

THE INFLUENCE OF PERCEIVED REALISM
ON AD LIKING AND BRAND LIKING

A Thesis

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by

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ABSTRACT

A study, using a three-step experiment in a mall in the northeastern U.S., was conducted to explore how product involvement and perceived realism may influence ad liking and brand liking among consumers. In total, 64 participants were recruited to fill out a questionnaire after reading ad scripts, which were designed in two versions, one with high realism and one with low realism.

The final analysis showed that ad liking and brand liking were correlated. In some cases, when perceived realism increased, ad liking and brand liking also increased. Realism has stronger influence on ad liking and brand liking for the “low involvement” product- coffee, than it does for the “high involvement” product - automobiles. There was no similar finding for six other products, which were used to represent low- or high-involvement products. Further exploration about possible interactions between involvement and realism, and their potential effects on advertising effectiveness, merits attention for marketers and advertisers.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Tonglin worked as a journalist for a variety of broadcast and print media agencies in Shanghai, China, before she studied at Cornell University. Her reports covered interesting topics ranging from business, foreign affairs, social issues, and cultural events, which gained great popularity among her listening and reading audiences.

After earning her Master of Science degree in Communication, Tonglin will return to Shanghai and work as a media producer. She will incorporate the knowledge she gained from Cornell, which includes, but is not limited to, concentrations in media effect evaluation, audience analysis, and marketing strategy.

An avid swimmer and rock climber, Tonglin enjoys physical sports, classical and popular music, Broadway shows, and the opera. She also enjoys meeting interesting people at or after work, and engaging in thought-provoking dialogue with them.

I would like to dedicate this book to my dear mother, who constantly supports me to pursue my master's degree intellectually and financially. Thank you always for your continued encouragement and love.

This thesis is for you, mom!

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CHAPTER 1
THE INFLUENCE OF PERCEIVED REALISM ON AD LIKING AND
BRAND LIKING

Introduction

Ad “liking” has long been accepted among marketers as a determinant of product preference and overall marketing success. Research has demonstrated that efforts to create ad liking lead to brand preference and ultimate product purchase (Batra, Rajeev, & Ray, 1986; Hollis 1995; Pawle & Cooper, 2006). Other studies have linked ad liking to the evocation of positive emotions (Batra, Rajeev, & Ray, 1986; Batra, Stayman, & Douglas, 1990; Julie & Buke, 1987); however, only a few of these studies have explored the specific attributes of ads that do, in fact, result in ad liking and eventual brand preference (Walker & Dubitsky, 1994).

One such attribute may be the “realism” of the ad, particularly when the ad is presented in a narrative or storyline format. Walker and Dubitsky (1994) argued that ad believability and ad realism are among the structural characteristics that pointedly influence consumer liking. Shapiro and Chock (2003, 2004) explained that realism has a direct impact on how viewers process narratives in TV entertainment programs. For instance, in dramatic presentations, a higher degree of realism seems to lead to a correspondingly higher degree of audience liking for the program. Building on these research results, this research will explore whether ad realism will lead to ad liking, as revealed in the effect of realism on preferences for storylines or narratives in TV programs seen in previous studies.

Though it is possible that realism has a direct relationship with liking, another factor, “product involvement,” may also play a role in influencing

consumers' attitude toward ads. Product involvement has been defined in a various ways; most research has defined it as the perceived personal importance or relevance of the product for consumers (Lin & Chen, 2006; Traylor, 1981; Zaichkowsky, 1985, 1986). For example, automobiles belong to the high product involvement class, whereas napkins belong to the low product involvement class. Previous studies also show that product involvement is one important determinant of consumer motivation when comparing product attributes before purchase (Chin, 2004; Zaichkowsky, 1985, 1986). People may be motivated to think about a product attribute more seriously when exposed to a high involvement product; conversely, they may engage less in thinking about product attributes while considering low involvement products. Taking product involvement into account, I will explore how product involvement may influence or moderate the relationship between ad realism and ad liking.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Ad liking and Its Importance

In this section, I will describe two dependent variables: ad liking and brand liking. The reasons to choose ad liking to gauge the effectiveness of ads include: (1) they are often referred in previous studies as a measurement of consumers' response to ads (Batra, Rajeev, & Ray, 1986; Batra, Stayman, & Douglas, 1990; Julie & Buke, 1987; Lee & Mason, 1999); (2) ad liking is the antecedent of a sequence that constitutes the ad's influence, which starts with recall, then leads to brand liking, and possibly ends with purchase behavior (Batra, Rajeev, & Ray, 1986; Hollis, 1997; Mitchell, Andrew, & Olson, 1981). Brand liking is considered to be directly influenced by ad liking (Julie & Buke, 1987), and it is an important index to measure effectiveness of ads as well.

The relationship between ad liking and consumers' ad memory has been well established by earlier research. Walker and Dubitsky (1994) studied ad liking in terms of product recall. They suggest that likable advertising is better remembered and the result of positive recall is increased brand awareness and brand loyalty. Furthermore, Hollis (1995) pointed out that awareness caused by memory could lead to future purchases by consumers.

Ad liking also has an impact on consumers' purchase behavior through its influence on brand liking. Ad liking was demonstrated to directly influence brand liking among consumers (Batra, Rajeev, & Ray, 1986; Batra, Stayman, & Douglas, 1990; Julie & Buke, 1987). Mitchell, Andrew, and Olson (1981) posited that ad liking does itself lead to changes in brand attitudes. Morris, Woo, Geason, and Kim

(2002) reported a direct impact of advertising-induced emotional reactions on attitudes toward brands in advertising. Pawle and Cooper (2006) found that consumers' brand liking increased the likelihood, by four and seven times respectively, that same-brand products as diverse as cereals and cars will be repurchased, as opposed to the product of a brand that consumers can not recognize or differentiate from other brands. Hollis (1997) posited that consumers' brand liking will act as a mechanism that will pull consumers toward purchasing behavior. He employed a survey that measured attitudinal loyalty among consumers, which was a function of brand loyalty and the likelihood of repeat purchases. The research supported the claim that brand liking could increase loyalty among consumers as well as future purchases. Rao, Mano and Denise (2004) claim that the brand is the intelligible asset of a company because it influences consumers' future decision-making. Ad liking can be considered as an antecedent to brand liking, and, in turn, lead to changes in purchase behavior.

Machleit, Allen and Madden (1993) proposed an alternative consequence of ad-evoked effect for mature brands. For a mature brand, ad liking would not have as strong an influence on brand liking as opposed to that for unfamiliar brands. Conversely, ad liking for mature brands formulate brand interest, which would help prevent consumers from becoming bored with their frequently purchased products and turning to variety-seeking behavior to alleviate such boredom. Due to the fact that correlations between ad liking and brand liking have differed for mature brands and unfamiliar brands, the following research focused on the ad's effect on an unfamiliar brand or a fictitious brand by introducing new brands in the ads' scripts. The design of this research excluded the possibility that liking for mature brands may affect ad liking, and hence made the ad-evoked consequence more clear.

