AN EXPERIMENTAL TEST OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF ADVERTISING LANGUAGE TO THE STRENGTH OF INFERENCES DRAWN ABOUT PRODUCT CLAIMS

Richard J. Harris, Sandra J. McCoy, Tonie Rohrbaugh Foster, Nancy Krenke, and John I. Bechtold

Kansas State University

Abstract

An experiment was performed on college students to study their memory for claims made about products mentioned in advertising slogans embedded in a story. The slogans either asserted a claim directly or merely implied that claim. The asserted version made a claim very directly and strongly (e.g., Eradicold cures the flu), while the implied version only suggested the stronger claim (e.g., Eradicold fights the flu). Subjects read the story, which contained one of the two versions of each ad. This story was a short scenario in which the protagonist finds him/herself in their vehicle driving through traffic while being exposed to advertisements on radio, park benches, billboards, etc. After subjects finished reading the story memory was tested using cloze (fill-in-the-blanks) and multiple-choice tests. Results from both measures showed that subjects frequently falsely remembered an implied claim as having been asserted, while the reversed seldom occurred. These findings have implications for the issue of consumers being misled by deceptive advertising.

Introduction

One problem in applied linguistics is how the language in advertising may mislead a consumer into believing some erroneous information about the performance of some product (Geis, 1982; Harris, Sturm, Klassen, & Bechtold, 1986). The issue of defining deceptive advertising has been hotly debated in the marketing literature (Armstrong, Gurol, & Russ, 1980; Ford & Calfee, 1986; Gardner, 1975; Preston & Richards, 1986; Russo, Metcalf, & Stevens, 1981). A more cognitive approach may define the problem in a more information processing sense, i.e., in terms of whether a person comes to understand and remember information which is in fact inaccurate (Harris,

133

Dubitsky, & Bruno, 1983; Reece & Ducoffe, 1987; Russo, Metcalf, & Stevens, 1981).

In the normal course of language comprehension, we frequently infer beyond the information explicitly given in a text. People do not remember text literally but rather reconstruct it based on inferences drawn from it, the specific context of its use, and their own knowledge (e.g., Bransford, Barclay, & Franks, 1972; Bransford & Johnson, 1972; Harris, 1981).

One specific application of such research has been in the study of how people draw inferences from advertisements. The memory for an advertising claim can undergo alterations from an original claim which is only implied to a remembered meaning which states the claim more directly (Bruno & Harris, 1980; Harris, 1977; Harris, 1981). Harris and his colleagues demonstrated that people go beyond what is stated in an advertisement to infer a stronger claim than what was presented (Harris, 1977; Harris, Dubitsky, & Bruno, 1983). In these studies, subjects were presented an advertisement which either directly asserted or strongly implied a certain claim about a product. In a sentence-judgment memory task, strongly implied claims were remembered as having been directly asserted. These studies have found this effect using both real-world and imaginary product names and with both a written text of the advertisement and an oral presentation.

The present studies had the major purpose of extending these previous findings to recall and forced-choice-recognition measures in the somewhat more ecologically valid situation of reading connected discourse. An additional variable of a orally-induced situational context was also included, where subjects were told to imagine themselves as the protagonist in a story about either going shopping or visiting a friend.

Experiment 1 examined both cloze cued recall of ad claims and a multiple-choice task. Experiments 2 and 3 were brief followups looking at just one of these two measures individually, with the purpose of testing for possible inter-measure confounding.

Experiment 1

Method

Subjects. The subjects were 103 undergraduate
students at Kansas State University. They received
General Psychology course credit for participation and
were recruited for a study in "memory for a story
containing advertisements".

Materials. Sixteen advertising slogans (5-20
words long) for real products were written and
inserted into a brief story written by the
experimenters. There were two versions of each
slogan. One type stated a claim directly (assertion),
e.g., Eradicold cures the flu. The other only implied
the same claim (implication), e.g., Eradicold fights
the flu). The slogans were inserted into two versions
of the story, each containing eight asserted and eight
implied claims. The finished story contained sixteen
slogans, counterbalanced across the two versions and
the two types of claims.

Procedure and Design. The subjects were given a
page containing the story to read. This story was a
short scenario in which the protagonist finds
him/herself getting in a car and driving through
traffic while being exposed to advertisements through
radio, billboards, park benches, etc. Subjects were
instructed to read the story and imagine that they
were the protagonist in the story who was either (a)
"going on a shopping trip" or (b) "visiting a friend."
Upon receiving the story, subjects were to begin
reading it at their own speed. The critical mention
of going shopping or visiting a friend occurred three
times in the instructions and comprised two levels of
a between-subjects variable of context.

