

Weilbacher, William M. Advertising. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1979.

Wells, William D.; Leavitt, Clark; and McConville, Maureen. "A Reaction Profile for TV Commercials." Journal of Advertising Research 11 (1971):11-15.

Welti, Belinda. "The Need for a Statutory Definition of Deceptive Advertising." New England Law Review 19 (1983):127-149.

"What 4As Study on Advertising Reveals." Television-Radio Age, August 16, 1976, pp. 28-29.

Whitehall King, Karen; Reid, Leonard N.; Tinkham, Spencer F.; and Pokrywczynski, James. "The Perceived Informativeness of National and Retail Advertising." Current Issues and Research in Advertising (1987):173-197.

Wilkie, William L. "Affirmative Disclosure: Perspectives on FTC Orders." Journal of Marketing and Public Policy 1 (Winter 1982):95-110.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIV. LIBRARIES



31293006901296