Attributes Contributing to Ad liking

Market researchers have long known the importance of ad liking, and previous research has often focused on the influence of structural characteristics (Walker & Dubitsky, 1994) and/or emotion evoked by ads (Batra, Rajeev, & Ray, 1986; Batra, Stayman, & Douglas, 1990; Julie & Buke, 1987). However, few have studied the effectiveness of ads from a story-telling perspective, or shed light on how the content of ads could have impact on consumers.

Ads are composed both of structure and content, in which stories can attain attention due to quick and effective impact. According to Sal (2006), strong brands often use the power of story or mythic images to create or represent brand-building worlds, with which consumers feel connected. An example would be a memorable date or exciting game. Narratives in ads also play a role in creating unique identity and personality for brands, leading to consumers' recognition of the lifestyle that brands represent. Further study about the content of ads and their influence, in addition to their structure, would be practical for marketers and advertisers to better design and distribute ads to their target groups.

1. Story Telling and Realism

One content attribute of ad liking is posited by Walker and Dubitsky (1994), who argued that the realism or believability of the storyline of an ad influences ad liking among consumers. Shapiro and Chock (2003) support a similar relationship between realism and liking for narratives in drama. Based on this research, it is possible that realism can be considered an important factor in ad liking.

With the knowledge that realism might lead to ad liking, it is one of the independent variables in this study. In the following section, I will elaborate two

different concepts of realism- “absolute” and “relative” realism- and then provide my argument for choosing the latter concept for my research on realism in ads.

2. Perceived Realism and Its Two Different Concepts

Perceived realism, an important psychological characteristic of stories, may influence mental processing, beliefs, attitudes, and behavior (Potter, 1988). People make judgments about the realism of media stories as they view them in ads or in any other TV program (Shapiro & Chock, 2003; Walker & Dubitsky, 1994).

Shapiro and Weisbein (2001) identified two ways people can make realism judgments when watching television. First, people can make judgments about the likelihood that an event will occur in the actual world. This is called “absolute perceived reality” (p. 4). Shapiro and Weisbein offer a second, relative type of judgment, which involves determining whether a presented event would occur as portrayed, if it were to happen. With this relative judgment, rarely occurring events can be afforded a high degree of plausibility by the viewer if the events seem likely to occur given the presented scenario. Shapiro and Chock (2004) provided examples to help distinguish the difference between absolute perceived realism and relative perceived realism. For instance, most people probably have not actually had real life experience with a bank robbery. When judging the realism of a depicted story of a bank robbery, “pointing a gun” may seem fairly typical, while “dropping a gun” would probably seem atypical and less realistic. Similar routine can be applied to the realism judgment of earthquakes shown in programs or games (Shapiro, Pena-Herborn & Hancock, 2006). Though few of us have direct experience with the events, we can still evaluate depicted behaviors and events as more or less realistic in that circumstance, by imagining “what it would be like if it did happen”. Given the fact that atypical stories and rarely occurred events are frequently shown in ads, I

plan to use the concept of relative perceived realism for my study of ad's effect. An explanation will be offered below.

3. Relative Perceived Realism in Ads

Atypical and novel stories in ads, rather than ones that might be experienced as typical or "normal," are often shown to consumers; consumers need imagination and ability to infer based on storyline to judge whether stories in ads are realistic or not. Previous studies (Lee & Mason, 1999) showed that ads with unexpected and relevant information elicited more favorable attitudes than did ads with expected-relevant information. Consumers are willing to be exposed to unexpected events in ads which are composed of atypical stories. I expect consumers would consider the relative perceived realism of ads when they form their attitude toward ads.

First, atypical stories and characters are often included in ads for attention-grabbing purposes. According to McCarthy and Michael (1991), on any given day, the average American is exposed to about 300 ad messages. That is about 9,000 in a 30-day month; or 109,500 a year. To rise above this clutter, advertisers try to create advertisements that are novel or humorous to consumers. Consequently, many advertisements are designed to include fantasies or fictional stories. More interestingly, these stories may involve unusual characters or events that we never, or rarely, encountered in real life. Consequently, the ads demand that consumers decide whether an event would be likely to occur in the given scenario as opposed to comparing it to their real life experiences. Furthermore, if the ads showcase attributes of a new product, consumers are expected to generate judgments of relative perceived realism by imagining whether the event would happen in the given scenario. If consumers have not had a similar experience with the use of a product

(such as the Iphone), they have no way of making realism judgments based on real-life experiences for there are new functions of this product.

Second, people are willing and able to make relative perceived realism judgments because they expect stories in ads are created with unusual and atypical events verses plain events. Lee and Mason's (1999) research showed that ads with unexpected but relevant events result in more memorable ads and more favorable attitudes toward the brand in the ad compared to ads with expected and relevant events. Expectancy refers to the degree to which a piece of information falls into some predetermined pattern or structure evoked by an ad, and atypical stories often constitute unexpected information in ads. Relevancy refers to the degree to which a piece of information contributes to the identification of the primary message communicated by the ads. Customers' attitude toward brand in ads is influenced by their capability to process the information in ads (Chang C.C., 2004). Consumers are willing and able to process novel messages contained in advertising, and they may need relative perceived realism judgment to help evaluate the information which is unfamiliar or absolutely new to them. It is better, for purposes of this study, to measure relative perceived realism in advertising rather than absolute perceived realism.

In summary, while the likelihood of an event portrayed in an ad enters into judgments of realism, people can judge the realism of unlikely events or events that never or rarely happen by imagining what they would be like if they did happen. Thus, people are able to evaluate the degree of perceived realism in ads with more inferential and imaginative elements that factor into such judgments (Shapiro, Pena-Herborn & Hancock, 2006). Based on a previous study concerning realism and liking (Shapiro & Chock, 2003; Shapiro, Pena-Herborn, & Hancock, 2006; Walker & Dubitsky, 1994), it is plausible that realism influences consumers' liking; that is,

higher perceived realism will lead to higher ad liking, and in turn, higher brand liking (Batra, Rajeev, & Ray, 1986; Batra, Stayman, & Douglas, 1990; Julie & Buke, 1987). From this, I develop my first question:

RQ1: Will perceived relative realism in ads lead to increased ad liking and brand liking?

Product Involvement's Impact on Ad liking

In addition to realism, another factor, product involvement, may also contribute to ad liking due to its impact on consumers' motivation to think about attributes of products seriously. Product involvement will be introduced in my study as the second independent variable; I plan to test whether it is possible that it can moderate the relationship between realism and liking. In the following section, I will explain how and why product involvement can affect the relationship and introduce the hypotheses for further test.

1. Definition of Product Involvement

To understand the influence of product involvement, it is best to start with its definition. Consumer product involvement has been studied for more than forty years; researchers have defined it in various ways. It is an important construct to capture consumer motivation to gain knowledge, evaluate product quality, form attitudes, and, eventually, make purchase decisions (Zaichkowsky, 1985; 1986).