After subjects finished reading the story they
performed an intervening task of filling out index
cards for course credit. Following the intervening
task, the subjects were administered three types of
memory tasks: filler, cloze, and multiple choice,
respectively, to determine if the different
instructions about context or the different versions
of the ad affected their memory.

As an initial filler task, the subjects were
asked to recall all the product names (e.g, soap) and
brand names (e.g., Safeguard) that they could remember
from the slogans in the story. Following this filler
task subjects were handed thirty cloze questions. The
cloze questionnaire involved a duplication of the
story but with several words of the ads deleted. The
words deleted were key assertion and implication

phrases (e.g.,"GE light bulbs_____."), as well as
some control questions on non-ad material in the
story. The subjects were asked to fill in the blanks
"as accurately as possible." They were told to try to
remember the exact words, but, if they could not, to
write in the meaning as closely as they could
remember. All subjects received the same cloze task,
regardless of which story they had read.

        Finally, 28 multiple-choice questions (16 on the
ads and 12 on non-ad material) were administered to
the subjects. For the ad material, the four choices
for each question included (1) correct assertion, (2)
correct implication, (3) incorrect assertion, i.e., a
different claim stated directly, and (4) incorrect
implication, i.e., a different claim merely implied.
The order of the four choices in each question were
randomized. Whether (1) or (2) was the correct
response for that question depended on whether the
subject had read the asserted or implied version of
that ad. Also included in the multiple-choice task
were 12 questions on the non-ad content of the story.

Results

        Only the results from the cloze and
multiple-choice task were of interest here.

        Cloze data. Each response, regardless of which
version was read, was scored as either an assertion,
an implication, an omission, or an other.
Paraphrasing was accepted if the basic idea was
present and/or key phrases were used. For example,
some of the responses given to an Alka-Seltzer cold
medicine ad were scored as follows. The correct
assertion was "provides instant relief for" common
aches and pains. An acceptable paraphrase was
"relieves." A paraphrase of an assertion judged to be
different enough from the stimulus claim and thus
scored as an other was "goes to work fast on". The
correct implication was "helps lessen" common aches
and pains. An acceptable paraphrase was "helps
provide relief for." A distant paraphrase of an
implication that was scored as an other was "could
rescue." If no answer was given or the subject wrote
something such as "cannot remember," the answer was
scored as an omission. Such responses representing
interference from real ads, such as "takes a licking
and keeps on ticking" for the Timex ad, were scored as
an other; the correct assertion was "will last

forever." The nonads were scored as either correct, incorrect, or as an omission.

The group means for the cloze data appear in Table 1. Separate 2 x 2 analyses of variance were performed on each of the four types of responses. While there was no significant (p<.05) main effect in the number of asserted responses to the asserted and implied ads, there was a significant main effect in the number of implied responses to the two types of ads, F(1,101)= 13.85, MSe=1.73, p<.001. That is, if a subject read the asserted version of the ad, the implied response was seldom made. However, if the subject read the implied version of the ad, the implied and asserted responses were both more or less equally likely to occur. There was no significant (p<.05) main effect for the other responses or omitted responses. There was no significant (p<.05) main effect for the nonad items. No significant (p<.05) main effect or interaction involving context was found in any of the analyses.

Table 1
Cloze Task: Number of Responses

	Experiment 1 (Delay)				Experiment 2 (Immediate)			
	A	I	other	omit	A	I	other	omit
Read A	2.17	1.38	1.92	2.49	3.05	1.47	1.55	1.92
Read I	1.86	2.06	1.80	2.30	2.47	2.50	1.18	1.92

Multiple-choice data. The multiple-choice data were scored by counting the number of (1) correct responses, (2) "alternative" responses, i.e., the paraphrase of the correct response, or (3) Other, i.e., either of the two responses of the other type, e.g., either of the two asserted-claim responses if the actual claim read had been implied. A 2 x 2 analysis of variance was performed on the number of responses in each of these three response types, using the between-subjects factor of context (shopping or visiting a friend) and the within-subjects factor of type of ad read (asserted or implied claim). Mean number of responses in each category appear in Table 2.