The concept of product involvement originated from social psychology. It was Krugman (1965) who first applied the involvement concept to marketing. He explained how involvement would have impact on persuasion by arguing that high involvement would lead to more dramatic attitude change compared to low

involvement. The definition of product involvement has been developed in a variety of studies, and hence, it has multiple definitions. In several studies, involvement generally refers to a mediating variable used to determine whether the advertisement is relevant to the receiver. In this definition, advertisements are perceived as bridging experiences or connections that viewers make between their own lives and advertisements' stories (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983).

Besides the focus on involvement with advertising, the term "involvement" has been used by other researchers to refer to the relationship between a person and a product, to focus on how relevant or important the person perceives the product category. Traylor (1981) defines involvement as a consumer's understanding or recognition of a specific product's importance to his or her life. Zaichkowsky (1985) posits that involvement refers to personal demand and interest in the product. Engel, Blackwell and Kollat (1995) report that, in a specific environment, a consumer's involvement is evoked by personal recognition and/or interest in the product. Lin and Chen (2006) define product involvement as a consumer's subjective self-perception of product importance to themselves.

Purchasing, or making purchase decisions, is a third area relating the concept of involvement to consumer behavior. Slama and Tashchian (1985) define involvement with purchase as a consumer's self-concern over purchase decisions and purchasing activity. Lin and Chen (2006) conducted one study showing that the degree of product involvement influences consumers' purchase decision making.

2. Measurement of Product Involvement

Not only does product involvement have multiple definitions, there are also a variety of ways to measure the concept. Zaichkowsky (1985) integrated the results of

earlier research concerning product involvement measurement and first introduced the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII), which laid a foundation for later studies. The PII included 20 selected items to measure product involvement that were composed of 7-interval semantic differential scales, each ranging from “important,” “irrelevant,” “useless,” “valuable” to “unimportant,” “relevant,” “useful” and “worthless,” to name a few. Referring to Zaichkowsky’s (1985) PII, Chang (2004) decreased the 20-instrument items to 3 by asking (1) how intensively participants search for product information before purchase, (2) how likely participants are to compare brands before purchase and (3) how closely participants examine product attributes before purchase. Lin and Chen’s study (2006) applied a similar measurement and achieved satisfactory validity test results. Cronbach’s value for the instrument is 0.94, meaning the instrument has high internal consistency. Their research also shows that country-of-origin image and product involvement have an interactive influence on information search intention among consumers.

3. Product Involvement Categorization

Previous studies have categorized classes of products as high or low product involvement according to the scale mentioned above. Product involvement categorization helps marketers to know (1) how to best advertise to consumers who have high involvement with their product class and (2) how to tailor advertising messages for low involvement products. Zaichkowsky (1985) produced a scores distribution of major products with involvement measurement and led to the finding that automobiles, for example, belong to the class of high-involvement products, while instant coffee belongs to the class of low-involvement products. According to results of other studies (Hupfer & Gardner, 1971, Howard & Sheth, 1969), products determined to be high involvement products were not always expensive products.

Slama and Tashchian (1985) argued that a high involvement product for one consumer group might not be important for another group, leading to the conclusion that the categorization of products is not always fixed.

4. Perceived Realism Judgment and Its Interaction with Product Involvement

Based on the literature about product involvement, personal importance or relevance factors are proposed to influence whether a product is considered a high involvement product or a low involvement product. The degree of product involvement has impact on consumers' mental processing of ads by influencing their willingness to search for more information, compare products with other alternatives, and examine the attributes of products (Chin, 2004). The relationship between perceived realism and liking in ads could be moderated by product involvement due to its effect on consumer's motivation for information search and attributes comparison. I developed the following question:

RQ2: If moderation exists, how might product involvement affect its interaction with realism for the influence on ad liking and brand liking?

Under high product involvement conditions, consumers assign great importance to products by thinking seriously about the product attributes, and, finally, form attitudes (Engel et al, 1995). Furthermore, consumers are willing to search for more information, compare the products with other alternatives, and examine the attributes of products (Chin, 2004). Consumers are able to differentiate one attribute from another; doing so helps them to determine the believability of ads. When exposed to ads of high involvement products, people are motivated and able to process information in a more thoughtful way by searching and comparing related information; hence, realism may play a role in attitude formation. Based on the story telling presented in advertisements of the product, consumers will then judge

whether the ads' claims about the products are real or not. Consumers may like the ads and brands presented in the ads more when ads are created with higher degree of realism.

On the other hand, consumers will not be motivated to seriously consider the perceived realism of ads when exposed to low involvement products for which they have less interest. Also, consumers may lack the capability to differentiate certain attributes among a certain category of products and thus may be less able to compare products with alternatives, for instance, the difference between Coke and Pepsi based on taste or color attributes. Due to the lack of motivation and capability to search information and differentiate attributes, consumers would not care as much whether the story telling in ads is presented with high degree of realism or not. Under this circumstance, realism would not play a role in influencing costumers' attitude, which, in my study, refers to their ad liking and brand liking.

Linking perceived realism to its effect on consumers' attitude formation, I expect that the relationship between perceived realism judgment and consumer liking will be moderated by the degree of product involvement. For high involvement product, consumers tend to search and think information about the product seriously, and they would take brain capacity to evaluate the degree of realism to from attitude. For a high involvement product, higher perceived realism would lead to higher liking. But realism would not be an important cause of liking for low involvement product due to the fact that consumers lack motivation to think seriously about the attributes of products or evaluate realism of stories. In this study, I will gauge the effectiveness of the advertisement and consumer liking by measuring ad liking and brand liking. I developed two groups of hypotheses based on the interaction between product involvement and perceived realism judgment.

H1a: For advertisements of high involvement products, those high in

perceived realism would gain higher ad liking among consumers than those low in perceived realism.

H1b: For advertisements of low involvement products, ad liking would not differ between advertisements of high perceived realism and those of low perceived realism.

H2a: For advertisements of high involvement products, those high in perceived realism would gain higher brand liking than those low in perceived realism.

H2b: For advertisements of low involvement products, brand liking would not differ between advertisements of high perceived realism and those of low perceived realism.

I also plan to test the relationship between two dependent variables, ad liking and brand liking. Ad liking was demonstrated to directly influence brand liking among consumers (Batra, Stayman, & Douglas, 1990; Julie & Buke, 1987). Batra, Rajeev and Ray (1986) pointed out that attitude toward ads has a weak but significant impact on brand preference, where attitude toward ads were treated as an antecedent of attitude toward brand. Mitchell, Andrew, and Olson (1981) posited that attribute beliefs had a mediating effect on brand attitudes, and attitude toward the ads also partially mediated attitude toward brand. Morris, Woo, Geason, and Kim (2002) reported a direct impact of advertising-induced emotional reactions on attitudes toward brands in advertising. In the experiment, I use ad liking and brand liking as two dependent variables, which are believed to be important predictors of purchase intention among consumers. I develop one hypothesis to test their relationship as follows:

Hypothesis 3: Ad liking will correlate positively with brand liking.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Product Involvement Manipulation

Like previous researchers (Chang, 2004; Zaichkowsky, 1985), I will put instant coffee, cereal, mouthwash, and bath towels into the category of low involvement product, and jeans, color TV, laundry detergent, and automobiles into the category of high involvement product. It is assumed that consumers would think seriously about the attributes of high involvement products, but would not think as much about the attributes of low involvement products. Each product will have two versions of text-based advertisements generated from a pool of stories suggested by participants.

Perceived Realism Manipulation

Shapiro and Chock (2003) pointed out that viewers can make moment-to-moment realism judgments and that these judgments are strongly related to typicality. I intend to manipulate the degree of typicality and the setting of stories to generate advertisements with low and high degrees of perceived realism.

To generate two versions of stories, I employed a 3-step procedure developed by Shapiro and Fox (2002), which was first introduced by Graesser (1981). The steps are: (1) The first set of participants was asked to generate lists of typical and atypical actions in several story situations, which include sixteen stories for two classes of products; (2) a second set of participants rated the typicality of the items generated in the first step; and (3) two of the story situations were selected and then high and low typicality versions were created for each product with the rating from step 2. Each ad

version of products was presented to a third group of participants who were not involved in the earlier steps and who had never seen the stories before. The results from the final group of participants were used for final analysis.

Procedure

In the first step, twenty participants recruited from a mall in the northeastern United States were given a story situation and asked to list all the typical and then all the plausible but atypical actions they would expect in each situation in advertising designed by researcher. For instance, for the product instant coffee, the situation was designated as “in an office meeting, several white-collar professionals are busy with one project, trying to meet a deadline. Peter opens a bottle of ready-to-drink Cappuccino coffee...” Participants were asked to list typical and atypical actions they might expect to follow. They were asked to do this for eight products. In each situation of high involvement products, specific attributes of products would be given by researcher (ex. energy saving for hybrid car); for low involvement products, situations are more experience-oriented and no specific attributes would be given. The design of this situation is congruent with real ads, in which high involvement products tend to use attributes to appeal as apposed to low involvement products.

Based on the stories pool generated in stage 1 experiment, a new list of stories was designed for stage 2 of the experiment, with slight modifications. Thus, slight modifications were necessary to make each advertising story correct grammatically and appear to be close to real advertising scripts. The researcher did not change the original storytelling given by participants in stage 1. In stage 2 of the experiment, another thirty participants were recruited from the local mall. Participants were asked to rate the degree of typicality of each advertising story on a 6-interval typicality scale ranging from “very typical” to “very atypical.” After

collecting the data from stage 2 of the experiment, the most typical and atypical stories of each product were selected based on the mean score of typicality measurement among all the participants. For instance, there are nine typical and atypical stories totally for the product coffee given by the participants in stage 1 of experiment; the highest mean score of typicality of the story for coffee is 4.8, and the lowest is 3 among all respondents. These two versions of ads stories were then chosen as stimuli for product coffee in the stage 3. For a typical version, the ad's story is as follows:

In an office meeting, several white collar professionals are busy with a project, trying to meet a deadline. Peter opens a bottle of ready-to-drink Cappuccino coffee. All the other workers fall asleep except Peter, who later finishes his project with a boost of energy. The camera zooms in on Peter holding the bottle of coffee, and he says, "Sunrise coffee, my favorite coffee!"

For the atypical version, the story is as follows:

In an office meeting, several white collar professionals are busy with a project, trying to meet a deadline. Peter opens a bottle of ready-to-drink Cappuccino coffee. Peter feels so energetic that he spills the coffee over one colleague accidentally. Peter says, "Now I have less coffee to drink because I spilt it on you!" The camera zooms in on Peter holding the bottle of coffee, and he says, "Sunrise coffee, my favorite coffee!"

The method for choosing stories was similar for the other seven products.

In stage 3 of the experiment, another 64 participants were recruited from the local mall and they were asked to read the stories on the questionnaire generated from stage 2 of the experiment. After reading each advertising story, they were asked to gauge their perceived realism, ad liking and brand liking by rating scores on

6-interval differential scales. To measure perceived realism, two questions were asked. They are (1) “If this were to happen to me it would happen the way it did in the ad”; (2) “If this were to happen to the average person, it would happen the way it did in the ad” (Shapiro & Chock, 2003, 2004). To evaluate attitude toward the ad, participants were asked to rate their agreement with the statement as follows: (1) I dislike the ad; (2) the ad is appealing to me; (3) the ad is interesting to me; (4) the ad is attractive to me, and (5) I think the ad is bad. To evaluate attitude toward the brand, participants were asked to rate their agreement with the statement as follows: (1) the brand in the ad is likely to possess the stated claims; 2) I react favorably to the brand; 3) I feel positive toward the brand, and (4) I dislike the brand. In my study, Cronbach’s alphas for inter item reliability for ad liking index and brand liking index is 0.96 and 0.92, respectively. A summed index was used for each index.

To better carry out the experiment and get rid of any order effect that may influence participants’ evaluation of perceived realism, ad liking and brand liking, the order of eight products on the questionnaire shown to each participant was arranged based on a simple Latin square design. In all, there were 16 different versions of the questionnaires; each one was completed by four participants.

Typicality level is manipulated as a between-group variable; 8 of 16 questionnaires belonged to the high realism category and 8 belonged to low realism. Product involvement was manipulated as a within-group variable, and the 8 questionnaires with high or low realism were composed of advertising of 8 products of high and low involvements. The order of products was arranged with simple Latin square. The order of products in 8 versions of the questionnaire is shown as below in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Latin Square Design for Product Order in Questionnaire

Product Order # Questionnaire #	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Ld	Ce	J	M	TV	C	Car	BT
2	Ce	TV	Ld	C	M	BT	J	Car
3	TV	M	Ce	BT	C	Car	Ld	J
4	M	Ce	TV	Car	BT	J	Ce	Ld
5	C	BT	M	J	Car	Ld	TV	Ce
6	Car	J	BT	Ce	Ld	TV	C	M
7	BT	Car	C	Ld	J	Ce	M	TV
8	J	Ld	Car	TV	Ce	M	BT	C

In the table, each character represents one product. C stands for coffee, Ce is for Cereal, M is for mouthwash, BT is for bath towel, J is for jeans, TV is for HDTV, Ld is for laundry detergent, and Car is for hybrid car.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The general lineal model (GLM), a standard model for factorial experimental design, was compared with the mixed model regarding the analysis procedure and possible results. Generally, these two models produced extremely similar results by taking original realism and involvement as main effect term, and product as a variable nested within involvement. The factor “original realism” referred to the perceived realism manipulation by researcher, and it was regarded as experiment treatment. In order to capture the degree of success of realism manipulation, another factor “perceived realism judgment” was included in the model as one dependent variable, and the difference between “perceived realism judgment” and “original realism” was calculated. “Perceived realism judgment” was achieved in the final stage of experiment, as a check of the realism manipulation, not as an experiment stimulus. The mixed model gave more informative results when comparing estimated marginal means under high or low realism situation for each product, helping to elucidate why the three-way interaction between realism, product, and involvement is significant, whereas the two-way interaction between realism and involvement is not. Pairwise comparisons analysis in the mixed model provided not only marginal means, but also significance tests for the mean difference, which was not shown in GLM model. The mixed model also takes a random effect for each participant into consideration, adding more validity to the analysis.