The analysis of the number of correct responses showed a main effect of ad type, F(1,101)=7.35, MSe=1.23, p<.01, with more correct recognitions of the asserted than the implied ads (4.08 vs. 3.66). The analysis of the number of selections of the alternative response of the same type (i.e., the incorrect implied choice if the correct choice was

implied) showed the same main effect of ad type,
$F(1,101)=13.34$, MSe=.92, p<.001, with more such false
alarms made after reading asserted than implied claims
(1.25 vs. .77).   These two categories together may be
considered as memory for the correct strength of the
claim.   Asserted claims were most often remembered as
such, while implied claims were often falsely
remembered as asserted.

Table 2
Multiple-choice Task: Number of Responses

| | Expt. 1 (Delay) | | | Expt. 3 (Immediate) | | |
	Correct	Altern.	Other	Correct	Altern.	Other
Read A ads	4.08	1.25	2.67	4.26	1.46	2.31
Read I ads	3.66	.77	3.58	3.69	.89	3.43
Mean	3.87	1.01	3.12	3.97	1.17	2.87

     The analysis of the number of false recognitions
of the other type of claim (e.g., choosing an asserted
alternative if an implied statement had been present)
also showed a main effect of ad type, $F(1,101)=25.50$,
MSe=1.66, p<.001, but here the difference was in the
opposite direction, with more such responses made
after reading implied than asserted ads (3.57 vs.
2.67).   All of these results indicate that subjects
reading an implied claim were frequently falsely
recognizing a stronger (i.e., asserted) claim than
what they had read, but that subjects reading an
asserted claim were much less often falsely
recognizing the weaker implied claim.   In none of
these analyses was any main effect or interaction
involving context (shopping or visiting) significant.

     A simple one-way analysis of variance was
performed on the number of correct recognitions of the
nonad material with the single variable of context
(shopping or visiting a friend).   As expected, no
effect was found.

Discussion

Experiment 1 failed to produce an effect involving context. This could be because (1) The tasks are not sensitive to the context manipulation, or (2) Any potential effect of context was eliminated by the act of performing the preceding memory tasks and/or the fact that some time had passed. To explore this second possibility, two additional experiments were performed. Both used the same procedure and design as Experiment 1, except that, instead of three memory tasks, subjects performed only one, either the cloze task (Experiment 2) or the multiple-choice task (Experiment 3). If no effects of context are obtained in these experiments, then we know that the findings in Experiment 1 cannot be attributed to interference from the prior memory tasks or passage of time.

Experiment 2

Method

The method and procedure of Experiment 2 were identical to Experiment 1, except that subjects performed only the cloze task, with no filler recall or multiple-choice task. There were 39 subjects.

Results and Discussion

The group means for the cloze data appear at the right of Table 1. Data were analyzed exactly as in Experiment 1, with separate 2 x 2 analyses of variance performed on each of the four types of responses. Results exactly paralleled those from Experiment 1. While there was no significant ($p<.05$) main effect in the number of asserted responses to the asserted and implied ads, there was a significant main effect in the number of implied responses to the two types of ads, $F(1,36)=10.18$, $MSe=2.04$, $p<.005$. That is, if a subject read the asserted version of the ad, the implied response was seldom made. However, if the subject read the implied version of the ad, the implied and asserted responses were both likely to occur. There was no significant ($p<.05$) main effect for the other responses or omitted responses. There was no significant ($p<.05$) main effect for the nonad items. No significant ($p<.05$) main effect or interaction involving context was found in any of the analyses. Thus the results obtained in Experiment 1 were replicated, indicating that the intervening filler recall test had no substantial effect on responses to the cloze task, except for lowering the overall accuracy level of recall.

Experiment 3

Method

The method and procedure of Experiment 3 were
identical to Experiment 1, except that subjects
received only the multiple-choice task and no filler
recall or cloze task. There were 35 subjects.

Results and Discussion

The multiple-choice data were scored and analyzed
exactly as in Experiment 1, first by counting the
number of (1) correct responses, (2) "alternative"
responses, i.e., the paraphrase of the correct
response, or (3) Other, i.e., either of the two
responses of the other type, e.g., either of the two
asserted-claim responses if the actual claim read had
been implied. A 2 x 2 analysis of variance was
performed on the number of responses in each of these
three response types, using the between-subjects
factor of context (shopping or visiting a friend) and
the within-subjects factor of type of ad read
(asserted claim or implied claim). Mean number of
responses in each category appear at the right in
Table 2.