The mixed model routine in SPSS was finally used to analyze the data set, which has a total of 512 observations comprised of 8 observations from each of 64 independent subjects. The factors “Orealism” (Original Realism), product, and

involvement were included in the model as independent variables, and the product variables ORealism *involvement, involvement*product, ORealism *involvement*product were also included to capture two-way and three-way interactions between the three main-effect variables. Values of original realism include 1 and 2, corresponding to low and high realism, respectively. The values for product, a nominal variable, range from 1 to 8, representing coffee, cereal, mouth wash, bath towel, jeans, HDTV, detergent, and car. The variable involvement is measured as low and high involvement, represented by 1 and 2. The variable original realism, instead of perceived realism, was finally used in the model as it constituted the original manipulation or treatment for the experiment. The variable perceived realism, which was achieved through the final check in stage 3 of experiment, was helpful to gauge the successfulness of manipulation. A random intercept for each subject was introduced to account for within subject correlations. Both ad liking and brand liking were used as dependent variables in two separate analyses, and the correlation between them was calculated. A basic statistical summary for each variable is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Summary Table for Each Variable in the Experiment (N=512)

Source	Mean (Ad Liking)	Std. Error (Ad Liking)	Mean (Brand Liking)	Std. Error (Brand Liking)
Low Involvement	3.38	0.07	3.45	0.07
High Involvement	3.86	0.07	3.79	0.07
Low Realism	3.51	0.07	3.53	0.07
High Realism	3.73	0.07	3.71	0.07
Coffee	3.34	1.34	3.42	1.12
Cereal	2.71	1.14	2.76	1.03
Mouth wash	3.89	1.07	3.83	1.09
Bath Towel	3.59	1.09	3.80	0.94
Jean	3.38	1.16	3.38	1.01
HDTV	4.04	1.24	3.92	1.07
Detergent	3.83	1.08	3.81	1.07
Car	4.13	1.19	4.04	1.11

Ad liking as Dependent Variable

Ad liking was input into the first mixed model as the dependent variable for the following hypotheses:

H1a: For advertisements of high involvement products, those high in perceived realism would gain higher ad liking among consumers than those low in perceived realism.

H1b: For advertisements of low involvement products, ad liking would not differ between advertisements of high perceived realism and those of low perceived realism.

With an alpha level of .05, the effect of original realism (Orealism) was not statistically significant ($F(1, 62) = 2.178, p > .05$ [see Table 4.2]). Involvement is shown to be a significant variable ($F(1, 434) = 26.695, p < .05$). Surprisingly, the two-way interaction between involvement and original realism is not significant, but the three-way interaction between involvement, product and original realism is significant ($F(6, 434) = 4.03, p < .05$).

Table 4.2 Mixed Model Analysis for Ad Liking of Different Versions of Ads (N=512)

Source	Df	F	p
Intercept	62	1965.585	.000
ORealism	62	2.178	.145
Involvement	434	26.695*	.000
ORealism * Involvement	434	.417	.519
Involvement*Product	434	10.744*	.000
ORealism*Involvement*	434	4.030 *	.001
Product			

*p < .05

Table 4.3 Univariate Tests for Effect of Original Realism on 8 Products (N=512)

Source	Df	F	p
Low Involvement			
Coffee	404.719	16.339*	.000
Cereal	404.719	1.595	.207
Mouthwash	404.719	0.047	.828
Bath Towel	404.719	1.282	.258
High Involvement			
Jeans	404.719	1.282	.258
HDTV	404.719	1.185	.277
Detergent	404.719	.273	.602
Car	404.719	3.034	.082

Note. Each F tests the simple effects of Original Realism within each level combination of the other effects shown. These tests are based on the estimable linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

*p < .05

As shown above in Table 4.3, some of the products nested within involvement have an interactive effect with original realism, but not all of them are significant. The estimated marginal means are compared for each product under high or low realism situations, which helps to elucidate the way in which the three-way interaction takes place. The product coffee shows significance and the product car

gives marginal significance in comparing the means between high or low realism situations, which means that for these two products, the degree of realism does affect ad liking. However, for the rest of the six products, the difference between means is not significant, which shows that realism has no effect with product on ad liking among consumers. These comparisons between means for high and low realism situations elucidate why the two-way interaction between involvement and realism is not significant, but the three-way interaction between involvement, product, and realism is significant.

Since realism has influence on ad liking for the two products coffee and car, more detailed information is given in Table 4.4, which is helpful to capture the trend of change of ad liking for products under high or low realism situation. For coffee and car, which are low and high involvement products respectively, original realism influences ad liking in a positive way: the more real the ad is, the more ad liking that is achieved among consumers. This result only partially supports Hypothesis H1a, which asserts that, for advertisements of high involvement products, those high in perceived realism would gain higher ad liking among consumers than those low in perceived realism. Among 4 high involvement products, only the product car provided marginally significant result to show how realism has influence on ad liking.

Unfortunately, there is no significant result to support Hypothesis H1b. Instead of showing no difference between ad liking for ads with high realism and ad liking for ads with low realism, the final result shows that consumers prefer coffee ads with high realism to those with low realism. Among 4 low involvement products, only the product coffee produced a significant result to show how realism had influence on ad liking; this result did not correspond to the original prediction.

Table 4.4 Estimated Marginal Means of Ad Liking for 8 Products under High or Low Realism Situation (N=512)

Source	M	Std. Error
Coffee		
Low Realism	2.763	.203
High Realism	3.925*	.203
Cereal		
Low Realism	2.525	.203
High Realism	2.888	.203
Mouth Wash		
Low Realism	3.925	.203
High Realism	3.863	.203
Bath Towel		
Low Realism	3.75	.203
High Realism	3.425	.203
Jean		
Low Realism	3.225	.203
High Realism	3.55	.203
HDTV		
Low Realism	4.2	.203
High Realism	3.888	.203
Detergent		
Low Realism	3.8	.203
High Realism	3.95	.203
Car		
Low Realism	3.875	.203
High Realism	4.375	.203

Note: The first 4 products belong to low involvement product and the last 4 belong to high involvement product, which are nested in involvement variable in mix model analysis.

*p < .05

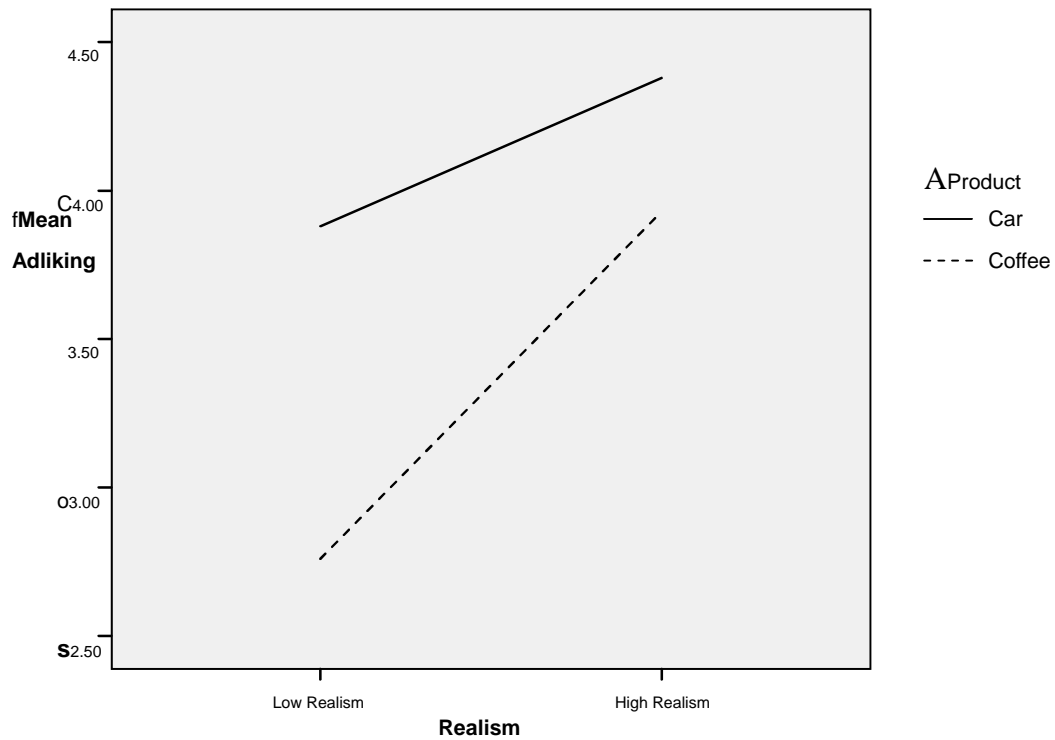


Figure 4.1 Line Graph of Mean Comparison of Ad Liking for Coffee and Car (Ad Liking)

Figure 4.1 is provided above to show the mean comparison for ad liking for coffee and cars visually. The difference between ad liking for coffee under low realism situation and that under high realism situation is about -1, meaning that consumers tend to like ads with high realism for coffee. The same trend is shown for the high involvement product-car, where higher ad liking is achieved among consumers under high realism situation, 0.5 more than that under low realism situation. Ad liking for coffee is more influenced by realism compared to that for car.

Brand Liking as Dependent Variable

Brand liking was input into the second mixed model as the dependent variable to test the following hypotheses:

H2a: For advertisements of high involvement products, those high in perceived realism would gain higher brand liking than those low in perceived realism.

H2b: For advertisements of low involvement products, brand liking would not differ between advertisements of high perceived realism and those of low perceived realism.

Table 4.5 Mixed Model Analysis for Brand Liking of Different Versions of Ads (N=512)

Source	df	F	p
Intercept	62	2276.417	.000
ORealism	62	1.433	.236
Involvement	434	17.733*	.000
ORealism * Involvement	434	1.200	.274
Involvement*Product	434	12.800*	.000
ORealism*Involvement*Product	434	3.480 *	.002

Note: *p < .05

As seen above in Table 4.5, a similar result was achieved when brand liking was input into the model for analysis. With an alpha level of .05, the effect of original realism (Orealism) was not statistically significant ($F(1, 62) = 1.433, p > .05$ [see Table 4.5]). Involvement is shown to be a significant variable ($F(1, 434) = 17.733, p < .05$). The two-way interaction between involvement and original realism is not significant, but the three-way interaction between involvement, product and original realism is significant ($F(6, 434) = 3.48, p < .05$).

Table 4.6 Univariate Tests for Effect of Original Realism on 8 Products (N=512)

Source	df	F	p
Low Involvement			
Coffee	350.420	10.454*	.001
Cereal	350.420	3.015	.083
Mouthwash	350.420	.229	.632
Bath Towel	350.420	1.735	.189
High Involvement			
Jeans	350.420	.090	.765
HDTV	350.420	.129	.720
Detergent	350.420	.014	.905
Car	350.420	4.908*	.027

Note. Each F tests the simple effects of Original Realism within each level combination of the other effects shown. SPSS: These tests are based on the estimable linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

*p < .05

In Table 4.6 above, the products coffee and car produce significant results when comparing the means of brand liking under high or low realism situations. For coffee and car, the degree of realism does affect brand liking. However, for the rest of the six products, the difference between means is not significant, which shows that realism has no interactive effect with product on brand liking among consumers. These comparisons between means for high and low realism situations suggest why the two-way interaction between involvement and realism is not significant, but the three-way interaction between involvement, product, and realism is significant.

For product coffee and car, which produced results at significance level .001 and .027 respectively (see Table 4.6), the original realism influenced the brand liking in a positive way: the more real the ad is, the more brand liking that is achieved among consumers (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Estimated Marginal Means of Brand Liking for 8 Products under High or Low Realism Situation (N=512)

Source	M	Std. Error
Coffee		
Low Realism	3.000	.185
High Realism	3.844*	.185
Cereal		
Low Realism	2.531	.185
High Realism	2.984	.185
Mouth Wash		
Low Realism	3.766	.185
High Realism	3.801	.185
Bath Towel		
Low Realism	3.891	.185
High Realism	3.969	.185
Jean		
Low Realism	3.422	.185
High Realism	3.244	.185
HDTV		
Low Realism	3.969	.185
High Realism	3.875	.185
Detergent		
Low Realism	3.828	.185
High Realism	3.797	.185
Car		
Low Realism	3.750	.185
High Realism	4.328*	.185

Note: The first 4 products belong to low involvement product and the last 4 belong to high involvement product, which are nested in involvement variable in mix model analysis.

*p < .05

This result partially supports Hypothesis H2a, which asserts that, for advertisements of high involvement products, those high in perceived realism would gain higher brand liking among consumers than those low in perceived realism. Among 4 high involvement products, only product car produced significant result. Unfortunately, there is no significant result to support Hypothesis H2b. Instead of

showing no difference between brand liking for ads with high realism and that for ads with low realism, the final result shows that consumers prefer the brand shown in coffee ads with high realism to those shown in ads with low realism. For the other 3 low involvement products, the effect of realism did not provide a statistically significant result.