The three analyses produced exactly the same
significant effects as those obtained in Experiment 1.
The analysis of the number of correct responses showed
a main effect of ad type, $F(1,33)=4.24$, $MSe=1.39$,
$p<.05$, with more correct recognitions of the asserted
than the implied ads (4.26 vs. 3.69). The analysis of
the number of selections of the alternative response
of the same type (i.e., the incorrect implied choice
if the correct choice was implied) showed the same
main effect of ad type, $F(1,33)=6.05$, $MSe=.92$, $p<.001$,
with more such false alarms made after reading
asserted than implied claims (1.46 vs. .89).

The analysis of the number of false recognitions
of the other type of claim (e.g., choosing an asserted
alternative if an implied statement had been present)
also showed a main effect of ad type, $F(1,33)=14.26$,
$MSe=1.53$, $p<.001$, but the difference was in the
opposite direction, with more such responses made
after reading implied than asserted ads (3.43 vs.
2.31). Thus, subjects reading an implied claim were
frequently falsely recognizing a stronger (i.e.,
asserted) claim as what they had read, but subjects
reading an asserted claim were much less often falsely

recognizing the weaker implied claim.   In none of
these analyses was any main effect or interaction
involving context significant.

A simple one-way analysis of variance was
performed on the number of correct recognitions of the
nonad material with the single variable of context
(shopping or visiting a friend).   As expected, no
effect was found.

The fact that the results from the
multiple-choice task in Experiment 3 were virtually
identical to those obtained in Experiment 1 shows that
neither the passage of time nor the interpolated
activity of performing the filler and cloze tasks in
Experiment 1 had any effect on memory.   Neither can
the lack of any context effects be attributed to the
interference of these tasks or the passage of time.

General Discussion

These experiments have supported the previous
findings of Harris, et al (1983) and extended them to
the more realistic situation of reading connected
discourse instead of single sentences.   Also, the
effect was observed with two different dependent
measures, cloze and multiple choice.   These findings
thus argue that previously obtained effects are highly
robust and generalizable.   Very subtle linguistic
changes thus can have a profound impact on memory.   In
making such memory "errors" subjects may be misled or
deceived by ads which may imply a falsehood without
stating it directly.

The fact that no effect involving the
instructional context manipulation was significant
suggests that either such a manipulation simply has no
effect on what was being measured or that the
manipulation used in the present study was just too
weak to produce the effect.   Which of these
explanations is more accurate must await further
research.

REFERENCES

Armstrong, G.M., Gurol, M.N., & Russ, F.A. (1980).
Defining and measuring deception in advertising: A
review and evaluation. Current Issues and Research
in Advertising, 17-39.

Bransford, J.D., Barclay, J.R., & Franks, J.J. (1972).
     Sentence memory: A constructive versus interpretive
     approach. Cognitive Psychology, 2, 331-350.

Bransford, J.D., & Johnson, M. (1972). Comprehension
     prerequisites for understanding: Some
     investigations of comprehension and recall. Journal
     of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 11,
     717-726.

Bruno, K.J., & Harris, R.J. (1980). The effect of
     repetition on the discrimination of asserted and
     implied claims in advertising. Applied
     Psycholinguistics, 1, 317-321.

Ford, G.T., & Calfee, J.E. (1986). Recent developments
     in FTC policy on deception. Journal of Marketing,
     50, 82-103.

Gardner, D.M. (1975). Deception in advertising: A
     conceptual approach. Journal of Marketing,
     39(Jan.), 40-46.

Geis, M.L. (1982). The language of television
     advertising. New York: Academic Press.

Harris, R.J. (1981). Inferences in information
     processing. In G.H. Bower (Ed.), The psychology of
     learning and motivation. Vol 15. New York:
     Academic Press.

Harris, R.J., Dubitsky, T.M., & Bruno, K.J. (1983).
     Psycholinguistic studies of misleading advertising.
     In R.J. Harris (Ed.), Information processing
     research in advertising. Hillsdale NJ: Erlbaum.
     Pp. 241-262.

Harris, R.J., Sturm, R.E., Klassen, M.L., & Bechtold,
     J.I. (1986) Language in advertising: A
     psycholinguistic approach. Current Issues and
     Research in Advertising, 1-26.

Preston, I.L., & Richards, J.I. (1986). Consumer
     miscomprehension as a challenge to FTC prosecutions
     of deceptive advertising. The John Marshall Law
     Review, 19(3), 603-635.

Reece, B.B., & Ducoffe, R.H. (1987). Deception in
     brand names. Journal of Public Policy and
     Marketing, 6, 93-103.

Russo, J.E., Metcalf, B.L., & Stephens, D. (1981).
    Identifying misleading advertising. <u>Journal of
    Consumer Research</u>, 8, 119-131.