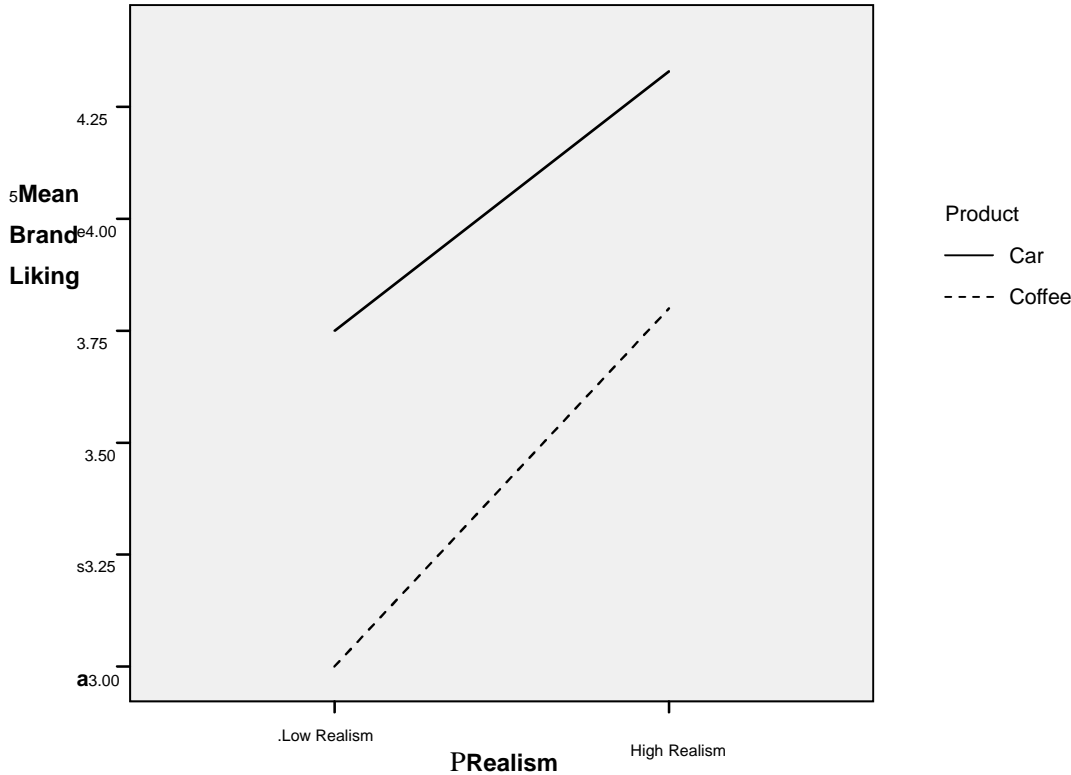


Figure 4.2 Line Graph of Mean Comparison of Brand Liking for Coffee and Car (Brand Liking)

Figure 4.2 is provided above to show the mean comparison for brand liking for coffee and cars visually. The mean difference between brand liking for coffee under low realism situation and that under high realism situation is about -0.8. It means consumers tend to like more the brand in ads with high realism for coffee.

The same trend is shown for the high involvement product-car, where higher brand liking is achieved among consumers under high realism situation, 0.6 more than that under low realism situation. Brand liking of coffee is influenced more by the degree of realism compared to that of car.

The Difference between Realism Manipulation and Final Realism Judgments

In stage 3 of the experiment, participants were asked to rate the degree of perceived realism after reading the ads' stories on the questionnaire. A close look at the original realism manipulation and the final perceived realism judgment may help to show whether there is difference between them. Perceived realism was input into the mix model as dependent variable to test its difference between original realism for the following analysis.

Table 4.8 shows that final realism judgment for products bath towel and jean is reversed compared to original realism manipulation, where ads with high original realism get lower scores for perceived realism judgment. For the product detergent, the difference between original realism manipulation and final realism judgment is tiny. For the other products, the perceived realism judgment is congruent with the original manipulation. The mean difference of perceived realism judgment achieved significant results for the products coffee, mouth wash, HDTV and car.

Table 4.8 Means of Perceived Realism for 8 Products under High or Low Original Realism Situation (N=512)

Source	M	Significance
Coffee		
Low Realism	2.469*	.025
High Realism	3.188	.025
Cereal		
Low Realism	2.063	.204
High Realism	2.469	.204
Mouth Wash		
Low Realism	2.375*	.025
High Realism	3.094	.025
Bath Towel		
Low Realism	3.781*	.020
High Realism	3.031	.020
Jean		
Low Realism	3.625	.079
High Realism	3.063	.079
HDTV		
Low Realism	2.563*	.025
High Realism	3.281	.025
Detergent		
Low Realism	3.188	.769
High Realism	3.094	.769
Car		
Low Realism	2.313*	.000
High Realism	3.656	.000

Note: The first 4 products belong to low involvement product and the last 4 belong to high involvement product, which are nested in involvement variable in mix model analysis.

*p < .05

The Correlation between Ad liking and Brand Liking

There is a strong correlation between ad liking and brand liking, with a .87 Pearson correlation coefficient. The correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. The result supports the Hypothesis 3, which posits that ad liking would correlate positively with brand liking shown in the ads.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Why does the perceived realism manipulation not work?

One limitation for the study is that the realism manipulation in the experiment was not as successful as originally planned. The manipulation of original realism is based on the degree of typicality, and it is highly possible that realism is not a one-dimensional concept; instead, it may be a multi-dimensional perception as Hall proposed (2003).

In the experiment, the creation of “real” and “unreal” versions of advertising stories is initially given by the participants and the manipulation of realism is mainly based on typicality rated by participants (Shapiro and Chock, 1999). The assumption of the manipulation is that realism is comprised of a single dimension, which should be greatly affected by the degree of typicality. However, in a recently study by Hall (2003), the author posited that realism is a multi-dimensional perception, which is composed of plausibility, typicality, factuality, emotional involvement, narrative consistency, and perceptual persuasiveness. Hall pointed out that there are previous studies showing that the conceptualization of realism varied and no single one can account for all the variation in realism perceptions. Hall conducted focus group interviews among participants, and the study “offers further evidence that audiences’ conceptualizations of media realism are multidimensional” (2003, p. 638). Several dimensions that participants described, including plausibility, typicality, factuality, are consistent with conceptualizations of realism that have been used repeatedly in previous quantitative studies. In the study, the degree of typicality varied for each ad, which is used as stimulus for the experiment. However, there is chance that the

variation of plausibility, factuality and narrative consistency may account for realism difference, leading to the biased realism manipulation which is only based on one dimension- typicality. For instance, the degree of perceived realism is reversed for the realism manipulation for product jeans. Instead of perceiving the first version in the following section as realistic one as planned, participants rated it with low score for realism. If using the plausibility criterion proposed by Hall (2003), we may explain that participants may consider lifestyle change for fitting in jeans as atypical to them or average people, but it is plausible for a character or celebrity in ads, who values style and fashion greatly. The conceptualization of realism based on multi-dimension merits further attention for studies.

High in manipulated realism, but low in perceived realism:

Christine puts on her favorite pair of jeans, which are slim fitted, as she dresses for a friend's party. Christine smiles to herself in the mirror when she puts on the jeans. The camera zooms in on Christine who smiles and says, "Leno, the jeans that make you feel so good!"

Low in manipulated realism, but high in perceived realism:

Christine puts on her favorite pair of jeans, which are slim fitted, as she dresses for a friend's party. In the next scene, Christine reflects back on how hard she worked to fit into the jeans. She changes her lifestyle and wakes up early to exercise and eat well balanced meals. The camera zooms in on Christine who smiles and says, "Leno, the jeans that make you feel so good!"

Hall (2003) posited out that different realism conceptualizations tended to use different media genres and factuality was referred by participants as only one criterion to gauge whether realistic text accurately represented a specific, real-world event or person. For example, films based on historical events, reality programs, and talk shows are considered as genres that make some claim to being true. This conceptualization is similar to the distinctions between fiction and nonfiction that were made in the experimental studies of researchers such as Atkin (1983) and Geen

(1975). The contrasts in the genres that were used to illustrate different conceptualizations suggest that the salience of particular conceptualizations of realism may depend on the genre of materials that is being considered. Materials that are purported to represent historical or nonscripted events seemed to prime audiences' evaluation of the materials with more actuality, compared to fantasy or science fiction texts. Previous study has shown how viewers process realism for two genres-opera and TV news (Shapiro & Chock, 2003), but there is no similar research about advertising yet. Would it be possible that consumers may be primed by advertising in a way that they expect more atypical events?

In the current study, I did not record the demographic information of participants, such as age, gender, education and income, which may have been helpful to further explain why the manipulation was not successful. Some previous studies posited that audiences are active interpreters of media texts and capable of making sense of the same text in a variety of ways. There can be contrasts in audience members' realism perceptions even when they are evaluating texts that are understood uniformly to present either fictional events or factual ones. Researchers such as Morley (1980) and Hunt (1997), for example, found that audience members of different ethnicities, races, or social classes interpreted the same newscasts differently. Press (1989) found that working- and middle-class women differed in their perceptions of the realism of a series of situation comedies, even though all of the respondents understood the programs to be fiction. Potential differences across viewers concerning how they evaluate media realism merit further investigation. It would be interesting to analyze the relationship between participants' individual differences and the importance of their perceived realism judgments; this information should be considered to include in future studies.

Why do only two products have interactive effect with realism?

Based on the result of the experiment, product involvement is a significant predictor variable. However, there are only two products out of eight that can account for the interaction effect between involvement and perceived realism, which was not significant. This helps to explain why two-way interaction is not significant, but the three-way interaction is significant, both for ad liking and brand liking.

Zaichkowsky (1985) introduced the personal involvement inventory to measure the degree of product involvement. On her scale ranging from 20 to 140, there is a normal distribution among products with a mean of 80 and median of 98.

Zaichkowsky (1985) pointed out that products with scores under 65 were in the bottom 25%, which she defined as low involvement products; whereas products with scores higher than 111 were in the top 25% and can be categorized as high involvement products. Coffee and car are two extreme points among eight products with 66, and 122 score respectively. For the other six products, cereal's score is 69, mouthwash's is 74, bath towel's is 87, and TV, jeans and detergent score at 97, 99, 103 respectively. These six products are somewhere between high and low involvement products category, but not in the high involvement product or low involvement product category if using the cutting-off score provided by Zaichkowsky. In future studies, it may be useful to find products with extremely low scores and extremely high scores to represent low or high involvement products if the goal of study is to categorize products into two groups and the variation between them is to be accounted.

Another interesting finding of this research is that the lowest involvement product – coffee is influenced the most by the degree of realism, which is not congruent with the original prediction. The development of hypotheses is based on the assumption that the thoughtful process of realism needs thinking motivation and

brain capacity. Shapiro and Chock (2003) found out that viewers could make moment-to-moment (every 10-sec) assessments of perceived realism while watching TV programs, and these judgments were strongly related to typicality. Would it be possible that realism is a peripheral cue, which does not involve lots of cognitive effort? If treating realism as a peripheral cue and taking the cognitive-based model into consideration, it helps to explain why realism has stronger influence on low involvement product – coffee than on high involvement product - car. Under low-involvement condition, individuals may be cued by previous behaviors (Calder, 1979), guided by peripheral cues (Petty and Caciopoo, 1981), simple awareness (Krugman, 1965), so the realism cues may influence subjects more. Another explanation may be that the relationship between realism, ad liking and brand liking has a U-Shape influence on products, where two extreme points (lowest and highest involvement products) are influenced the most. It is too early to make this claim based on one study; however, the finding may help researchers to think about the realism judgments from a different perspective.

Ad liking and brand liking are correlated as predicted.

The research shows that ad liking and brand liking are highly correlated, which was found in previous studies, but the effect is stronger than seen in previous studies. Julie and Buke (1987) pointed out that the impact of feelings on attitude toward brand is mediated by attitude toward ads. Based on their conceptual model, the exposure to advertizing has an effect on feelings from the ads among audiences, which then leads to attitude toward the ads and finally to attitude toward the brand. Other studies also supported this claim, where ad liking was treated as antecedent, or mediator for ads' influence on brand liking (Batra, Stayman, & Douglas, 1990; Mitchell, Andrew, and Olson, 1981). However, in these studies, the correlation

between attitude toward ads and attitude toward brand is not strong. Batra, Rajeev and Ray (1986) pointed out that attitude toward ads has a weak but significant impact on attitude toward brand. The strong relationship between ad liking and brand liking in the experiment gives supportive evidence that attitude toward ads is one important predictor correlated with attitude toward brand. The finding is practical for advisers and marketers, who introduce ads with ultimate goal of establishment of brand-customer relationship and increase of sale, and they can predict the brand liking by taking ads liking into consideration.

The design of experiment was to test whether ad-evoked ad liking leads to brand liking for a fictitious brand in text scripts. Even though a previous study (Lee & Mason, 1999) has shown the validity of testing brand attitude in a text based version of an ad's script, we still should be cautious given the fact that no visual logo or picture is linked to the fictitious brand, which does not represent current business environment. Future studies in the area should carefully determine the exact forms, dimensions and operationalization of ad brand before meaningful comparisons and integration of findings are propounded.

Conclusion

The experiment explored the impact of realism and product involvement on ad and brand liking, as well as two and three-way interactions between product, involvement and realism, which showed that ad liking and brand liking increase when perceived realism increases, but only for two products: coffee and cars. The influence of realism on ad liking or brand liking is greater for coffee than for cars. Ad liking and brand liking strongly correlated with each other in the study.

In summary, how product involvement interacts with perceive realism merits further study both for academicians and practitioner. Systematic research about ways

to categorize product involvement, and further inquiry about how to manipulate realism based on multi-dimensional conceptualization would be a major step in clearly understanding how advertisers might use these concepts for more effective communication strategies. For future study, it would be worthwhile to test different ways to operationalize the concepts of realism and product involvement. The correlation between ad liking and brand liking is of great practical use to marketers, whose most pressing aim is to establish positive brand image among consumers, with the eventual goal of encouraging product purchase.

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